An Argus Specialist Publication




AUABET 1984950

## D) -what do you need? -building your own -how to use it



## High performance, low price kits for today's musicians

## DIGITAL DELAY LINE



Digital delay circuitry is an absolute necessity for high quality studio work, but usually comes with a four-figure price tag.

Powertran can now offer you digital quality for the price of a high analog unit. The unit gives delay times from 1.6 mSecs to 1.6 secs with many powerful effects including phasing, flanging, A.D.T., chorus, echo and vibrato. The basic kit is extended in 400 mSec steps up to $1: 6$ seconds simply by adding more parts to the PCB
Complete kit
( 400 mS delay)
E179
Parts for extra 400 mS delay
(up to 3)..
219.50

## TRANSCENDENT 2000



This professional quality 3 -octave instrument is transposable 2 octaves up or. down, giving an effective 7 -octave range.

There is portemento pitch bending, VCO with shape and pitch modulation, VCF with high and low pass outputs and separate dynamic sweep control, noise generator and an ADSR envelope shaper. Other features include special circuitry with precision components to ensure tuning stability.

Complete kit.
E150

CHROMATHEQUE 5000
ETI 5-channel lighting
effects system


Many lighting control units are now available. Some perform switching and others modulation of light output according to musical input. The Chromatheque combines both functions. It controls 5 banks of lamps up to 500 W each in either analog or digital mode. And the 5 channels give more colours and more exciting linear and random sequencing than is possible with 3 or 4 -channel systems. Versatile light level controls enable the lights to be partially on to suit the mood of the occasion. Wiring is minimal and construction straightforward.

Complete kit
279.50


MPA 200
100 watt mixer/amplifier

Here's a rugged, professionally finished mixer amp designed for adaptability, stability and easy assembly. Using new super-strength power transistors and a minimum of wiring, it offers a wide range of inputs (extra components are supplied for additional inputs), 3 tone controls, each with 15 dB boost and 15 dB cut, and a master volume control.

Complete kit
$£ 79.50$

## SP2-200

2-channel, 100 -watt amplifer


The SP2-200 uses
two of the power amplifier
sections of the MPA 200 (above), each with its own power supply. A custom designed toroidal transformer enables both channels to simultaneously deliver over 100 W rms into 8 ohms. Each channel has its own volume control, and a sensitivity of 0.775 mV ( OdBm ) makes this amplifer suitable for virtually all pre-amps or mixers.

Complete kit $\qquad$ $£ 99.50$

Goods subject to availability. All prices exclusive of VAT and correct at time of going to press.



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## FEATURES

## DIGEST

ETI rehashes the press releases other news pages cannot reach.

TEST EQUIPMENT
18
The first of our four special features looks at the range of test equipment available and what it is used for.

CHOOSING TEST
EQUIPMENT
26
Should you buy a multimeter that's fallen off the back of a lorry?


## BUILDING TEST

EQUIPMENT.39

If Hewlett Packard, Gould, Advance and Solartron can do it, why shouldn't you?

## DEBUGGING AND

FAULT-FINDING.46

What to do with all that test equipment you've now bought, built or borrowed.

## COMMUNICATIONS

## SATELLITES

55Having got the series safely off the ground in our last issue, Roger Bond steers a course through some of the more interesting satellite transmission systems.

## PROJECTS

## CORTEX CENTRONICS

INTERFACE ..................... . 23
Part two of our unparalleled nonserial interface design.

## AUDIO DESIGN

AMPLIFIER
John Linsley Hood supplies another powerful instalment of this gripping serial.

## SHARP JOYSTICK

INTERFACE42

John Graham offers some blunt words on the subject of Sharp joysticks.

## EPROM EMULATOR 50

 ... and for his next trick, Mike Bedford will turn a board full of 6116 s into a pretty fair imitation of an EPROM.INFRA-RED ALARM............ 59
Frederick Howard completes his description of the design that will alarm burglars and leave you beaming.

## CMOS TESTER

64Don't pin yourhopeson that CMOS IC until Roger Dooley's DIL tester has checked it.


## INFORMATION

NEXT MONTH'S ETI. ..... 6 ..... 66
ETI BOOK SERVICE............... 7 PCB FOII PATTERNS ..... 68
ETI PCB SERVICE 54 ADVERTISERS' INDEX ..... 74

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## EX42 KEYBOARD INTERFACE

As we said when we published the design for the EX42 printer interface, it seems a pity to have such a nice keyboard and not to make use of it. Well, now you can do, with this interface. Our next trick is to turn a ZX81 into a word processor... but don't hold your breath waiting for it!


## SIREN UNIT

After doing all the feature articles in this issue (well, nearly all), Phil Walker was itching to get some dirt under his fingernails, and here's the result! The ETI banshee's wailing will scare the burglars away - it's designed to accompany the ETI Warlock, published last month, and there will be more details of how to use the two together or independently.

## ACTIVE LOUDSPEAKER

Active loudspeakers have a lot to offer, especially if you can escape the' esoteric' price tag bybuilding them yourself. So it's hardly surprising that we have already published one or two designs for active speakers - and it will hardly be surprising if we carry on publishing designs, there's no such thing as the definitively 'right' loudspeaker.

## DIGITAL CASSETTE DECK

Do you tire of the pain of using an audio cassette player to store your computer programs? Do you long for a cheap(ish), fast reliable method of storage yet begrudge the cost of a floppy? Well, the next issue of ETI will offer you the solution in the form of a digital cassette deck. The advantages of this design over a conventional audio deck are two-fold. Firstly, the cassette deck is solenoid controlled, and these will be operated directly from the computer, by means of a special-purpose interface. Secondly, by not having the conventional audio amplifier in the way, it can be designed to have a very much higher baud rate than the average tape system. However, this is not at the expense of compatibility with proprietary software.

# ALL THIS AND MORE IN THE SEPTEMBER ISSUE OF ETI, ON SALE AUGUST 3RD. PLACE YOUR ORDER NOW, EVEN IF YOU'RE GOING ON HOLIDAY. 



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## NEWS:NEWS:NEWS:NEWS:NEWS:NEWS:NEWS



## Cortex Facelift

The Cortex computer, as described in ETI in November and December 1982 and January 1983 (and also in a recently published edition of Electronics Digest, Vol 5 No 1) is to get a facelift, if that's the right phrase. Powertran Cybernetics will shortly be marketing the kit in a newstyle case, which will be a lot slimmer than the original. The unit will include a re-designed PCB, incorporating all the modifications that have accrued since the Cortex was originally published.

Powertran are also in the process of revising the Cortex manual, and hope to be able to provide a cheap disc operating system in the near future.
A users' group is being started up, and all purchasers of the Cortex should be receiving a letter about it; if you haven't already heard from him, drop Tony Lydeard a line at Powertran, as he is currently organising the group. He would particularly like to hear from people who would like to write letters or articles for the newsletter. Powertran may be found at Portway Industrial Estate, Andover, Hants SP10 3 NN.


## Fast 16K <br> Static RAMs

Byte-wide 16 K static RAMs operating at high speed and incorporating a low-power standby mode are now available. Organised as $2 \mathrm{~K} \times 8$ bits, the Toshiba TMM2018D features a maximum access time of 45 ns .
Maximum operating current from a single 5 V supply is 150 mA . A low power standby mode is entered when $\overline{C S}$ goes high and the device is deselected, when maximum standby current is 20 mA .

These fully static devices are suitable for use in cache memory
and other high speed storage applications. All inputs and outputs are directly TTL compatible, and inputs are protected against static charge.

Efficient operation in bus structured environments is facilitated by the provision of an output buffer control line, OE. These devices are supplied in a 24 pin cerdip package with a pin spacing of 0.3 inch width (unusual in 24 pin packages), which allows maximum utilisation of printed circuit board space.

For further details contact Impulse Electronics Limited, Croudace House, Caterham, Surrey CR3 6XQ tel 0883 40325.

## High-Tech <br> Students In Demand

Students from a pilot training programme in the field of opto-electronics are in such demand from industry that the Manpower Services Commission has decided to repeat the project.
The courses, at Swansea, Newcastle and Coventry, are sponsored by the MSC under a scheme that aims to identify emerging high technology skill needs and stimulate the development of training to meet them. Opto-electronics is one of those new fields, and three years ago MSC sponsored a course to train unemployed graduates in the subject at Newcastle Polytechnic.
Such was its success that a further two courses, designed to retrain and update qualified en-
gineers and technicians, began last year at West Glamorgan Institute of Higher Education, Swansea, and Lanchester Polytechnic, Coventry. "Demand for students from industry is very great, so we have decided to run all three courses again in the Autumn," said Mike Yates, Head of the MSC's Technologist and Technician Training Section.

Courses involve a period of college-based training, lasting 36 weeks, followed by about 10 weeks of industrial experience. In college, the students cover such areas as micro-electronics, optics, mathematics, electronics, data transmission, fibre optics, image processing video displays and lasers.

These courses are likely to be over-subscribed, and ads will be appearing in the press (perhaps even ETI!) in the near future, but local MSC training division offices or job centres should be able to obtain further details for you.


## Silicon Factory For UK?

Monsanto, the world's largest supplier of polished silicon wafers, plans to invest more than $\$ 35$ million in a research and manufacturing facility in the United Kingdom. It is expected to create more than $\mathbf{4 0 0}$ jobs during the next five years.

This project still requires Monsanto Board approval, but is intended to provide the UK with a domestic source of Czochralski silicon polished wafers currently imported by the integrated circuit manufacturers, while the research facility should play a critical role in Monsanto's worldwide electronics research programme.

Construction of the Milton Keynes facility is scheduled to start later this year on a prime 10 acre greenfield site at Wolverton Mill. The first phase is due for completion early in 1986 and will
employ 100-130 people. The new plant will bebased on Monsanto's most recent technology and produce the advanced 100, 125 and 150 mm wafers used in the manufacture of the very latest VLSI circuits.
The research centre will focus on development of the near perfect crystal structures needed for the next generation of high speed memories and microprocessors. Many of the centre's planned furdamental and applied research programmes will involve collaboration with device manufacturers, universities and industry research centres in the UK and throughout Europe.

Monsanto will also consolidate its European electronic materials business management, marketing and applications groups at the new Milton Keynes site. Monsanto Europe SA, Avenue de Tervuren, 270-272 B-1150 Brussels, Belgium, tel (Belgium) 02-762-11-12.

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From BASIC to PASCAL Anderson

## Mastering Machine Code on your ZX81 T Baker

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## Video Encoding Goes LSI

A. new LSI integrated circuit that combines the functions of a board-full of components previously required for the implementation of a colour video encoder has been introduced by Motorola. The new monolithic encoder represents a major system simplification for a wide variety of end products including colour cameras, personal computers, colour graphics computers and terminals, and is estimated to reduce the cost of implementing this function by an order of magnitude.
The MCI377P combines the RGB video information into a composite video signal in either the NTSC or PAL format. It contains a sub-carrier oscillator, voltage controlled 90 degree phase shifter, two double-side-band
modulators, RGB input matrices and blanking level clamps. Its oscillator can be used as the master in a system, or it can be driven by an external source. The RGB inputs are AC coupled to simplify interfacing a variety of equipments. A $1.0 \vee$ P-P input level produces full saturation of colours in the output.

The only other input required is a composite sync signal, which is combined with the encoded video to produce the composite video output. The sync is also used to trigger the generation of the colour (burst) reference. Both chroma and luma signals are "looped out" of the chip to permit tailoring bandwidth and delay to the designer's needs. This permits very elegant applications as well as very simple ones. Motorola Ltd, Semiconductor Products Sector, European Literature Centre, 88 Tanners Drive, Blakelands, Milton Keynes, tel 0908614614 (quote release number 16).


## Not-So-Weedy Reedy

$\mathrm{H}^{2}$amlin Electronics has introduced a powerful new glassencapsulated reed switch designed to switch high-current loads.
The new switch, Model 5091, is rated at 15 A at 240 V AC and 30 A at $72-120 \mathrm{VAC}$. The new device is extremely compact, measuring
only 2.250 inches in length, leads included, with a diameter of 0.26 inch maximum.
The combination of small size and high switching power capability makes the model 5091 an ideal component for use in highpower relays and heavy-duty switching applications. The standard Model 5091 has single-pole, single-throw, normally open contacts. Hamlin Electroncis Europe Ltd., Park Road, Diss, Norfolk IP22 3 AY, tel 03794411.

## New Power HEXFETs

Anew range of P-channel HEXFET power transistors combining high power ratings with excellent reliability specifcations is now available from International Rectifier.

The new IRF9140 and IRF9240 Series incorporate the largest chip of any P-channel device yet produced, the HEX-4 size, and have the highest current capacity, with ratings from 9A to 19A. Typical drain-source on-state resistance is $0.2 \Omega$ to $0.75 \Omega$, and the devices are available for voltage ratings of $60 \mathrm{~V}, 100 \mathrm{~V}, 150 \mathrm{~V}$ and 200 V .
The new products are the approximate electrical complements to the industry-standard N-channel IRF130 and IRF230. International Rectifier, Hurst Green, Oxted, Surrey, RH8 9BB, tel Oxted 3215/4231.

- Middlesex Polytechnic are running a summer school at their Trent Park site in North London from the 16 th of July to the 17 th of August. Courses available cover such topics as file processing, programming principles and microelectronics as well as an introductory computing course, fees range from $£ 75$ to $£ 125$ and accomodation is available for $£ 28$ a week excluding meals. For details contact Admissions Enquiries, Middlesex Polytechnic, 114 Chase Side, London N14 5 PN, tel01-886 6599.
- International Rectifier have issued a six-page leaflet describing their range of encapsulated bridge rectifiers. The range in cludes single and three-phase bridges with ratings from one to forty amps and from 50 to 1200 volt's, and full technical information and dimensions are given. International Rectifier, Hurst Green, Oxted, Surrey RH8 9BB, tel Oxted 3215.



## Powerful Friend

f the bench power supply unit in The picture looks familiar that's probably because you saw it as a project in the February issue of ETI. As we pointed out then, the unit is available from Grenson Electronics either as a kit or as a ready built unit, and not only has the price not risen since then it has actually fallen, albeit only by a few pence.

The prices quoted in the February issue have been rounded down slightly and the BPU-4 now costs $\mathbf{£ 5 9 . 0 0}$ in kit form or $\mathbf{£ 9 8 . 0 0}$ fully assembled, both prices including VAT and delivery. The unit has a single-rail supply which offers from 3 to 8 V at up to 2.5 A and a dual-rail supply which offers $\pm 8$ to $\pm 16 \mathrm{~V}$ at up to 0.5 A . The negative half of the dual-rail sup-
ply is designed to accurately track the positive side so that the two are always balanced around $O V$, and a single potentiometer adjusts the voltage of both. The regulation is such that the output voltage varies by less than $0.1 \%$ from zero to full load, ripple is less than $0.05 \%$ peak-to-peak, and the outputs are all protected against overload, short circuit and the injection of external voltages. A pair of dual-scale moving coil meters monitor voltage and current and a single switch connects them to the plus 5 V , plus 15 V or minus 15 V supply as desired.

The BPU-4 is available from Grenson Electronics Ltd, High March, Daventry, Northamptonshire NN11 4HQ tel 0327705521. Alternatively, you can order a copy of the February ETI from our backnumber service and build your own.



## Is This The World's Thinnest AM/FM Stereo Radio?

Panasonic's parent company Matsushita electric Industrial Company Limited of Osaka, Japan announces the development of the world's thinnest and lightest FM/AM stereo personal radio - the RF-07. This new radio measures 91 mm high, 55 mm wide and 3.9 mm deep - approximately the size of a credit card. The weight is a mere 38 g which includes a rechargeable internal NiCad battery, which provides approximately 5 hours of playing time under normal use.
Panasonic say that to achieve such a remarkably small size, revolutionary new circuits have been designed, resulting in radio high-density circuits (RHC) - the ultimate in miniaturization and radio design. The RHC's are used
in four sections of this radio: the FM frontend (VHF high frequency amplifer, local oscillation and frequency mixer circuits); the FM/ AM IF amplifier and AM automatic gain control circuits; and the stereo low frequency amplifier circuits.
Many new components have been developed for use in the RF07 and include a variable condenser, volume control, tantalum condenser chips, IF transformer and ultrathin AM antenna. Each of these components has been designed to be less than 2.8 mm in total thickness. The print wired board (PWB) has also been reduced in thickness from 0.5 mm to 0.3 mm and has been designed as part of the rear panel of the cabinet - a revolutionary new construction. Accessories include a battery recharger, stereo earphones and a carrying case for the unit.
The RF-07 is expected to be launched in the UK at the end of this year. How long will it be before they introduce a TV of the same size? Panasonic UK Limited, 300-318 Bath Road, Slough, Berkshire SL1 6)B, tel 0753-34522.

## Ultra Low Noise Preamp

The SSM 2015 from Solid State Micro Technology is a monolithic ultra low noise audio preamplifer particularly suited to microphone use. Gains from 10 to over 2000 can be selected with wide band-width and low distortion over the full gain range.

The circuit has a wide bandwidth of 700 KHz at a gain of 100 with symmetric slew rate of $6 \mathrm{~V} / \mu \mathrm{s}$ and distortion of $0.007 \%$. True differential inputs and a high common mode rejection of 100 dB provide easy interfacing to transducers such as balanced microphone outputs, tape heads and single ended devices.

An internal feedback loop maintains the input stage current at a value controlled by an external bias resistor. This provides a programmability function which allows noise to be optimised for a wide range of source impedances up to 4 k ohms; noise is within 1 dB of the theoretical minimum value between 500 ohms and 2.5 kohms.

The SSM 2015 is specified for commercial temperature ranges only and costs $£ 9.48$ one off price. Coole Marketing Services Ltd., 26 Pamber Heath Road, Pamber Heath, Nr. Basingstoke, Hants, tel 0734700453.

## High <br> Performance 256K EPROM

High performance EPROMs with the largest capacity yet available, 256k bits, have just been announced by Hitachi.
Organised as $32 \mathrm{k} \times 8$ bits, the HN27256G is an NMOS EPROM manufactured in 2 micron technology. Versions with access times of 250 ns (part numbered -25 ) or $300 \mathrm{~ns}(-30)$ are available. Inputs and outputs are TIL compatible during both 'read' and 'program' modes.

Power consumption from a single 5 V supply is 240 mW (typ) when active, reducing to the low level of 80 mW (typ) on standby. For programming, $12.5 \mathrm{~V} \pm 0.3 \mathrm{~V}$ is required, compatible with other high capacity EPROMs.

An interesting feature is the onchip identifier mode. This allows codes relating to manufacturer and type of device, stored in the device, to be read by programming equipment so that the appropriate programming sequence is employed.
The 28-pin outline conforms to the industry standard pir-out. Hitachi Electronic Components (UK) Limited, Hitec House, 221/ 225 Station Road, Harrow, Middx. HA1 2XL, tel 01-861 1414.


- Thorn EMI have issued a new photomultiplier accessories catalogue. Details from The Sales Department, Thorn EMI Electron Tubes Limited, Bury Street, Ruislip, Middlesex HA4 7TA, tel 08965 30771.

Two very fast 32 K PROMs are being proferred by Microlog Ltd, 1 st Floor, Elizabeth House, Duke Street, Woking Surrey GU21 5 BA, tel 0486266771 . They' re the $6353281 A$ and 6353281 from Monolithic Memories, and have access times of 40 and 50 ns respectively.

- NEC is set to launch two new CMOS microprocessors, the 8bit uPD70108C (or V20 for short) with 8-bit external bus and 16-bit internal bus, and the 16 -bit
uPD70116C (or V30) which has both internal and external busses 16 bits wide. Both products employ NEC's two-micron fine pattern technology, and NEC claim a speed improvement of 1.5 times over equivalent NMOS products. NEC Electronics (UK) Ltd, Carfin Industrial Estate, Motherwell ML1 4 UL, Scotland, tel 0698732221.
- Supercat Electronics, whose first mail order test equipment catalogue we mentioned in the Februaryissue, have now brought out a second, larger catalogue. It contains details of test and measurement instruments, connectors, kits, leads and accessories and is available free of charge from Supercat Electronics Ltd, PO Box 201, St. Albans, Hertfordshire AL14EN, tel0727-62171.


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Colour Screen From Mitsubishi

Visitors to the CETEX (consumer electronics trade exhibition, were treated to the sight of a new flat colour display from Mitsubishi. Called the crystal colour modular screen, it is, as the name suggests, a modular display, with the basic unit a few inches square.

As yet technical information is

## The Feelies Are Here?

eft gibbering in front of the telly, after that ad for that computer, and wondering how you can make your micro's screen touch sensitive? Perdix components may have the answer for you, though it could be a while before it finds its way on to the hobby/ small user market.

The product in question is a
rather thin on the ground as the product is still very new, and apparently only at the prototype stage, but we have been told that the display is illuminated from the back using flourescent lighting, then an RGB gate operated by a crystal diode determines the transmitted light colour through to the viewer.
We hope to be able to give you more information - perhaps even a picture - in the near future. Mitsubishi, Hertford Place, Denham Way, Rickmansworth, Herts, tel 0923-770000.
transparent touch keyboard, available in custom and standard formats, and in matrix or analogue versions. Perdix say that the keypad should be suitable for LCD, LED, plasma and CRT displays, that the unit has been cycle tested over a million times with no degradation, and that it will operate between $-10^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and +60 C . Perdix Components Ltd, Unit 4, Airport Trading Estate, Biggin Hill, Westerham, Kent TN16 3 BW, tel 0959471011.


## Switches With Integral Resistors

B\&R Electrical Products claim to have scored a world first with their series $W$ range of DIP switches. The devices feature a thick-film resistor network, thereby saving on board space and assembly time when compared with discrete switch/resistor attenuator networks and also offering improved performance and reliability.

The series $\mathbf{W}$ switches feature slide-actuated, knife-edge, ultrahigh pressure contact mechanisms and moulded-in resistor networks which are environmentally sealed. They are available in chip select, digital attenuator and
digital trimming potentiometer types and are rated for operation at up to $24 \mathrm{VAC} / \mathrm{DC}$ and 125 mW , with the exception of the digital attenuator types which are rated at 50 mW . The chip select switches come in $2,4,6,8$ and 10 pole versions and with resistor values of either 3.3 or 10 kohms . The digita attenuator switches come in 2,3, 4 and 5 pole versions with impedance ratings of $50,75,150,300$ and 600 ohms and offer attenuation steps of $0.5,1,2,4,8$ and 16 dB. The digital trimming potentiometer switches also come in 2, 3, 4 and 5 pole versions and in a range of resistance values from 100 ohm to 1 M ohm.

Full details of the series $W$ switches are given in a twelvepage brochure which is now avail able. B\&R Electrical Products Ltd, Temple Fields, Harlow, Essex CM20 2 BG, tel 0279-443351.

## This Is 448 K-bytes

Areliable, high-density assembly of dynamic random access memory in a single-in-line package (SIP) has been announced by Texas Instruments. It uses plastic leaded chip carriers on a low-cost printed circuit board substrate and provides four times as much memory on the same board area as conventional dual-in-line DRAMs.

The memories are built using a number of 64 K DRAMs in 18 -pin plastic chip carriers which are mounted on a printed circuit board with de-coupling capacitors and connection pins all on one side. Texas Instruments claims that the SIP offers high reliability and gives significant savings in material and test costs by reducing the need for expensive multiple-layer boards.

To date, the SIP product family enables users to utilise memory
components in the density range of up to 500 K -bits without penat ising space. Initially seven types are available: 64 K by $4,5,8$ or 9 bits; 256 K by 1 bit; 32 K by 8 bits and 16 K by 16 bits.
All present and future SIP products are density upward compatible enabling the users to design with DRAM densities well ahead of silicon availability. By the end of the year, TI plans to announce a second generation of SIP modules intensively using its family of 64 K DRAMs, and 256 K DRAMs, thus providing the first 2 meg DRAMs component on the market.

All family members will feature identical pin functions and spacing for easy upgrade. The TI SIP products are available in three versions: 120, 150 and 200 ns max access time. They operate from a single 5 -volt power supply in a 0 70 C free-air temperature range. Texas Instruments Limited, Manton Lane, Bedford MK41 7PA, tel 023467466 .

- Don't lose your memory on power-down with a new device from Newport Components Limited, 134 Tanners Drive, Milton Keynes MK14 5BP (tel 0908 615232). The NM221 storer-caller is designed to provide the correct store and recall control signals for non-volatile RAM devices, such as the X2201, X2210 and X2212, on power-down and power-up. At all other times, the NM221 is inactive.
- Holsworthy Electronics supply $0.1 \%$ and $0.5 \%$ tolerance precision metal film resistors in E96 values between 100 R and 256 K ohm. The minimum charge is $\mathbf{£ 2 0 . 0 0}$,
orders received by $3.00 \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{m}$. will be despatched on the same day, and there are plans to expand the range available in the future. For details contact Holsworthy Electronics (Sales) Ltd, Hacche Mill, South Molton, Devon EX36 3 NA, tel 07695-3151.

Ferranti have issued a new 60page technical hand-book detailing their range of high quality opto-electronics products, and a brochure on their power MOSFETs. Details from Ferranti Electronics Limited, Fields New Road, Chadderton, Oldham, Lancs OL9 8NP, tel 061-624 0515.

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# TEST EQUIPMENT 

# In this, the first of four special features on test equipment, Phil Walker takes a look at the types of equipment available and the uses to which they are put. 

The best test equipment you will ever possess cannot be bought in any shop. We hope you keep it on your shoulders. The human brain has the ability to store vast amounts of information and to make sense of often incomplete or erroneous data, and the prime duty of test equipment is to provide clear, accurate and useful data so as to enable the user to reach valid conclusions.

Test equipment generally falls into two categories. The first provides stimuli to the circuitry under test and includes power supplies, waveform generators and other signal sources. The second group is comprised of all the measurement and display instruments, such as voltmeters, current meters, frequency and period meters, power and energy meters and many others. The division between the two categories is sometimes a little blurred by the inclusion of a measurement device in a stimulus unit. An example of this is the provision of voltage and current meters on a power supply.

## Power supplies

Except in the case where the device to be tested has its own internal power supply, some form of external supply will be needed. This could be derived from dry batteries or from the mains, either direct or via an isolating transformer and probably some form of rectifier and regulator arrangement. For some purposes a variable transformer will be required but these are often quite expensive.

The most common power supply type encountered is the mains powered DC voltage supply. They come in many shapes, sizes and ratings. For logic testing of most computer type circuits a well regulated supply of +5 volts at a few amps is needed. Sometimes +12 and -5 volt supplies are needed in addition. Other types of logic may need different supply voltages: CMOS +5 to +15 volts, $\mathrm{ECL}-5$ volts. Linear circuits will often need split rail supplies of plus and minus 12 to 15 volts or single supplies of 10 volts upwards at currents which are deterimed by the application. Usually power supplies are built to withstand a certain amount of mistreatment but it is not a wise thing to prolong the agony. Power supply circuits are probably the type of test gear most commonly built by hobbyists.

## Signal Sources

This is possibly the largest subject in test equipment. The basis for most signal sources is one of the many types of oscillator, and the final output may be sinewave, squarewave, triangular, sawtooth, pulse or anything else you particularly want (and can
generate). The amplitude and frequency of the output are usually variable, but in some cases other parameters need to be controlled as well. A very useful facility found in some instruments is that one parameter may be controlled by either an external voltage or an auxilliary oscillator inside the instrument. If the controlled parameter is frequency then the result is a sweep oscillator. Amplitude modulation in this manner is also useful when testing some radio circuits.

Logic pattern generators give either serial or parallel output according to application. The actual pattern may either be preset by the operator or be pseudo-random. This latter has the characteristics of noise or random data but the pattern is known even if its repetition period is very long. These pattern generators are often used in conjunction with a logic analyser to test large logic systems.

## The Voltmeter

There are several basic types of voltmeter and we shall look at two of the most common. The first consists of a sensitive moving coil meter movement which has a large value resistance in series with it. The meter movement requires a certain amount of current flowing through its coil to deflect the needle or pointer. The resistance in series with the coil is calculated such that when the maximum voltage to be measured is applied to the instrument the resulting current will deflect the pointer to the end of its scale. If several ranges of voltage are required then different values of resistor can be switched into the circuit. Until recently this method of construction formed the basis of most voltmeters in use with a few exceptions such as moving iron and electrostatic.

The normal measure of merit for the moving coil voltmeter is the 'ohms per volt' (opv) figure. This is determined almost totally by the deflection sensitivity of the meter movement. The lower the current needed to deflect the pointer the more sensitive the meter, the lower the loading on the circuit under test and the higher the 'ohms per volt' figure. A typical figure for this type of instrument would be 20,000 ohms per volt, although up to 50,000 is not unknown.

It must be realised that a voltmeter of the moving coil variety will take all the power it requires to deflect the pointer from the circuit being tested. On a 10 volt range, a 20,000 OPV meter will appear as a 200 k resistor and will disturb the circuit to a greater or lesser degree accordingly.

One way of at least partially getting around the limitations of the simple moving coil voltmeter is to provide an amplifier to drive the meter movement.

The circuit under test then has to provide only enough power to drive the amplifier input. This avoids the loading problem and permits the use of a cheaper and/or more robust meter movement. However, other problems are introduced such as zero drift, gain drift and noise. These are usually reduced to a lower level by good circuit design but another disadvantage remains and that is the need for a power supply. The first instruments of this type used valve amplifiers but semiconductors were later introduced and a great saving on space and power consumption resulted. Both types are capable of excellent results.

The second type of voltmeter has only really come into its own in the past two decades. This works by converting the measured voltage into a series of digits and displaying them on some suitable device. One of the earlier attempts at this actually used a set of moving coil meter movements to display the numbers. Later versions used filament lamps, cold cathode tubes and most recently light emitting diodes and liquid crystal displays. This has led to a steady reduction in the instruments' power requirements.

At the measuement end, semiconductor technology has advanced rapidly to give ever greater accuracy and convenience in use. Hand held instruments are now available which give readings to whin $0.2 \%$ accuracy with comprehensive auto ranging facilities, 10 M ohm input resistance and whose internal batteries will last for up to a year. The penalties one pays with this type of device are that it is relatively easy to misread the display and rapid changes of input can give a confusing read out. This latter problem is alleviated to some extent by the provision of a bar-graph readout on some instruments, but the response time of the whole device is often quite slow and the momentary flicker of the moving coil with fast pulses is lost.


## The Ammeter

The ammeter uses the same basic principles as the voltmeter. The difference is that most of the current is allowed to flow through a low resistance in parallel with the meter movement, leaving only a small but known fraction of the original current to flow through the moving coil. It is this which deflects the pointer and provides the reading. In the case of digital ammeters, the value of the shunt resistor is determined almost entirely by the measured current as very little is needed by the circuitry. This is not true with the older type of meter, especially when used on the lower ranges.

Better quality meters and those used in industry were sometimes designed so that 75 mV was dropped at full deflection. This allowed a range of standard shunts to be used with many different meters. The arrival of digital meters has led to the adoption in some quarters of a new standard in which the voltage drop at full deflection is set at 199 mV

## Power Meters

This is an instrument which is rarely found in the hobbyist field as the movement has to be specially constructed. However, the advance of semiconduc-
tors has made it possible to construct power meters using integrated multiplier devices. There are problems when using these meters as they are prone to errors when one input is very large and the other is very small but the resulting power is in range. Approximations to true power meters can be made if the resistance of the load is known. In this case a normal voltmeter can be calibrated to read in units of power although the scale will be cramped at the low end.


A rather different type of power meter is used at microwave frequencies. This consists of a bridge circuit containing two thermistors. One of these is heated by the RF energy while the other is heated by the meter circuitry. When the bridge is balanced the RF power is equal to the DC power and since this latter is known it can be displayed.


## Frequency and period

These two measurements have been lumped together as they are closely related and are usually provided in a single instrument. To measure frequency it is necessary to count the number of complete cycles of the input waveform occurring in a

standard time period. This standard time period should be as long as possible to get the greatest accuracy. Unfortunately, unless complex circuitry is used, this can mean long waits for a valid display when measuring low input frequencies.

It is possible to construct analogue frequency meters but they are not particularly accurate. The normal digital frequency meter should be able to give readings in the 100 Hz to 10 MHz range to better than $1 \%$.

Measurement of time period is the inverse of frequency and consists of counting the number of standard time periods occurring between two input events. These events may arrive on two separate inputs or may be two similar transitions on the same input. A normal instrument should be capable of reading $100 \mu$ s to 100 s periods to at least $1 \%$ accuracy.

With either or both of these instruments it may be possible to use a pre-scaler on the input or reference signals to extend the range. Some types also allow ratio measurements where the standard input is derived externally.

## The Oscilloscope

The oscilloscope is a very versatile piece of equipment which, to some extent, can replace many others. The key to its usefulness lies in the fact that it displays a picture of the signal under test and as everyone knows, "a picture is worth a thousand words".

The main disadvantages of the oscilloscope are its bulk and cost, but these are easily outweighed by its ability to do the jobs of frequency counters, timers and voltmeters where great accuracy is not the prime requirement. Even the simplest oscilloscopes can be very useful but the more complex instruments offer facilities which cannot be obtained in any other way. The very simple instrument will probably have a single beam, simple timebase with limited triggering facilities, and signal amplifiers which have a bandwidth of 5 MHz or so. More complex and expensive units will offer two or more traces with bandwidths of 50 MHz or more, timebase circuits with delayed triggering and other facilities and better trace visibility at high frequencies.

| Equipment | Uses | Approximate range of specifications | Comments |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Analogue multimeter | measuring $\mathrm{AC} / \mathrm{DC}$ voltages, currents, resistance | 100 mV to 1000 V 10 mA to 10 A <br> $1 \Omega$ to $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ |  |
| Digital multimeter | measuring AC/DC voltages currents, resistance | 10 mV to 1000 V <br> 1 mA to 2 A <br> $1 \Omega$ to $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ | $\begin{aligned} & 31 / 2,41 / 2,51 / 2,61 / 2 \\ & \text { digit } \end{aligned}$ |
| AC voltmeter | measuring small signal and other $A C$ voltages | $5 \mu \mathrm{~V}$ to 500 V | wideband (up to 100 kHz ), input DC blocking |
| Function generators | providing input signals of known waveshape, amplitude, etc. | 0.01 Hz to 20 MHz | various output waveforms |
| Pulse generators | specifically for use with logic, etc | 1 Hz to 50 MHz 10 ns to 1 s pulse width | fast rise times, variable width pulse |
| Sweep generators | RF test equipment | 1 MHz to 20 GHz |  |
| RF generators | RF test equipment | 500 kHz to 1 CHz | AM, FM, PM |
| AF generators | audio testing | 10 Hz to 100 kHz | low distortion sinewave |
| Oscilloscopes (non-storage) | examining and measuring repetitive waveforms | $10 \mathrm{mV} \text { to } 10 \mathrm{~V}$ <br> 0.5 us to is | one, two or sometimes four-trace |
| Oscilloscopes (storage) | examining and measuring non-repetitive (one-off) events | similar to above | digital or non-digital, dual-trace, some have floppy disc storage |
| Counter/timers | counting input pulses, times between input pulses, frequency display | over 100 MHz <br> 100ns to 1 s | digital display |
| Frequency counters Spectrum analysers | general RF display measuring signal power against frequency | $\begin{aligned} & \text { up to } \approx 20 \mathrm{GHz} \\ & 50 \mathrm{~Hz} \text { to } 20 \mathrm{GHz} \end{aligned}$ | general AF or RF |
| Modulation meter | measuring percentage modulation of carrier | AM, FM <br> 1 MHz to 1 GHz |  |
| Distortion meter | measuring AF distortion, in applied signal | 20 Hz to 100 kHz |  |
| Audio analyser | measuring distortion, $\mathrm{S} / \mathrm{N}$ ratio, frequency | 20 Hz to 100 kHz |  |
| Power supplies | providing DC and sometimes $A C$ power to equipment under test | $0 \vee$ to 15 V or more, up to $\approx 50 \mathrm{~A}$ | DC suplies regulated, current limiting sometimes dual rail |
| Chart recorders | plot a number of voltage inputs | 1 mV to 500 V FSD up to $\approx 12$ channels | useful for hard copy |
| Tape recorders | recording processes for later analysis | DC to 300 kHz up to $12 \approx 12$ channels |  |
| Logic analyser | analysing microprocessor bus signals, timing, state, software analysis | 16 to 32 channels up to $\approx 100 \mathrm{MHz}$ clock |  |

oscilloscope
PARTS MARKED * ARE ONLY IN DUAL TRACE TYPE


In some oscilloscopes the waveforms measured may be digitally stored for display later. These are known as Digital Storage Oscilloscopes (DSO) and they can usually record a number of waveforms taken at the same or at different times and display them later with altered x and y axis scales if desired. Whereas ordinary oscilloscopes can only be used to examine repetitive waveforms, DSOs can be used to examine pulse phenomena and other one-off events.

As with all test equipment the effect of the test
probe on the circuitry being tested must be taken into account. In the case of the oscilloscope the effect will not be significant until high frequencies and high impedances are involved.

## Logic Pattern Detectors

These range from the simple logic gate circuit through to very sophisticated logic analysers. Their purpose is to enable the user to understand what is happening on the various signal lines of a logic system. This is usually more difficult than in an analogue system simply because of the number of signals which change at the same time. The difficulty is further compounded by the fact that everything happens in a fraction of a microsecond.

Logic analysers allow many different voltages, say 8 or 16 , to be displayed and compared over selected time intervals. The mode of operation is to select one signal and use it as a reference against which all the others are measured. In the very simplest device a latch will be set when the state of the signal lines being monitored matches a preset condition and the reference signal is also valid. In more complex units the states of other signal lines may be stored at the same time for display on a suitable readout device. In the most complex units the states of many signal lines are stored before and after the trigger point and will usually be displayed on a CRT. In some units the available information can be processed by a microprocessor to give a display which is most suited to the user's requirements. This makes it much easier to understand.

ETI


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# CORTEX CENTRONICS interface 

## In the slightly delayed second part of this article, we present the construction and use details.

The overlay of the PCB is shown in Fig. 4. There have been three modifications between this and the original circuit given in the June ETI. Firstly, the address lines A4 and A8 were the wrong way round in the original circuit diagram and this has been corrected.

Secondly, an extra package, IC6, has been added, of which only one inverter gate is used. This is to provide a complement of STROBE as well as STROBE itself on the Centronics output; this is to increase flexibility, as some printers will require the complement rather than the original.

Finally, and also to increase flexibility, the $W$ and $Y$ outputs of IC4 are link-selectable; using the $Y$ output, the BUSY IN line is

PARTS LIST

| CAPACITORS |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| C1 | 100 n ceramic |
| C2 | $\begin{aligned} & 10 \mu \text { PCB } \\ & \quad \text { electrolytic } \end{aligned}$ |
| SEMICONDUCTORS |  |
| IC1 | 74LS32 |
| IC2 | 741S138 |
| IC3,5 | 74LS259 |
| IC4 | 74LS241 |
| IC6 | 74LS04 |
| MISCELLANEOUS |  |
| 15-way D-typ plug; PCB; co ribbon cable, | onnector socket \& ctor to suit printer; |



Fig. 4 Overlay diagram for the PCB. The points marked D0, D2, D3 etc and Q1, Q2, etc on the PCB (not the connector) are for the unused locations that readers may wish to make use of. Note that there are two additional decoupling capacitor location points, in the unlikely event of any supply line problems arising.
inverted to become the CRUIN signal; using the W output, it is not; one or other of these will be appropriate to your printer. Needless to say, you should not use both links at the same time!

Using the special PCB, assembly of the circuit should be quite straightforward, but do make sure you get the links in the right places and be careful with IC orientation. Some clearances are a

## BUYLINES

A full kit of parts for this project will be available through Powertran Cybernetics Ltd, Portway Industrial Estate, Andover, Hants SP10 3ET. Powertran hold the copyright on the PCB so it will be available only from them.

## PROJECT: Cortex Centronics

Fig. 5 Test program for the interface, to print a row of ' A 's.
bit tight, so do check carefully for any solder bridges after you have finished.

## In Use

Once the interface is connected between the computer and the printer, then typing in the command UNIT 4 will enable printing, while the command UNIT-4 will disable printing. If the printer fails to print or a paperout condition arises, then pressing both the GRAPH and RUBOUT
keys together will cause all output to be reset to UNIT 1 only.

The BASIC program shown in Fig. 5 can be used; this should print a stream of letter ' A 's.

Having built the printer interface you will have noticed that there are seven spare I/O bits and if the printer is not in use then seven other parallel data ports with separate strobes and status bits can be used with a common data port. Also six other I/O address slots are decoded by IC2 as shown:-
! I/O BASE ADDRESS
: RESET STROBE
: $0 / P$ ASCII $' A$ '
$4 \varnothing$ IF CRB (9) = 1 THHN GOTO $4 \varnothing$ : WAIT FOR FREE
$5 \varnothing \operatorname{CRB}(8)=1: \operatorname{CRB}(8)=\varnothing \quad:$ PULSE STROBE
$6 \varnothing$ Gото 3ø
! LOOP


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# CHOOSING TEST EQUIPMENT 

# The second of our special features looks at the items of test gear likely to be of value to the home constructor and offers some advice on choosing the right equipment for your needs. 

Buying test equipment can be a pain. Low volume production test equipment tends to be expensive compared with mass-produced, consumer-orientated equipment of similar complexity and even a basic multimeter can easily set you back thirty pounds or more. If you want anything special out of your meter you can wave goodbye to hundreds of pounds, and from there on in the price of test equipment seems to rise according to a square law. Large electronics manufacturing companies do not appear to think twice when spending hundreds of thousands of pounds on test equipment, but whatever your budget, it is obviously essential to see that your money isn't wasted and that you make the right choices.

But what is the right test equipment? The answer is not simple. The difficulty lies in choosing equipment that you really need rather than equipment that you happen to like. There is little point in buying a $£ 10,000$ digital storage oscilloscope (even if you can afford it) just because you like the colour of its knobs when what you really need is a $£ 1,000$ non-storage oscilloscope with less attractive knobs.

You cannot hope to make a sensible choice until you have some idea of what each type of equipment can do for you. There are many different kinds of test equipment and each kind has, in turn, an enormous variety of specifications, depending on manufacturer and intended function. At first sight, the task appears huge. By considering how the test equipment is to be used, however, it becomes less daunting.

We can broadly classify all varieties of test equipment into three main areas of use:

- In the first area is test equipment used to aid research, design, and development of new products.
- In the second area is test equipment used to help in the manufacture and quality testing stages of production.
- In the third area is test equipment used to service and repair other equipment which has become faulty after initial commissioning.
Inevitably, there is a considerable overlap between these areas with some equipment being used in two or even all three areas, but, on the whole, distinct divisions do exist.

A good place to start our look at test equipment is with the varieties which overlap onto all three areas.

In this way we may build up a picture of a 'minimum list' of general purpose items needed in any electronics environment.

## Meters

The first thing that most people will consider buying is a multimeter. This is one of the most important pieces of test gear you will possess so spend as much as you can reasonably afford and shop around for one that suits you. Try out as many as you can before committing yourself.

Two main types of meters exist, analogue and digital, and many different varieties of each type are common. A meter's task is to measure a given electrical parameter, such as voltage or current in a circuit, and display it either by pointing a needle at a number in the case of an analogue meter or by activating the appropriate digits or segments of digits in a digital meter.

If a meter is capable of measuring voltage, current and resistance, it is generally classed as a multimeter. Ranges of multimeter measurements vary between fractions of volts, amps and ohms through to thousands of each, and the cost of a meter depends largely on the size of the range required, together with the desired accuracy.

Some meters feature extra facilities such as automatic ranging or a high humber of display digits. Also available are meters which can measure other quantities, such as capacitance, electrical power, temperature, frequency and distortion.

A good choice for a first time buy would be a moving coil type with at least 20,000 ohms-per-volt sensitivity on the DC voltage ranges. It should have a clear scale from which any range can be read accurately without feats of mental arithmetic or resort to a magnifying glass.

For general use your selected meter should be able to read AC and $D C$ voltage up to 1000 V with at least 4 ranges for each. DC current should be available up to $1000 \mathrm{~mA}(1 \mathrm{~A})$ and resistance from 1 ohm to 1 Mohm in two or more ranges. Note that the sensitivty on the $A C$ voltage range will be much lower than that on the DC range.

If you decide to select a digital type of instrument in many cases the input resistance will be fixed and

should be at least 1 Mohm. Some meters of this type can offer autoranging on $A C$ and $D C$ ranges and this can be very useful.

## Power Supply Units

When developing, building, or testing a circuit a power source of some type is needed. A general purpose power supply, providing a range of voltages and currents, is therefore an essential item.

Initially you may well use dry cells for small projects but this can soon get a little expensive. One alternative is to use $\mathrm{Ni}-\mathrm{Cd}$ rechargeable batteries. The initial outlay on the cells and charger is quite high but soon repays itself if used frequently. The more common way, and certainly the best for the 'serious' hobbyist, is the buy or construct your own mains powered DC supply. For a complete beginner buy one of the small battery eliminators which are sold to power transistor radios. When some constructional experience has been accumulated you can attempt to construct your own. A useful avenue to try may well be to construct a kit from one of the many advertisers in this magazine.

Generally, power supplies are of two main types, either single or twin. The first type will provide a two rail output $(0,+V)$, and the second a three-rail output ( $-\mathrm{V}, 0,+V$. A useful feature found on some power supplies is a current limiting circuit which allows you to set the maximum current available. If, for example, a short circuit exists in a connected circuit (which would otherwise draw too much current) the power supply will only provide the set amount of current, thus preventing damage.

The cost of a power supply will dpend largely on the current it is able to supply rather than on the voltage. This is because the power the supply is capable of delivering defines the cost of each component

within the supply. A power supply providing, say, 40 V at only 100 mA is supplying only 4 watts of power whereas one providing only 10 V but at 5 A is supplying 50 watts.

The precise power supply you require depends greatly on what you want to play around with. For computer circuits the main requirement is for +5 V at 1 to 3 amps or so. Other voltages are occasionally needed but need not be a priority. On the other hand, for analogue circuits you will need a variety of voltages and these can best be met by a dual supply whose output can be varied from 0 V to 20 V at currents up to 500 mA . Audio amplifier circuits often need higher voltages and currents but these are better considered when the occasion arises.

## Function Generators

It is useful when testing the majority of circuits to have some means of providing an input signal of known quantity. The circuit may then be studied as this input signal is applied. Items of test equipment which allows us to generate such known input signals are loosely classified as function generators, and are generally oscillators of some description.

Sinewave, squarewave and triangular wave oscillators generating frequencies in the range 1 Hz to 1 MHz are often used to test audio circuits. Radio and TV circuits require radio frequency oscillators and many are available which generate signals in the range from a few kHz up to and over 100 GHz . Digital circuits are often tested with pulses, and generators exist in which pulse duration, amplitude, and position can easily be controlled.


Function generators are available ready made or in kit form from many sources. You can, of course, make one yourself from one of the many excellent designs which have appeared in these pages. This latter course will probably be the cheapest but for ease of use the former course is to be preferred unless you are prepared and able to engineer it properly.

## Oscilloscopes

The last item of test equipment forming the minimum list of essentials is the oscilloscope. This is probably the single most versatile piece of test gear available. It's fundamental job is to measure and display a voltage over a period of time. Thus a waveform is displayed on a cathode ray tube screen which represents the measured voltage.

From this basic idea of an oscilloscope, many different forms have originated. The simplest is the single-trace oscilloscope which measures only a single voltage, but by far the most popular is the dual-trace oscilloscope which allows two voltages to be displayed on the screen simultaneously.

The scale of the axes of the displayed waveform

## FEATURE : Choosing Test Equipment

(ie, volts on the $y$-axis, time on the $x$-axis) may be varied by controls on the oscilloscope. Generally, the scales are between, say, 5 mV to 10 V per vertical division, and 0.5 us to I s per horizontal division. By setting the controls to suit a large variety of waveforms may be displayed, from only a few millivolts in amplitude to hundreds of volts, and with frequencies from a fraction of a hertz to many megahertz Cost varies largely according to the range of scale settings, and the maximum usable frequency of the $y$-amplifier.

For the hobbyist, a general requirement for an oscilloscope might look something like this:

Dual trace, 15 MHz bandwidth, 5 MV to 50 V per division, AC or DC coupling $1 \mu \mathrm{sec}$ to 100 msec per division with variable and $\times 5$ or $\times 10$ magnification. Triggering from either channel or external socket with AC, DC variable level and slope selection.

There should also be a probe calibration output and a pair of probes either $\times 10$ or switchable $\times 1 / \times 10$. For TV work, $\times 100$ probes may be useful for higher voltages.

The instrument should be one which will give a readable trace at fast timebase speeds and give stable triggering to a frequency higher than the $Y$ bandwidth. Other facilites such as delayed timebase can be very useful for digital work but should not be sacrificed for basic performance.

Unfortunately, such machines are expensive, but if at all possible it is well worth purchasing one in the

$£ 350$ to $£ 500$ range. Don't neglect to consider the second hand market, especially if a suitable unit is available with a warranty after reconditioning

One thing you should obtain with your oscilloscope, whether new or second hand, is a complete handbook telling you how to calibrate it. Even if you do not intend to do it yourself it may be useful to whoever does.

Of course, once you have a good oscilloscope you will be able to make and set up all the signal generators and such that you want. In fact with a scope, signal/pulse generator and reasonably versatile power supply added to your basic multimeter you should be able to tackle almost anything

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# AUDIO DESIGN 

# Power amplifiers need a source of power, and the usual place to get it from is the AC mains. In this third part of the description, John Linsley Hood describes the PSU and a power meter. 

I$n$ the previous part of this article, referring to the power amplifier, I outlined the advantages which arose from the use of a stabilised power supply unit, which had persuaded me that this kind of arrangement was essential if I was aiming for the highest standard.

I was, indeed, responsible for a bit of propaganda in this cause in an earlier article (ETI May, 1983) describing such a stabilised PSU unit, and the basic elements of its design were analysed at the time. Inevitably, therefore, my thoughts returned to this as a useful working design, though, in this case, I wanted to add somewhat to the faciities offered by the earlier design.

These additions are a pair of stabilised, lower current, power supplies to drive the earlier, classA (voltage gain) stages of the power amplifier, and a DC offset monitoring facility which could be used to detect any abnormal DC voltage present on the LS output terminals - as might arise, for example, in the event of a catastrophic failure of one of the output devices - and switch off the high current sections (+ve and -ve) of the PSU, before any damage could occur to LS units or the like.

Since the power supply described previously has a re-entrant output characteristic (which means that the DC output current will decrease as the output voltage falls to very nearly zero output current into a short circuit), it will also perform the function of overload protection for the PA in the event of an abnormally low impedance output load. I happen to know that this works, since during bench testing, to see just how much power I could get out of a single channel driven just short of clipping ( 117 watts, as it turned out) and how well the PSU would hold the line voltage under these conditions ( -1 volt) the soldered


Fig. 1 Low-current stabilised PSU.
connections holding my load resistor melted off, the resistor dropped onto the floor, and the two liberated lengths of wire connected to the output terminals promptly soldered themselves together! After I had restored the load, everything was still perfectly functional, and apparently unruffled by the event.

Experimental work, and inward deliberation, has convinced me that it is very advantageous to separate out the power supply lines feeding the output and the class-A stages of a power amplifier - indeed I think it is a false economy not to do this - and if one is using a stabilised PSU, it makes sense to put in a few more components to generate a pair of independently stablilised lines for the early stages.

Since the current requirement at this stage is quite small, typically about 12 mA per channel, no problems of 'secondary breakdown' will arise in the series control transistors, so a simple constantcurrent overload characteristic will suffice, at $35-40 \mathrm{~mA}$ total output. This will prevent anything inconvenient happening in the event of an accidental output short-circuit across these DC supply lines, as can so easily happen during setting up or testing.

I have shown the circuit I have adopted in Fig. 1. Once again the
input and output voltage requirements prevent the use of an IC voltage stabiliser, though I guess that $60-80 \mathrm{~V}$ input voltage IC stabilisers will be on the market (at a price) within the next few years. As in the higher current supply previously described, the pass transistor, Q1, is turned round so that the output current is drawn from its collector. This allows the forward base bias current to be derived from the 0 V line, rather than from the forward voltage drop across this transistor. This makes for more efficient working and allows a much lower minimum voltage differential between input and output.

This last factor is important, because although the output voltage is very smooth, the input voltage across the power supply reservoir capacitors will show a fairly large $100 \mathrm{~Hz}^{\prime}$ 'sawtooth' waveform, of 5 to 10 V P-P amplitude, when a significant amount of current is drawn from it. The stabiliser circuit must work as well at the minimum input voltage represented by the bottoms of these input voltage waveforms (see Fig 2) as at their peak.

## Circuit Operation

This method of operation of the circuit is quite straightforward: a 10 volt reference voltage is generated across ZD1 and C2 by


Fig. 2 The effect of ripple on stabiliser input - output voltage.
current flowing through R8. This is applied to one of the long-tailed pair of transistors Q2/Q3, and turns Q3 on. This passes current through R3, Q3 and R4 into the base of Q1, which causes Q1 to conduct and feed current to the output. A proportion of the output voltage, developed across R1, RV1 and R2 is applied to Q2, and if this exceeds the 10 volt reference fed to Q3, the current flowing through the 'tail' resistor, R3, will be progressively diverted away from Q3 and Q1, and will, instead, pass through Q2 and R6.

By this means, the voltage permitted at the output of Q1 is controlled so that the current flowing through R2 (which is, in turn, controlled by the values of R1 and RV1) produces a 10 volt drop across it (remember, $V=I \times R$ ).

Overload (over-current) protection is obtained by putting a resistor R7 in the emitter circuit of Q1, and three small diodes (D1, D2 and D3) between the DC input and its base. Q1 will require about 0.6 V forward bias to conduct, while the diodes will conduct at about 0.55 V each. This limits the voltage which can develop across R7 to $1.65-0.6 \mathrm{~V}=1.05 \mathrm{~V}$. If the voltage tends to exceed this value, Q1 will run out of forward bias, and will progressively turn off. With a value of 33 R for R7, the circuit will limit at about 35 mA , under output short-circuit conditions, which makes it effectively disaster proof.

To calculate the circuit component values, we first select a passtransistor, Q1, as a device which will withstand 70 volts input, and carry the necessary current: a BD538 will serve. This has a minimum $\mathrm{H}_{\text {fe }}$ of 40 at 100 mA , so it will need, say, a 1 mA base current. Therefore let us make Q2 and Q3 both pass 1 mA normally. This requires a'tail' resistor of 4 k 7 (R3). The output voltage divider chain is chosen to pass about 1 mA and give +10 V at Q2 base when the
output voltage is +50 V . R4 and R6 are just protection resistors to prevent damage if a faulty transistor should be inadvertently installed in construction. RV1 is adjusted to set the output voltage to +50 V . A mirror-image of this circuit is used to provide the -50 V supply.

## LS DC offset protection

I have made use of the two transistor 'thyristor' circuit shown in Fig. 3 to provide the offset protection function. (Note that component numbers here refer to Fig. 3) In this arrangement, Q1 and Q2 are both normally non-conducting. However, if an input voltage is applied to Q2, even briefly, it will conduct and feed current into the base of Q1. This will make Q1 conduct, which, in turn, will feed current into Q2, which holds the circuit on, or 'latched'.

In order to make the circuit respond only to long-term averaged DC offsets, a 1 Mo and $2 \mu 2 \mathrm{~F}$ input integrating circuit is connected to the LS outputs, with an emitterfollower transistor Q3 interposed as an impedance conversion system. A similar circuit, with Q4, R4 and $C 2$, can then monitor any offset occurring on the other channel. To avoid quadrupling C1 and

C2, the offset voltages averaged across these are taken to a mirror image circuit controlling the other half of the PSU. The circuit I have shown is for the positive half of this.

When Q1 and Q2 are latched, the voltage drop across them falls to about 0.65 V , and they will stay in the latched condition until the power supply to them is removed by switching of the equipment. it is possible to provide a momentary reset by S1, R5 and C3. If the fault persists the circuit will cutout again almost at once. I prefer to switch off in the event of failure, so I haven't provided this facility on my prototype. The output of this 'thyristor' is taken to a point on the main PSU where a 0.65 V clamp on the circuit voltage will cause the system to cut off.

A simple resistor and zener diode network, shown in Fig. 4., monitors the relative voltages on the + ve and -ve supply lines. If these differ by more than 20 V , as will happen if one of the supplies is cut off, it will then turn the other line off as well. Since the tripping of one of the DC offset monitor circuits will automatically trip the other, the power supply failure warning can be given by a LED, in seies with a zener, and a suitable limit resistor, between the reservoir and the output on either DC line, so that the LED will light if the difference between input and output voltage exceeds 30 V . This will happen briefly on switch-on, because the power supply has a slower rate of voltage rise (deliberately) than the voltage rise across the reservoirs. However, the LED will extinguish, in the absence of any fault condition, in a few seconds, when the supply lines have reached their proper operating voltage.


Fig. 3 Amplifier output DC detection and trip circuit.

## The Full Circuit

The complete circuit diagram, apart from the transformer and rectifiers, of the power supply is shown in Fig. 5. The low current supplies, built around Q1, Q2 and Q3, with their mirror-images (Q4, Q5 and Q6), are as have been described above. The protection circuitry (Q9, Q10, Q11, Q12, Q13, Q14, Q15 and Q16) in its two mirror-image forms, is also as described above. The rest of the circuitry, comprising the twin highpower stabilised units, is largely as described in May 1983, but I will run through its operation to explain the method of the cut-out trip function, and to avoid difficulties for those who missed the May' 83 issue (Shame! - Ed.).

Taking the positive-line supply section, a power Darlington transistor, a Motorola MJ2501, is used as the series control or 'pass' device. This is a moderately beefy component, with a maximum current of 10 amperes, an $80 \mathrm{~V}_{\text {ceo }}$ rating, and a maximum dissipation


Fig. 4 Method of making both power supplies cut out simultaneously.
of 150 watts. The 'safe operating area curve' is shown in Fig. 6, and the actual output currents, with voltages, given by the PSU are as shown, for two different values of R15/R16.
To check on my calculations with these I have run the PSU into a low resistance ( 0.1 ohm ) ammeter, which gives an effective output short-circuit, with the transformer fed from a'variac. I have also, inadvertently, made screw-
driver-type shorts from supply lines to chassis, without any disasters. This is not a practice I recommend, but it does happen, especially if one is developing or debugging a new circuit and one forgets to switch off.

The pass transistor Q17/Q20, is normally turned on by current flow from the 0 V line through a control transistor, Q18/Q19, and a current limit resistor, R29/30. The control transistor is itself made conducting


Fig. 5 Complete power supply circuit.


Fig. 6 Safe operating area curve for MJ2501/3001 and output current/voltage limits for PSU.
by a current flow from the input line through the protection transistor, Q7/Q8. A further transistor, Q21/Q22, sits between the 0V' line and the base of the control transistor. This monitors the potential developed at its base from the voltage dropper chain, R35, RV4, R33/R34, RV3 and R36, connected between the output voltage line and the internal zener reference potential. If the output voltage should increase, this transistor is turned on more, and 'steals' more current from the control transistors base supply. This in turn reduces the current flow through the pass transistor, to oppose the detected increase.

Because there is a very high loop gain in this three transistor amplifier loop (Q17,Q19,Q21) much higher than that of the low power supply which has a much less onerous job to do - some HF loop stabilisation is needed and this is provided by the small capacitors C 7 and C 8 .

The current limit transistor, which sits astride the supply to the control transistor, is normally turned on by a forward voltage developed across the diodes, D7D8/D9D10, in the path to the zener supply. However, if too much current flows through the circuit this foward bias will be diminished by the voltage drop occurring across R15/R16, and will ultimately switch this transistor off again. A similar function is carried out, in respect of the voltage across the pass transistor, by the two resistors R32 and R17/R33 and R18. Acting together, these current flow and voltage sensing networks generate the limiting characteristics shown in Fig. 6.

In order to help the operation of the cut-out circuit, a pair of diodes, D13,D14/D15, D16, have
been added in comparison with the original circuit. This means that the base potential of the control transistor normally sits at about 1.65 V with respect to the 0 V line. When the trip circuits operate, this is clamped at 0.65 V , and the control transistor and the pass transistor are both cut off. The LED is then illuminated, to indicate a fault condition.

As mentioned above, the power supply can be momentarily reset by applying a discharged condenser between the $0 V$ line and the bases of the trip transistors, Q14/Q15.

During tests on the prototype,
the output voltage of the PSUs, under quiescent conditions, were constant for mains input voltages varing between 170 V and 260 V RMS, and the output AC ripple was less than 3 mV . The measured voltage drop, from minimum to maximum measured load (one channel driven at 117 watts) was less than 1 V .

## Setting Up The Amplifier

Normally my amplifiers start more or less as a plain sheet of aluminium, of a bit larger than the expected necessary size to allow for oversights, on which the bits and pieces are fixed in a way which looks sensible when all of them are eventually to hand, and working as I hope. The result inevitably looks a bit less polished than the commercial equivalent. In this instance, through the good offices of Electronics Today International, I was provided with some nicely made metalwork from Newrad Instrument Cases, into which I fitted the various PCBs which I had previously made, along with the other essential major components, in the best practicable arrangement in relation to the plugs, sockets and controls installed by Newrad.

The result, shown in the photograph is perhaps a little less neat, on the inside, than I would


The interior of the prototype: along the top ( L to R ): meter driver PCB (mounted over on/off and mute switch), reservoir caps, switch-on muting PCB; bottom: transformer, PSU, $2 \times$ power amps
expect the final kit version to be. Externally I am very pleased.

I have mounted all the ten power transistors (eight from the amplifier, and two from the power supply) on a length of substantial gauge angle aluminium which, is clamped to the back plate of the amplifier. On the outside of this back plate, four Redpoint heat sink blocks are mounted, side by side, to give a heat sink 32 cm long by 5 cm deep with total fin length of 3 cm . This heat sink has a calculated capacity of $0.4^{\circ} \mathrm{C} /$ watt, and gets only mildly warm in use. This arrangement, in which the transistors are mounted horizontally inside the box, is one which I prefer, since it protects the exposed cases of the transistors from inadvertent electrical contact, and makes their connections easy to join. The white silicone/zinc oxide heatsinking paste should be applied to all the joins through which heat is to pass.

I have used 4 mm insulated terminal binding posts (10 amp rating) mounted on the rear panel, for the LS output connections, and these are joined to the output pins on the PA PCB by twisted pairs of $24 \times 0.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ PVC insulated cable ( 4.5 A rating). The 0 V pins at the output of the PA boards are taken, using the same type of wire, to a conveniently positioned chassis earth point, which should not be too far away from the reservoir capacitors.

I have shown the mains input, transformer, and reservoir capacitor circuit and suggested layout in Figs 7 and 8, and I have indicated, by heavy lines, which of the connections it is preferred should be short, and of the thickest gauge of stranded wire which it is practicable to solder. The important thing to remember is that the wires from the capacitor tags to the earthing post are carrying heavy currents and will have significant voltage drops along them. They should therefore go directly to the earthing post, and nothing else should be joined to the lug on the capacitor case.

The output 0 Vs from the PAs, and the input and output 0 V lines from the power supply unit, are similarly taken directly to this post, with as substantial a gauge of wire as reasonable. The input earths for the amps. are commoned both at the input phono sockets and at the gain control, and joined to the earth post with a single wire. By this means, the heavy pulsating


Fig. 7 Mains input circuit for power supplies.
currents in the output DC supply and return lines are kept out of the input signal path, where they can introduce significant amounts of distortion, and impair the performance of an otherwise impeccable amplifier.
(It is a very useful thing to have some form of distortion meter to check that all is well, if one is building such a unit from scratch, rather than following a previously researched plan, and if the Editor of ETI will approve, I will show how a simple, but sensitive unit can be built without too much difficulty.)

Since the input sockets are also mounted on the back panel of the amplifier, it is necessary to screen these so that they do not pick up capacitatively coupled signals from the cases (which are connected to the output) and wiring associated with the output MOSFETs. It is also necessary to isolate these input sockets from the chassis earth, to avoid earth path signals which could contain both hum and distortion inducing voltages. I solved this problem on the prototype by making up a little tin box, with soldered corners, on
which the input phono sockets were mounted, and which itself was held to, but insulated from, the back plate.

## Signal Muting

This is a facility for which there is provision on the PA PCBs, but which I did not describe in the last part of the series. This employs the circuit layout shown in Fig. 10. In this a normally closed push switch (two-gang) is inserted in place of the link shown on the PCB. This is bypassed by a 1 nF capacitor and a 470 k resistor, so that when the switch is opened, the gain of the amplifier is reduced from 122 to 1.3, at all frequencies below about 100 kHz - which are safely supersonic.

The 1 nF capacitor is there to avoid jeopardising the feedback safety margins at HF which are a lot less at unity gain than at 122.

By the use of this control, the amplifier can be effectively 'muted' during switch-on, to minimise plops, or during other operations where it may be desired to avoid unwanted noises. I have suggested this technique, as an option, since my decision not


Fig. 8 Suggested lay-out of earth ( 0 V ) wiring for power amplifier and power supplies.


Fig. 9 Overlay diagram for the PSU.

## PARTS LIST - PSU


to use a relay has removed the otherwise attractive option which this offers to disconnect the LS lines until the amplifier has had a chance to settle. The 470 k resistor across the mute switch gives C7, in the feedback line, a chance to charge, over a few seconds, to its normal operating DC level.


Fig. 10 Circuit arrangement for amplifier muting.


Fig. 11 FET input clamp circuit.

Additional facility to which I had referred in an earlier article, as a possible option, is the use of an FET as a normally open switch across the amplifier inputs, as shown in Fig. 11. Normally, at the moment of switch-on C20 will be uncharged, and the FET, Q16 (a 2 N5459), will act as a lowimpedance resistive path across the inputs, which will effectively zero the volume control and prevent the amp from producing distorted signals for the few seconds during which the DC supply lines from the power supply rise up to their final operating voltage. The FET bias is derived from the -50 V line, and lags behind this in its rate of voltage rise, as C 20 charges through R30, towards its final operating voltage of -10 V , at which the FET is fully cut-off, and is effectively removed from the signal circuit.

## Power Amplifier Quiescent Current

I had omitted to discuss this, inadvertently, from the description in the previous part of this article. The optimum value, if twinned MOSFETs are used in the outputs, is 250 mA channel. The amplifier can be operated, at a lower maximum output power but without any other penalties, with a single N -P-MOSFET pair. This will give about 65 W . In this case a quiescent current, per channel, of $120-$ 150 mA is required. With the circuit shown, the 250 mA quiescent current allows 0.5 watts of output in pure class-A, and it is surprising just how much of ones programme, in almost everything except heavy rock or reggae, falls below this level. (To organise the circuit with
single MOSFETs, just delete one pair of N - and P -channel devices from each output four.)

On this score, on tidying up the wiring to the output power MOSFETs, it became clear to me that its actual layout was a bit over-critical. I therefore propose that the gate resistors, mounted close to the MOSFET gate pins, should be increased from 150R (16/17) and $220 \mathrm{R}(18,19 / 21,22)$ to $1 \mathrm{k0}$ each. This solves the awkwardness. When single MOSFET pairs are used, this problem doesn't arise.

As can be seen from the photograph of the prototype power amplifier internal layout, I have laced quite a few of the input cables together, in the interests of neatness and in keeping them together in a safe position. Please do not do this with the output wiring or the wiring to the MOSFET pins, which should be spaced out, but not more parallel than inevitable. MOSFET pairs are likely to see parallel wiring to their pins as an invitation to oscillate (this problem is even worse with the recent very fast T-MOS devices, and I decided that these were not sensible for use by DIY amplifier builders, in spite of their otherwise superb technical possibilities).

## Output Power Meter

It is certainly a useful feature to have a pair of channel power output meters mounted on the front of a power amplifier. However, that is where agreement ends. If the meters, which should be peak reading, with a fairly slow decay rate, have a scale which is linear in voltage it will result in the necessary calibration for power output being very cramped at the top end, since $P=V^{2} R$ (load). It will

Fig. 12 Overlay for circuit of Fig 11.


## PARTS LIST POWER AMPLIFIER

There are additional parts to implement the switch-on mute.

| R29 | 10 k |
| :--- | :--- |
| R30 | 39 k |
| C20 | $470 \mu$ 10V PCB |
|  | electrolytic |
| Q16,116 | 2N5459 |

also require the meters to be hand calibrated, which isn't an easy thing to do oneself if the result is to be neat-looking. On the other hand, the circuit is simple to organise.

If the purpose of the meters is to make the user aware of his proximity to the amplifier overload margins, so that he can use it within its limits, it is much more satisfactory to have a measuring circuit which is linear in terms of power output. This also solves the problem of a neat scale calibration. I have therefore adopted this approach based on a 100 uA meter movement, scaled 0-100 as watts. This makes it very easy to see where one is operating in relation to the overload threshold, but it does mean that the meters will be sitting near the zero mark for most of the time (unless one likes ones music very loud!)

The circuit I have adopted is shown in Fig 13. In this I have used a junction FET as the 'square law' element, in the input limb to an inverting mode IC amplifier. The gain of the amplifier depends on the ratio of the impedance of Q1 to the resistance of R5 and RV1. When the FET has zero bias, its AC impedance is low, and the amplifier gain is (relatively) high.

## PROJECT : Audio Design



BUYLINES
Kits are available for the pre and power amplifiers from Newrad Instrument Cases Ltd, Unit 19, Wick Industrial Estate, Gore Road, New Milton, Hants BH25 5SJ (telephone 0425 615774). Prices are as follows: pre-amp, including the yet-to-be published modification, £98; power amp (including meters, mute and switch-on mute circuitry) $\mathbf{£ 1 2 0}$. Newrad will supply the PCB salone as follows: preamp $£ 15$; power amp $£ 11$. Here prices are for a full set of PCBs. Newrad can also supply the components required for the pre and power amps, but we suggest you contact them directly for details. All the prices given here include UK postage but no VAT, so please add 15\% for this.

Fig. 13 Peak-reading linear scale power meter ( 8 ohms load).

| PARTS LIST - |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| AET |  |
| RESISTORS (all | W 5\% unless stated) |
| R1,11 | 33k |
| R2,12 | 1 k2 |
| R3,4,13,14 | 3 M 3 |
| R5,15 | 330 R |
| R6,7 | $6 \mathrm{ks} 1 / 2 \mathrm{~W}$ |
| RV1,11 | 470R horizontal preset |
| RV2,12 | 4k7 horizontal preset |
| CAPACITORS |  |
| C1,2,3,11,12,13 | $1 \mu 0$ polyester |
| C4,5,14,15 | 100n polyester |
| C6,7 | $100 \mu 16 \mathrm{~V}$ PCB electrolytic |
| SEMICONDUCTORS |  |
| IC1 | TL072 |
| Q1,11 | 2N4557 |
| D1-4, 11-14 | 1 N914 or similar (8 off) |
| ZD1,2 | 10 V 400 mW zener |
| LED1 | single LED to choice |
| MISCELLANEOUS |  |
| M1,11 | $100 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ FSD moving coil meter to choice |
| PCB, wire, etc. |  |

When an AC signal is applied to the input, via R1, R2 and C1, the amplifier output is rectified and applied as a positive-going voltage to the non-inverting input of the op-amp (which makes its output, and consequently its inverting input voltage also move + ve), and as a negative-going voltage to the gate of the FET, in relation to its positive-going source and drain, This biases the FET to a higher impedance and reduces the gain of the amplifier. The large the input signal, the lower the gain of


Fig. 14 Overlay diagram for the power meter.
the amp, and the higher the bias voltage.

Although FETs vary a bit from one to another, every one of about a dozen Motorola 2 N5457s could be adjusted to give a reasonable square-law characteristic. The technique is to apply a measured input voltage $(\operatorname{Vin}(\mathrm{RMS})=$ $\sqrt{ }$ P.Rload) - for example 12.65 V RMS for 20 watts into 8 ohms, and 26.8 V for 90 watts - use the 'linearity pot, RV1, to set the power reading at say 20 watts, and use the'scale' pot, RV2, to set the meter reading at the high end. This will need to be done iteratively, going from one to the other and back again, since they influence each others readings. However, one wins in the end. I have shown in Table 1, below, the results on my prototype using 20 W and 90 W as the adjustment points.

| $V(\mathrm{rms})$ | P. (8 ohms) | Meter reading |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4.0 V | 2 W | 2 W |
| 6.32 V | 5 W | 5 W |
| 8.94 V | 10 W | 10 W |
| 10.95 V | 15 W | 14 W |
| 12.65 V | 20 W | 20 W |
| 15.5 V | 30 W | 31 W |
| 17.9 V | 40 W | 41 W |
| 20 V | 50 W | 52 W |
| 22 V | 60 W | 63 W |
| 23.7 V | 70 W | 72 W |
| 25.3 V | 80 W | 82 W |
| 26.8 V | 90 W | 90 W |
| 28.3 V | 100 W | 95 W |

Table 1 Calibration of the prototype power meter.

Unfortunately, a number of oversights and ommisions have crept into the design - of which the most serious which has come to light is the need for a buffer after the RIAA stage. I will do my best to clear up all these in a short post-script next month.

ETI

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# BUILDING TEST EQUIPMENT 

# You know what's available and you have decided what you need; all that remains is to acquire it by some means. Phil Walker offers a little encouragement to the impecunious. 

AIl test gear can be built (well, someone has done it) but you must consider whether it is worth your while and weigh up the cost of components and the time you spend against the price of ready made equipment. You must also consider such problems as how to calibrate it - test equipment is of little use if you cannot trust the readings you get from it.

There is little advantage to be gained from constructing multimeters or oscilloscopes unless they are for a special purpose. The cost of a home brew is likely to be similar to a comparable commercial unit and unless you are very good and have workshop facilities the result will be bulkier and less convenient to use. Even where a specialised measurement is needed it is probablybetter to add a conversion box or modify an existing unit.

For most other types of test equipment needed by the enthusiast it is quite useful to consider home construction. Signal sources of many sorts have appeared in this and other magazines and will no doubt continue to do so. The real challenge here is not only to understand the operation of one circuit before building it but to take the most useful parts of several circuits and combine them to get just what you require. Note that this is a long term goal and will not be attained overnight.

Other types of equipment which can be constructed by the amateur will include frequency counters and timers. Years ago this type of instrument required great masses of components, took lots of power to operate and cost a small fortune. Sometimes suitable ready built surplus gear could be bought and modified or repaired to get the desired result but this is not so common these days. However, the tremendous surge in semiconductor technology has brought with it new devices which can replace most of the circuitry with a single chip. This means that a very sophisticated instrument can be constructed with a few components and at quite a reasonable cost.

Having decided that you are actually going to build a piece of test equipment the first step is to decide exactly what you want. This does not mean, for example, a "voltmeter" it means: "A DC voltmeter, moving coil readout, ranges $1 \mathrm{~V}, 3 \mathrm{~V}, 10 \mathrm{~V}, 30 \mathrm{~V}, 100 \mathrm{~V}, 300 \mathrm{v}$. Input resistance 10 M constant on all ranges, overload protection to 1000 V on all ranges, manual range switching, automatic polarity switching with indicator, automatic power-down after 20 mins . with warning buzzer. Meter to be approx. 2 in . scale in same case as circuitry, single 9 V battery and switch. Case to be suitable for holding in hand. Accuracy of instrument to be better than $1 \%$ on all ranges."

Having written down all the requirements you can think of for your new unit you can start thinking about how to make it. At this stage you will probably find that changes have to be made in the specification, sometimes to improve it but more often to make construction possible. Your constraints will usually be determined by your knowledge, what you can find in books and magazines and what components are available at the price you can afford.

Having decided that the construction of your dream testgear is possible you must consider how to put it together so that it is usable. Bear in mind that you will probably use it often so a little thought will be to your advantage. Look at or measure the components you are to use, make models if you do not have them yet and try to fit them together in different ways until you find one which allows easyaccess to all the controls you need and easy sight of any readout devices. Make sure that switches can be operated without undue pressure or scraping your knuckles. Make the layout logical and neat from the front while making sure that you have enough room behind to wire it up where necessary. Always leave room for batteries, power supplies, fuses and power cables and provide a way of securing them.

As a matter of common sense, always use top quality components for your test equipment projects as any shortcoming here will often cost more in replacements and unsatisfactory performance later on.

When you have all the components and know where everything is going, the case should be prepared by drilling all the necessary holes and painting and lettering the front panel. A subsequent coat of clear varnish will keep things looking good. When this is dry you can assemble and test out the whole thing. If possible make sure it is working before you put it into the case as access is more difficult afterwards.

If you do all this it will take quite a long time but you should end up with a unit which is useful, usable, good to look at and reliable. This is more than you can say about some commercial products. In addition you will have gained a wider understanding of electronics than just the circuit principles involved.

[^1]| ITEM | MONTH | YEAR | PAGE No. | DESCRIPTION |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MULTIMETER |  |  |  |  |
| Digital Test Meter | September | 1980 | 79 | $31 / 2$ digit LCD; $100 \mathrm{mV}-1 \mathrm{kV}$ FSD AC \& DC in 5 ranges, <br> 100uA - 1A FSD AC \& DC in 5 ranges; <br> 100R-10M FSD in 6 ranges; $1 \mathrm{kHz}-1 \mathrm{MHz}$ FSD in 4 ranges |
| RESISTANCE METERS |  |  |  |  |
| Linear Ohmmeter | June | 1980 | 34 | 1K.1M FSD in four rànges; linear analogue display |
| Low-ohm Meter | April | 1981 | 40 | $100 \mathrm{mR}-100 \mathrm{R}$ in four ranges ( $\mathrm{mR}=$ milli-ohms) |
| CAPACITANCE METERS |  |  |  |  |
| Capacitance Meter | August | 1980 | 93 | low-cost meter with linear analogue display; 10pF-10uF |
| Autoranging Capacitance Meter | March April | $\begin{aligned} & 1982 \\ & 1982 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 48 \\ 108 \end{array}$ | $100 \mathrm{pF}-1000 \mathrm{uF}$ in eight automatically selected ranges; $31 / 2$-digit LCD display |
| FREQUENCY METERS |  |  |  |  |
| Digital Frequency Meter | January | 1980 | 56 | 0-150 MHz; crystal timebase; 8 digit LED display; frequency, period, unit counter and stopwatch functions |
| Linear Frequency Meter | July | 1980 | 99 | low-cost analogue unit; $10 \mathrm{~Hz}-100 \mathrm{kHz}$ |
| FUNCTION GENERATORS |  |  |  |  |
| Function Generator | December | 1979 | 20 | Sine, square and triangular waveforms; $1 \mathrm{~Hz} * 100 \mathrm{kHz}$; integral analogue frequency meter |
| Audio Oscillator | November | 1980 | 27 | low-cost sine and square wave generator; $30 \mathrm{Hz-60} \mathrm{kHz}$ |
| Pulse Generator | February | 1981 | 46 | Dual pulse generator, width and delay variable from 100 ns to 150 ms ; internal $0.5 \mathrm{~Hz}-500 \mathrm{kHz}$ clock |
| Precision Pulse Generator | November | 1982 | 39 | lus-99.9s pulse width; 1:999-999:1 mark/space ratio |
| POWER SUPPLIES |  |  |  |  |
| Laboratory PSU | September | 1981 | 87 | 0-30V@1.2A; 20mA-1.2A constant current limiting |
| Programmable Power Supply | January | 1983 | 83 | 0-25.5V@1.6A; local manual or remote digital control of voltage and/or current |
| Bench Power Supply | February | 1984 | 41 | 3-8V @ 2.5A and $\pm 8$-16V@0.5A; over-current protection on all outputs |
| OSCILLOSCOPES |  |  |  |  |
| 10 MHz Oscilloscope | May | 1982 | 53 | Single beam 10 MHz miniature oscilloscope; |
|  | June | 1982 | 30 | 12 V DC or 240 V AC operation |
|  | July February | $\begin{aligned} & 1982 \\ & 1983 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 63 \\ & 41 \end{aligned}$ |  |
| Telescope | July August | $\begin{aligned} & 1983 \\ & 1983 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 21 \\ & 30 \end{aligned}$ | Plug-in unit converts television into $1 \mathrm{MHz}_{\text {, }}$ single beam, storage oscilloscope |
| LOGIC PROBES |  |  |  |  |
| Dual Logic Probe | September | 1982 | 68 | CMOS and söme TTL; high, low and pulse indication; puise detection to above 2 MHz ; integral logic pulser; pulse memory |
| Logic Probe | March | 1983 | 73 | CMOS and some TTL; indicates high, low, pulsed, positive going, negative going, or open circuit stages |
| Logic Clip | November | 1983 | 91 | TTL and CMOS; simultaneous indication of state of all 14 or 16 pins of DIL device; high, low, pulse and undefined state indication |
| AUDIO TEST EQUIPMENT |  |  |  |  |
| Audio Power Meter | March | 1979 | 67 | True audio power reading; current handling up to 10A, voltage up to 300 V |
| Bench Amplifier | August | 1979 | 67 | Integral loudspeaker; four inputs offering flat and RIAA equalisation and various sensitivities |
| Noise Generator | December | 1979 | 67 | digital white noise generator |
| Bench Amplifier | December | 1980 | 74 | 4 watts output into 8 R external loudspeaker, single 10 M ohm input; response flat to 200 kHz |
| Sound Pressure Level Meter | February | 1981 | 74 | 30-120dB; switchable ' $A$ ' weighted or flat response |
| Audio Power Meter | March | 1984 | 3.5 | Dual channel (stereo); true audio power reading; 10-200W FSD in 3 ranges |



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# SHARP JOYSTICK INTERFACE 

## Bring some joy to your Sharp with this design by John Garnham.

With the current influx of new computers onto the British market, the Sharp looks a little lost, when most come with joystick sockets as standard, e.g. Commodore 64, Vic 20, Lynx, Dragon 32, BBC Micro, Sord M5, etc. This unit is both inexpensive and simple to use.

The joystick required is of the microswitch type. The one I purchased came from Cambridge Computing, although there are many available. This joystick has two fire buttons which is useful as

I have used one of these for 'hyperspace'. An added advantage of the joystick over the Sharp keyboard is that it is easy to detect when two switches are being held down together. When the Sharp scans the keyboard, certain keys have preference over others and trying to move a space ship and fire at the same time can cause problems for the programmer. With the joystick interface unit the joystick's switches correspond to different bits of the data bus and can be easily detected, especially


Fig. 1 circuit diagram of the interface
in machine code using the 'bit' Z80 opcode. Table 1 shows the codes possible to the corresponding switch closures.

## HOW IT WORKS

This interface works in a similar way to the Spectrum Joystick interface described in ETI in June '84. A particular memorylocation is decoded by ICs1 and 2, and the interface places its data on the data bus when a read to this location occurs. However, only eight 'address' lines can be used, of which two must be positive true (ie high for a read to take place; A15 and A14 are shown as these), and a further one of which must be used to sense the RD control line, which must be negative true (and this must be set so using the links). The remaining five lines can be either positive or negative true, and this can be selected by setting links as shown in the inset to the circuit diagram, so that the inverter on the line is either in or out of circuit. It is suggested that either A10 or A9 should be inverted, giving the interface address 64000 d or 65000d.
If two interfaces are required, so that two joysticks may be used simultaneously, then they should have different addresses, and 64000 d and 65000 d are suggested. However, the use of links on the PCB should make it possible to set up virtually any desired location; however, because only part of the address bus can be used, the interiace will always respond to a number of addresses. If a computer other than the Sharp is used with the interface, more than one control line may have to be used to prevent data bus contention, so that the number of addresses to which the interface will respond will be even larger!

When all the inputs to IC2 are high, its output will go low, driving the EN and OC inputs to IC3 low; the former latches the current state of the inputs into the internal flip-flops and the latter makes the IC output stages go from the high impedance state into the output driving state. So the inputs to IC3 are latched and put onto the data bus.
The joystick outputs are wired active low, with pull-up resistors R1-6; IC4 a to f clean up and invert the output from the switches, and feed them to IC3 inputs.


Fig. 2 Overlay diagram for the PCB; the bracketed labels refer to the Sharp connector (a full connection list for the Sharp connector was given in the Sharp Centronics Interface article in ETI May'84)

PARTS LIST


Table 1 (below) The codes generated by the different switkh closures.

The interface described here may be used either singly or in pairs, with the two boards connected in parallel but with different addresses set using wire links. Actually, the PCB is laid out so as to make the interface fairly widely applicable, ie, you can set up different address locations and control line conditions using the wire links to select in or out the inverter gates - however, you'll have to work out the particular details for your computer yourself!

## Construction

The Sharp does not provide +5 V on its external bus, so you can either build a separate power supply for the unit (or use one you have to hand) or'steal' +5 V from inside the computer as detailed in ETI May'84 ('Centronics Interface', P49); before you take this latter option, you might like to speculate that there could be a good reason why the designers didn't want you to take any current from the Sharp's PSU, but we'll leave the decision to you. The circuit shown here will consume around 50 mA .

There should be few problems with construction of the PCB, although it is necessary to take some care over the wire links close to IC1. The pads here are necessarily fairly small, and exces heat will lead to them parting company with the board. If you intend to

|  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | CODE | WITH | WITH | WITH |
| FIRE | HYPERSPACE | BOTH |  |  |
| SIATIONARY | 0 | 16 | 32 | 48 |
| UP | 1 | 17 | 33 | 49 |
| DOWN | 2 | 18 | 34 | 50 |
| RIGHT | 4 | 20 | 36 | 52 |
| UP-RIGHT | 5 | 21 | 37 | 53 |
| DOWN-RIGHT | 6 | 22 | 38 | 54 |
| LEFT | 8 | 24 | 40 | 56 |
| UP-LEFT | 9 | 25 | 41 | 57 |
| DOWN-LEFT | 10 | 26 | 42 | 58 |
|  |  |  |  |  |

relocate the interface at all within the Sharp's or other computer's address space, then it is advisable to use PCB pins for the links any-
way. Also, be sure never to use all three links on any of the inverters or you will end up with a very cross little gate! Table 2 shows the

LOCATION
6400
6500

LINKS
A9, RD inverted (use dotted links) A15-10 non-inverted (use solid links)
A10, RD inverted (use dotted links) A15-11, 9 non-inverted (use solid links)

Table 2 Suggested links for the memory positioning.


Fig. 3 Suggested method of assembling a dual interface
suggested links for the recommended locations for the Sharp.

If you're using two interfaces together, then a method of interconnecting them is shown in Fig. 3. There are two sets of holes on
org 5000 H
LOAD 5000H
LD HL, 64000
LABEL:LD A, (HL)
JR LABEL
END

Fig. 4 Assembler program to generate a series of pulses
each board for the address and data bus connections, and it will probably be easier to use the outer set for the paralleling connections, and the inner set of one board for the connections to the computer.

The PCBs can be mounted in a suitable box, and a small cut-out can be filed in the lid so that it traps the 50-way cable and acts as a strain-reliever. What sort of connector you use for the Joystick depends on the type of Joystick you use; most use D-type connectors, and a common format for these was given in ETI June' 84 ('Spectrum Joystick Interface', p50), although this did not allow for the use of two 'fire' buttons, so you'll have to investigate the connections yourself.

Once the interface is constructed, it's time to plug it into the computer. First, however, if you've built a special PSU, check this out with a suitable dummy load (47R1W). If you've used IC sockets, first of all, plug in the board without any ICs and check that the computer doesn't crash. Then insert IC1 and 2 (with the power off, of course) and check that IC2 pin 8 goes low when the appropriate address is PEEKed (either 64000 or 65000 if you've used the suggested locations). Fig. 4 shows a method available to those with a Zen assembler, and this will produce a string of pulses.

Fit the remaining ICs (or start here if you soldered them straight in) and, after re-connecting the supplies, read the value at location 64000; if this is zero, try typing in the program in Fig. 5. If the location does not read zero, try to see what the effect of pressing the buttons or moving the stick is; if this changes the value read, then check the connections to the joystick from the board. If nothing changes, or if the processor crashes, check the wiring of the ribbon cable, the construction of the PCB, etc.

## Use

The program in Fig. 5 can be used to check the correct functioning of the interface unit. Converting programs you have already written can be along the lines shown in Fig. 6, where the program lines on the left are for

1 REM**TEST PROGRAM**
2 S=20000:LIMIT S
3 FOR X=1TO11
4 READ D:POKE X+S,D
6 DATA $33,0,250,126,198,48$
7 DATA $205,18,0,24,248$
Fig. 5 Test program for the interface
Fig. 6 Converting programs to use the interface

10 GET A\$
20 IF AS $={ }^{*}$ THEN 10
30 IF AS="Z" THEN 100
40 IF AS='C" THEN 200
50 etc
$10 \mathrm{X}=\operatorname{PEEK}(64000)$
20 IF X=0 THEN 10
30 IF $X=8$ THEN 100
40 IF X=4 THEN 200
50 etc

the computer without the interface, and those on the right are for use with the interface.

Happy zapping!
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# DEBUGGING AND FAULT-FINDING 

# Having looked at the types of test gear available and considered ways of acquiring it, our fourth special feature offers some suggestions on how to use it. 

A$s$ we have pointed out elsewhere in this issue, test equipment is likely to find employment in three main areas - design and development, production, and fault-finding on completed and previously functional equipment. Production testing is only employed in industry where large numbers of identical units are being assembled, and is therefore of little relevance to the hobbyist. Similarly, anyone capable of producing their own designs is unlikely to need us to tell them how to use their test equipment. For this reason, we will concentrate here on the test procedures involved in debugging new equipment and locating faults in finished equipment.

## Debugging

This is the process of getting a new design or installation working correctly. The first necessity is to get a firm idea of what the equipment should do and what it should not.


Figs 1 (above) and 2 (below) A couple of design traps here, both due to not allowing for leakage current.


It is advisable to check power supply lines for short circuits, correct routing and make sure they go nowhere that they shouldn't. Other wiring should also be checked but wait a day or so if you are the one who wired it in the first place. This will reduce the risk of your making the same mistake twice. Similar comments apply to the construction of PCBs but mistakes here will tend to be components in the wrong place, the wrong way round or even the wrong value.

When all appears to be correct, the moment of truth arrives. Switch it on. Three things are now possible: it appears to work, it does not work or it emits a cloud of smoke. These have been listed in order of increasing cost.

If the first possibility occurs then you can proceed with your tests to make sure that all the parts of the circuitry work as designed. Be very wary of circuits which work but you cannot explain why. In the second instance, if the unit just sits there not working, you must find out why. For logic circuits try turning off and on a few times. If it then starts to work your problem is undefined logic states at power up, see Fig. 3. This can usually be avoided by a power-on-reset circuit at strategic points. If this is not possible then you must re-design the logic so that it has no hang-up states.

Analogue circuits can also exhibit this type of problem if the power supplies turn on in the wrong sequence. This is usually due to parasitic thyristor action in some ICs and can only be avoided by changing the type of device or including circuitry to prevent it. A more common problem in analogue circuits is that they often


Fig. 3 A problem with oscillator start-up due to undefined logic states at switch-on.
contain capacitors for signal path coupling, decoupling and response shaping. At switch-on these must charge up via their associated circuitry to their operating voltage. This can put potentially damaging strains on other parts of the circuit or output devices. This is especially true in some types of audio amplifier.

If you are unfortunate and your circuit produces clouds of smoke when you turn it on... turn it off. Before everything cools make a note of which components were involved. Then you can test all the active devices connected to these components to make sure they are still functional. If, not replace them, checking carefully that they are correctly connected. Now study the circuit and see what could cause excess power, not forgetting that high frequency oscillation has killed many a homebrew amplifier with incorrect compensation.

Digital circuits can suffer from a particularly awkward type of problem as they operate very quickly but not instantaneously. The problem occurs when signals change state, especially where the outputs from a multibit counter are being decoded. What happens is that after a clock pulse the outputs start to change state. Unfortunately not all of them change state at the same time and the signal paths through the decoding logic can take different times. This means that the decoding logic "sees" a series of logic combinations which, although they are of very short duration, can give rise to spurious outputs. This does not matter too much where the output drives a slow, level sensitive device. These spurious outputs are called" glitches". The usual method of avoiding them is to prevent any action being taken until the decoding logic has had time to settle down. Then the result is stored in a latch and held while the next change occurs. Glitches and timing errors are among the most common causes of faulty operation of logic circuitry. Most of the remaining faults are caused by the designer not fully understanding the full purpose of the circuit in the first place.

When designing logic circuits, bear in mind that individual devices may respond to pulses much narrower than those specified for reliable operation in the manufacturers data sheet, see Fig. 4. In most logic families, the delay caused by one gate can produce a pulse which will clock a latch or counter.

Once you have got to the state where nothing is


Unless a multimeter has 'true RMS' or words to that effect written on it, like this Thurlby instrument, it will find the value it displays for its 'RMS' voltage and current readings by finding either the average or the peak value and dividing by a fixed correction factor. This is acceptable for a pure sinusoidal wave, but can be very misleading for any other wave-shape.


Fig. 4 A design problem with glitches; this particular problem took about 6 hours of frustration to find; when eventually located, the glitch pulses were only a few nanoseconds wide and very difficult to see. The basic problem here is using a device designed for synchronous logic in a non-synchronous application.
actually destroying itself you can start to find out where the signal stops. The process from now on is very similar to fault-finding.

## Fault-finding

This is the process of finding out what has gone wrong with a piece of equipment which has previously worked satisfactorily but for some reason has failed.

The first operation is to remove any obvious faults such as short circuits on input or output. Next check all wires for breaks or poor joints. Look at connectors for damage or misuse. If this reveals nothing then examine the circuitry for mechanical damage and foreign bodies (including coffee, fruit juice, beer, jewelry, dead insects etc.). Repair any damage and remove unwanted contamination with a suitable solvent and allow to dry thoroughly.

If the circuit has suffered a catastrophic failure, ie things burnt or fused, check all components associated with the cause of the fault very carefully. When this is complete, switch on and observe. If the original cause of the fault was not found it is wise to include some sort of protection such as reduced supply voltage and current limiting with a suitable resistor. When all appears to be safe you can remove the protection and proceed to eliminate any remaining problems.

There are three main approaches to finding noncatastrophic faults. The first and least reliable is to poke around with a multimeter and guess. In the hands of an expert with years of experience this can sometimes be very quick But not always. The other methods are somewhat slower but more reliable.

The second method is to start from the input and check that the correct signals appear at the input and output of each stage. For this type of testingyou will need a signal source and probably an oscilloscope or possibly a bench amplifier with AM and FM detectors for radio work In this way it should be relatively easy to pinpoint where the signal stops and thus find the fault.

The final method is to work from the output backwards. This requires that the loudspeaker or other output device is connected and working. Your signal generator must be controllable so that you can inject suitable stimuli into the various stages. Once again when you find the stage where the signal is lost that is usually where the fault is.

Either of the two latter methods will give valid results and the one you choose will be a question of personal preference tempered with consideration of the nature of the fault and the equipment available to you.

## Bugbears

The worst fault to find is one which is intermittent. In most cases it will disappear totally for the period you are testing the equipment and you will need to coax it out of hiding. Three things can be used here, the first is the 'engineering thump' to get it rattled, then there is heat treatment with a hairdryer or table lamp and finally the cold shoulder using one of the freezer aerosols now on the market. Beware of the latter near valve equipment.

With a bit of luck one of these methods will lead you to the culprit. This will usually be either a crack in the PCB, dry joint, bad contact or broken component.

Faults which only manifest themselves after a period of operation are often due to heat. In old valve equipment the effect can be to make capacitors leaky (insulation resistance decreases) or to dry them up if electrolytic (capacitance reduces drastically). Resistor values also change with time and valve cathodes become less efficient. All these effects lead to incorrect operation. Semiconductor equipment does not usually suffer quite so much from this problem but is more vulnerable to damage from misuse.

## Test Traps

However you go about testing a piece of apparatus and whatever equipment you use to do it there are a few basic things which must be borne in mind. The first is that all practical test equipment has some effect on the circuitry being tested. In many cases the effect will be negligible but sometimes it will not. Times to take care are when measuring low voltages in high impedance circuits or low currents in low impedance circuits, as in Figs 5 and 6. In either case using a moving coil type of multimeter is likely to result in a reading which is far removed from the normal value and may also seriously affect the circuit operation. In bad cases damage may also occur, usually to the circuit under test.


Fig. 5 (left and 6 (right) Classic problems with meters' finite impedance.

Another instance where erroneous readings may occur is when trying to read $D C$ values in the presence of large AC signals. An example of this is measuring DC current between a bridge rectifier and reservoir capacitor in a power supply. The result will probably be a large drop in capacitor voltage and a somewhat strange reading on the ammeter. The reason for this is that the current only flows for a small proportion of the mains cycle and will therefore have a peak value many times that of the DC output current. Putting in your ammeter adds an ohm or so to the circuit and also some inductance. The effect of this is to restrict the peak current and therefore the amount by which the capacitor is charged.

Another example to bear in mind is to be found when connecting an oscilloscope probe to a high impedance, high frequency circuit. As shown in the diagram (Fig 7)
this can severely distort the amplitude response of a simple high pass filter and could cause malfunction where none previously existed.


Fig. 7 Don't forget that oscilloscopes apply a load to the circuit which is not always negligible. Frequency counters, too (below) can also give significant circuit loading.


A final example is where a meter is connected between the wrong points. This can cause the circuit to fail when the meter passes enough current to the base circuit of a simple charge pump pulse detector, Fig. 8. In rare instances it has been known for measuring devices such as frequency counters, oscilloscopes and others with internal oscillators to inject spurious signals into the circuit being tested causing great puzzlement.


Fig. 8 An example of a test instrument stopping a circuit from working at all.

The final problem worth mentioning is earth loops. You may have heard that they are not desirable in amplifiers, well, nor are they in test gear. Unfortunately they are all too easy to create. Whether you buy or make your equipment you will probably find that, if it is mains powered, one terminal or test lead will be connected to earth via the mains. This is not a big problem while all your tests are ground referenced as you can bond everything together with a nice thick wire. The problem comes when floating measurements are needed. The choice is either to use battery powered equipment or instruments with dfferential inputs. There is actually another way but it is prone to errors and potentially lethal so don't do it!


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# VERSATILE EPROM EMULATOR 

# Following on from last month's article in which the design process was examined in some detail, Mike Bedford describes the construction of the board and offers some advice on interfacing it to your microcomputer. 

Construction is quite straightforward and, with the exception of link selection, the board requires no setting up. The circuit has been artworked as a single sided board to keep its cost to a minimum. The inevitable result of this, in a circuit of even moderate complexity, is that there are a number of wire links on the board. It is suggested that these are fitted first.

Sockets for the ICs are not absolutely essential, but since their omission would not greatly reduce the component cost it is suggested that they are used, especially for the 6116 L devices. The proper precautions (ie, not touching the pins) should be taken when handling the CMOS devices. These are the 6116Ls and the 4071.

No assumption should be made regarding the state of charge of the PCB battery as supplied. It should not be placed pins-down on a conducting surface, but neither should the board be expected to function correctly in battery back-up mode until it has been powered up for a number of hours, hence allowing the battery to charge.


Fig. 8 Overlay diagram of the PCB.

For users not wishing to fully populate the board, IC11 should be fitted to give a 2 K board whereas IC11 and IC10 should be fitted to give a 4 K configuration. When emulating EPROMs smaller than 2764 s , unless tied low by use of pull down resistors, the unused address lines (A11 and A12 on the 2716 and A12 on the 2732) will float high, causing the emulated RAM to occur at the top of the 8 K space on the host system. So long as this is realised it presents no problems unless, of course, the board is only partially populated, in which case non existent memory will be accessed. To avoid this problem any such unused address lines should be connected to 0 V .

Links LK3 - LK6 should be fitted to select whether or not battery backed up operation is required on each of the RAMs. LK3 affects IC9, LK4 - IC10, LK5 IC11 and LK6 - IC12. In each case, if the board is held component side upmost with the TANBUS edge connector at the right of the board, connecting the centre to the left pin of the link will select battery backed-up operation whereas connecting the centre to the right pin will select the system 5 V supply. If the non-battery backed up option is selected for a particular position, a less expensive 6116 or 2016 device may be substituted for the 6116 L .

Links LK1 and LK2 are fitted onto a 14 pin DIL header which then plugs into a DIL socket on the board. Figure 9 may be used to

| IDC connector pin no | EPROM signal | $\begin{gathered} 2716 \\ 2732 \\ \text { pin no } \end{gathered}$ | 2764 pin no |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | A12 (Only 2764) | - | 2 |
| 2 | A0 | 8 | 10 |
| 3 | A11 (Not 2716) | 21 | 23 |
| 4 | A1 | 7 | 9 |
| 5 | OE | 20 | 22 |
| 6 | OV | - | - |
| 7 | CE | 18 | 20 |
| 8 | 0 V | - | - |
| 9 | A3 | 5 | 7 |
| 10 | A2 | 6 | 8 |
| 11 | A5 | 3 | 5 |
| 12 | A4 | 4 | 6 |
| 13 | A7 | 1 | 3 |
| 14 | A6 | 2 | 4 |
| 15 | A9 | 22 | 24 |
| 16 | A8 | 23 | 25 |
| 17 | D0 | 11 |  |
| 18 | A10 | 19 | 21 |
| 19 | D2 | 11 | 13 |
| 20 | D1 | 10 | 12 |
| 21 | D4 | 14 | 16 |
| 22 | D3 | 13 | 15 |
| 23 | D6 | 16 | 18 |
| 24 | D5 | 15 | 17 |
| 25 | 0 V | 12 | 14 |
| 26 | D? | 17 | 19 |

Table 1 Details of the connections required between the emulator and the EPROM socket.


Fig. 9 Link arrangements to give various positions of the board within the host system address space.
select these links to give the required positioning of the board within the host address space. After building up the board, the final aspect of construction is the

## PARTS LIST

| RESISTORS (All $1 / 4$ W 5\%) |  | Q1 | BC184 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| R1, R 5 | $1 \mathrm{k5}$ | Q2 | BC214L |
| R2 | 330 R | D1 | 1 N4001 or similar |
| R3, R4 | 10k |  |  |
| R6 | 68 R | MISCELLANEOUS |  |
| RP1-RP3 | $47 \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{SIL}, 8$ |  |  |
|  | commoned | SK1 | 2x32 way, A+B DIN <br> Euro Connector, |
| CAPACITORS ${ }^{\text {C1-8 }}$ 10n Ceramic |  | SK2 | male angled pins 26 way low profile |
| ${ }_{C 9}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 10n Ceramic } \\ & 47 \mathrm{u} \text { 16V axial } \end{aligned}$ | SK2 | male PCB mount- |
|  | electrolytic |  | ing connector |
| C10 | 470p ceramic | LK1 \& LK2 | 14 pin DIL headerin 14 pin DIL socket |
| SEMICONDUCTORS |  | LK3,4,5,6 | 0.1 "' pitch, 3 way |
| IC1 | 74LS04 |  | Molex connectors |
| IC2 | 74LS32 |  | with 2 way link |
| IC3 | 74LS08 | B1 | $3.6 \mathrm{~V} 100 \mathrm{mAh}, \mathrm{PCB}$ |
| IC4 | 7415139 |  | mounting nicad |
| IC5 | 74LS245 |  | battery |
| IC6,12,13,14,15 | 74LS244 |  |  |
| IC7 | 4071 (OR |  |  |
| 1C8,9,10,11 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 6116LP-3 (OR } \\ & \text { 6116P, 6116P, } 2016 \\ & - \text { see text) } \end{aligned}$ | PCB; sockets for ICs; female IDC connector to fit SK2; ribbon cable; 24 and/or |  |

making up of a cable to connect the emulator to the EPROM socket on the target system. This will consist of a 26 -way female IDC connector, a length of ribbon cable and either a 24 pin or 28 pin DIL header. Separate leads will be required for $2716 / 2732$ and for 2764 devices unless there is room on the target board to enable only the lower 24 pins of a 28 pin DIL header to be plugged into the EPROM socket, in which case the same lead may be used for all these EPROMs. Table 1 shows the details required to make up the cables.

A length of ribbon cable can cause read errors from the target system due to noise pick-up resulting from the capacitance between adjacent conductors. This is a particular problem since the signals present on EPROM sockets are not usually intended to drive lengths of ribbon cable. The problem is reduced by keeping the cable length to a minimum, and $12^{\prime \prime}$ should be considered an absolute maximum. Initial experimenis also showed that a good

## PROJECT : EPROM Emulator



Fig. 10 Flow diagram showing how data should be written to the emulator from the host system via a parallel port.
earth connection is essential between the emulator and the target system; the single ribbon cable conductor could well be inadequate and a separate, thicker wire might be required. It was also found that the emulator can be sensitive to the path taken by the cable. In particular, care should be taken to ensure that it is not stretched tightly across the target board or interference may result.

## Using The Emulator

Before making use of the emulator, the user must first check that it is compatible with the


Fig. 11 Flow diagram showing how data should be read from the emulator by the host system via a parallel port.
target system. This is determined by viewing the access times required by the target system in view of the fact that, if 150 nS RAMs are used on the emulator card, the OE or CE to data valid time (whichever is later) will be about 210 ns . This means that the emulator will generally work with target systems having processor frequencies up to about 2.0 MHz In fact, the prototype has been used consistently at 1.7 MHz and with faster RANs at 2.2 MHz

Another thing to remember about the emulator is that only one of the ports may have access
to the memory at any one time. This card has been designed so that the port to the target system is the one which is normally enabled, but whenever the development system requires access it takes priority, hence denying access to the target system. The host computer will thus always be able to read or write to the RAM. The fact that the target port will sometimes be denied access to the emulator is not a big problem because whenever the development computer writes to the emulator it will generally be to change the program and, accordingly, it will usually be required to do a target system reset.

The method of driving the emulator depends very much on which method of interfacing is used. If the board is interfaced directly onto the system bus of a 6502 or 6809 based computer, there is really nothing to be said. It is simply a matter of writing the data to the emulator in just the same way as to any other memory on the computer. On the other hand, the hardware for implementing a stand alone emulator with an RS232 interface has not yet been described, so the method of using the emulator in this configuration will be left to a future article. The only interfacing method which therefore requires any amount of instructions is via a parallel port. Since a variety of different machines employing various PIAs, PIOs \& VIAs could be used it seems pointless to give a BASIC or assembler program for one particular hardware. One flow diagram is for transferring data from the computer to the emulator and another for carrying out the reverse process. In either case the following signals require connecting to PIA pins: A0-A12, D0D7, F/W and SEL In addition, $\varphi 2$ should be connected to +5 V and link 2 should be selected to the ' $d$ ' position.

## BUYLINES

> All of the semiconductors (including the various memory options), the passive components, the SIL resistors, etc, are available from our regular advertisers. The only item likely to cause any problems is the PCB mounting nicad; we obtained ours from a trade source, but if you are unable to find an identical item there is a Maplin equivalent which has slightly different pin spacing. The PCB is available from our PCB service, see page 54.



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# COMMUNICATIONS SATELLITES (PART 2) 

# Roger Bond continues his look at communications satellites with a look at the Single Channel Per Carrier transmission system, beam polarisations and the different satellite circuits we connect up to. 

Single channel per carrier (SCPC) is similar to SPADE except that SPADE is on a demand assignment basis, SCPC is preassigned. As before a 36 MHz transponder is divided into 800 channels but to avoid interference with the system pilot the two channels at mid band are not used. This leaves 789 usable channels.

As in the SPADE system, a 14 kHz audio channel is converted to a digital rate of $56 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}$. Add to this synchronisation pulses and the bit rate increases to 64 Kbit/s. About four years after SPADE, SCPC was introduced. Since there was a good demand for data transmission at a higher rate than could be used on SPADE, a preassigned link had to be established and there are several $48 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}$ and $50 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}$ data links over SCPC.

A transponder uses so many carriers that the frequency deviation of each must be limited to 250 Hz compared with 80 kHz permissible deviation when operating in a frequency division multiplex mode(FDM) using, say, a dozen carriers.

The low speeds of data are $1.2 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}, 2.4 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}$ and $4.8 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}$. Medium speeds are $9.6 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}, 19.2 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}, 48$ $\mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}, 50 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}$ and $56 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}$. So a TDM (time division multiplex) terminal could interleave several low speed data streams into say a $48 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}$ stream. This is an example of how flexibility of ground equipment can cope with traffic demands. One other point of interest: a 4 kHz speech channel is converted to $64 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}$ of digital information; therefore, with data speeds of $56 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}$ we are approaching this limit. However, lower speeds can be combined to give this maximum.

Such demands must of course be met in the air and to cope with heavy traffic. four of the transponders on both Intelsat IV and Intelsat IVA can be switched from global beam to spot beam by remote telemetry from the ground.

A frame is a cycle of bursts from all stations. Each burst starts with a preamble of station identification, signalling and so on. There are also start of message words which aid synchronisation. Only one station transmits a reference pilot which is used by all the other stations for automatic frequency control (AFC) and automatic gain control (ACC).

If speech is being transmitted, a voice detector switches on the carriers, switching them off again during silent periods to conserve both satellite and earth station power. However a speech detector would cause clipping and sound quite annoying to a listener but if a
delay line is used in the speech path to delay the speech by a few milliseconds while the detector switches on the carriers, then nospeech would be lost. For data transmission, the voice detector is disabled and the channel is in continuous use.

The error rate for SCPC is 1 in $10^{4}$ which is good enough for speech but poor for data. This can be improved to 1 in $10^{7}$ by the rate $3 / 4$ encoder or the rate $7 / 8$ encoder. To produce an error correction code, the rate $3 / 4$ encoder converts the incoming data stream into three parallel streams $i, j, k$ and arithematic operation produces a fourth stream $p$ from a parity generator.

These four streams are combined and fed into a fourphase, phase shift keying (PSK) modulator as two parallel $32 \mathrm{Kbit} / \mathrm{s}$ streams, Fig. 1. To get four phases we simply divide a circle into four to give angles of $0,90,180$ and 270 degrees. These correspond to the digital states 00 , 01, 11, 10.

So if we clock each of the two phase modulators of Fig. 1 with quadrature components of a 46 MHZ carrier, the output from the adder will give one of the four states above. Then depending on the channel being transmitted, the 46 MHz PSK carrier is mixed with a frequency to give an IF for that channel which will be within the range $70 \pm 18 \mathrm{MHz}$.

In the receive direction, there are two down converters which translate the 4 GHz first into an IF centred on 70 MHz then to a band centred on 46 MHz . The automatic gain control has a range of 14 dB and uses the power of the system pilot as reference. The range of the automatic frequency control is $\pm 40 \mathrm{kHz}$ and once again centres on the system pilot.


Fig. 1 PSK modulator block diagram.

With the increasing demand for international data links, SCPC is here to stay and whereas a Standard A type earth station with a 30 m diameter aerial is required for FDM, a standard B earth station with a dish of only 12 m diameter is needed for SCPC/PSK.

## Dual Polarisation

The radio spectrum is very crowded, particularly in the $L$ and $C$ bands; for example, the $6 / 4 \mathrm{GHz}$ satellite frequencies are also used for terrestrial radio. Any method of making better use of the available frequencies is worth trying. One such method is the use of opposite polarisations of the same carrier to carry different information.

Circular polarisation is used, rather than plane, because this is far less affected by attitude changes in the satellite or earth station, for obvious reasons. It is fairly easy to interconvert between plane and circular polarisations, and Fig 2 shows one such device. There are devices for converting from circular to plane, and for splitting off different polarisations from each other. As a working minimum, a cross-talk of -30 dB between different polarisations is acceptable.


Fig. 2 Circular polariser in a waveguide.
There are several different aerial configurations in use. Figure 3 a shows a front fed symmetrical reflector. This is a simple arrangement but the feed horn blocks the aperture so we can use the offset reflector of Fig. 3 b . But in Fig. 3 b the signal path length to one end of the reflector is not the same as the path length to the other end.

Aerials with two reflectors are called Cassegrain. Fig. 3c shows an open Cassegrain and Fig. 3d an offset


[^3]

Fig. 4 Symmetrical beam.
Cassegrain. The main reflector is a parabola and the sub reflector a hyperbola which is thought to give a waveshape that is superior to that from a single reflector since distortions would cancel. The edges are also shaped to reduce spill over radiation and compensate for path length differences.

The object of a good aerial is to produce a symmetrical beam with low sidelobes (Fig. 4). In addition, if it is radiating waves of different polarisations, the cross polarisation (interference) must be low. There are two methods which will satisfy these requirements. One is to introduce a step in the aerial horn (Fig. 5). This has the effect of exciting a higher order mode of wave propagation in the wave guide which cancels the fundamental mode and gives good beam symmetry. The disadvantage is that this method limits the usable bandwidth of the antenna, which can be improved by further step discontinuities.


Fig. 5 (left) A step discontinuity in the feed horn.


Fig. 6 (right) A corrugated feed horn.

Another method sometimes used is to line the walls of the aerial with dielectric or install corrugations (Fig. 6). The exact nature of the field distributions is beyond the scope of this article but briefly, the electric field parallel to the aerial axis enters the grooves but the circumferential field does not. The electric field is a combination of TE and TM modes which cannot propogate down smooth walls but need walls lined with dielectric or corrugations. The propagated frequency will depend on the depth and radius of the slots which in turn will control the field pattern. The penalty of course is that these aerials cost more and are heavier than conventional flat-walled dishes.

A development in recent years is to situate the feed horn on the ground and then convey the beam up to the main reflector by means of a wave guide which consists of four reflectors, Fig. 7. All this makes for a fairly complex tracking mechanism.


Fig. 7 Beam guided to main reflector.

## Satellite Circuits

The UK's aerials have to serve satellites over the Atlantic and Indian ocean. The traffic paths are as follows: a primary and two secondary paths over the Atlantic Ocean Region (AOR) and a primary and one major path over the Indian Ocean Region (IOR). This means three satellites over the Atlantic Ocean and two over the Indian Ocean Region plus spares for each region.

On the AOR major paths, Britain works to the USA and Canada and on the primary path to Africa and the Middle East. Over the IOR major path we can communicate with Australia, Japan and Hong Kong and over the primary path with some of the industrially smaller countries.

The Pacific ocean has only one satellite, the Pacific Ocean satellite, but we are not geographically placed to do any business via that satellite.

| Band | HF | VHF | UHF | L | S |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Frequency GHz | $0.003-0.03$ | $0.03-0.3$ | $0.3-1$ | $1-2$ | $2-4$ |
| Wavelength | $10-100 \mathrm{~m}$ | $1-10 \mathrm{~m}$ | $0.3-1 \mathrm{~m}$ | $150-300 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $75-150 \mathrm{~mm}$ |
| Band | X | Ku | K | $37-75 \mathrm{~mm}$ |  |
| Frequency GHz | $8-12$ | $12-18$ | $18-27$ | $27-40$ | Millimetre |
| Wavelength | $25-37 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $17-25 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $11-17 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $7-11 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $40-300$ |

Table 1 Frequency Spectrum
ETI


Fig. 8 The three satellite regions.

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# INFRARED ALARM 

## In part two of this project, Frederick Howard gives details of the setting up and use.

The transmitter should be set up first so that it can be used to set-up the receiver. If you have an oscilloscope, connect it to the junction of IC2, pin 3 and R8 and then switch on the transmitter. A symmetrical square wave of 5 volts amplitude should be observed. If the circuit is not oscillating, try adjusting RV1. If you have a frequency counter, connect it in place of the oscilloscope and adjust RV1 until you get a reading of 50 kHz . If you do not have an oscilloscope or a frequency counter, set RV1 to its mid point. You will not be able to check that the circuit is oscillating, but if you have problems in setting up the receiver and suspect the transmitter to be at fault, you could either borrow the necessary test gear or devise a diode pump or frequency divider arrangement to make sure.

Before starting work on the receiver, set coils L1 and L2 so that their adjustable slugs are about one turn away from full insertion and, for reasons of personal comfort, temporarily disconnect the sounder. Point the oscillating transmitter directly at the receiver from a distance of one or two feet. The lens assembly can be left off of the receiver until after the setting-up operation if this is most convenient. Connect a high resistance voltmeter across C10, taking the positive lead to ground, and
adjust L1 and L2 for maximum voltage reading. For fine adjustment, move the transmitter further away from the receiver.
Switch off the units, disconnect R5 on the transmitter from the positive rail and solder it into its correct position. Switch on again with the two units positioned as before and monitor the emitter of Q8 with an oscilloscope. A pulsed signal should be observed at an amplitude of about 3 volts. The sounder can now be re-connected
and the system tested. If you do not have an oscilloscope you will not be able to test for a pulsed waveform at the emitter of Q8 so you will simply have to connect up the sounder and try out the system, hoping for the best.

## In Use

The IR emitter diodes are very directional and must be pointed directly at the receiver in order to hold off the alarm. If more than one emitting diode is used the


Fig. 5. Overlay of the receiver PCB.

beam will inevitably be slightly more divergent, if only because it is almost impossible to line up several diodes with sufficient accuracy to make it otherwise. A little experimenting may be in order here, particularly if you are
planning to use the alarm over large distances. For short distances, up to about six feet, the two units may be placed side by side and the beam reflected from the opposite wall. For longer distances, up to a maximum of about 35


ALL DIMENSIONS IN mm


ALL DIMENSIONS IN mm

Figs. 6 \& 7. Drilling details of the receiver (left) and transmitter cases.
feet, the two units should be placed opposite one another and lined up carefully. Note that, for the reasons explained earlier, the receiver has a built-in delay of about twenty seconds after switch on during which time it will not detect any interruption of the beam.

## ETI

## BUYLINES

The SFH100 and BP104 infrared diodes are available from Avionic Systems (Heathrow) Ltd, Viscount Way, Heathrow Airport, Hounslow, Middlesex TW6 2JW, as also are the VN10LK Iransistors. None of the other semiconductors should cause any problems, but note Ihat BC178s can be used instead of BC478s - both are complementary to the BC108s used elsewhere in the circuit. Polycarbonate capacitors suitable for use as C2 and C12 in the receiver are available from Maplin (type WW25C), who can also supply suitable cases. Ambit stock a silver mica capacitor suitable for use as $\mathbf{C 3}$ in the transmitter (stock no. 04-22108) and can also supply the Toko coils (stock no. 35-03500). Almost any sounder which can operate from a 9 V supply will be suitable, and various types are available from Cricklewood, Electrovalue, TK Electronics, Watford and others. The PCBs are available from us, see page 54.

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# READ/WRITE 

Dear Sir,
The rather critical tone of your editorial note at the head of READ/WRITE in your May issue of Electronics Today, is, I suspect somewhat unjustified.

You imply that your readers do not care about Alan Todd's problem, because we have not come up with a solution to it.

I would suggest that his difficulty is in fact incapable of practical solution. A reasonably obvious solution viz. the use of solenoids, is, as Alan himself tells us, impractical.

The trouble is that the human body is an immensely complicated mechanism. Many people, deceived by 'The Six Million Dollar Man' believe that it is possible to duplicate its function as compactly as the original. But those of us who saw a television programme broadcast two or three years ago which went behind the myth (and which actually featured the man who survived the horrific crash sequence which was shown at the start of each $\$ 6,000,000$ Man episode) will know how far away from the truth the series was.

This sort of problem is the subject of an immense amount of research effort, for the handicapped and disabled, but such machines as exist e.g. the Possum are limited and cumbersome.

Do you really expect one of your readers to come up with a solution for you to publish - at usual rates? It would make millions!

As I say, I doubt whether there is a way to let Alan play his guitar again. But maybe all is not lost. Given enough electronic knowledge, I expect one could build a synthesizer into a guitar body, with rows of micro switches between the frets to operate chords. Further switches would complete the circuits to 'pluck' the strongs. Depending on how much control Alan has over his right hand, one could perhaps add extra rows for vibrato or echo effects or what ever else might be required. One could also use foot controls if necessary for volume.

But I am no electronics expert, and I know nothing about guitars either. Maybe this whole idea is either (a) unworkable or (b) unac-
ceptable in terms of the sound output possible. But I would like to think that with clever use of components you could build a subsititute for a stringed guitar that would be undetectable at normal audience distances. You could even paint strings on the neck of the machine!

As I said at the beginning, it's not that we don't care about Alan's problem, it's that we don't have the technical knowledge to provide any useful contribution. Probably many of your readers are like me - just about able to follow a circuit diagram to wire it up, but utterly lost if whatever it is doesn't work at the end. Never mind, burning your fingers and spilling hot solder on the cat is a better way than many of spending wet winter afternoons and just occasionally something does work.

Yours sincerely,
Henry Arnold
Huntingdon,
Cambridgeshire

## Dear Sir,

Congratulations on your April issue, the subtleties of which escaped me'till I read your May editorial.

Which shows I fell hook, line and sinker. It is a good thing to be made to laugh at oneself.

Yours sincerely,
Roger Hannis
Reading
Mr Hannis may be the only reader to have owned-up but we can assure him he wasn't the only one to be fooled.

Dear Sir,
Mr Porter's letter in the March 1984 issue introduces some useful features for the improvement of a loudspeaker and I wish to raise one point. By the introduction of an amplitude correction circuit, does this not at the same time result in a phase difference in the upper range of the bass signal, and I estimate this to be equivalent to a $2 \mu$ difference at the dividing frequency. This may be small in comparison with the main time delay but should it not be taken into
account? A small change in the value of the capacitor will cope with this.

Yours sincerely<br>W. F. Harms<br>Bexhill,<br>East Sussex

## Dear Sir,

In your April 1984 issue you published an article called Bass for Beginners. May I point out that some of the published calcuated values, particularly that for parameter C, were not entirely correct. Another problem arose in the calculation of $R$ since, for the lower values $f_{n}$ the terms under the square root function give a negative value and hence it follows that the absolute value must be taken before the square root is taken.

Yours sincerely,
Joel Morgan
Edinburgh
Barry Porter writes: Thanks for the opportunity to reply to the two letters - here goes . . . With regard to the point raised by W.F. Harms, as a general rule, any system that has a non-linear frequency response also suffers from phase shift. In simple terms, any network that is intended to correct the response inaccuracies will also counteract the phase shift. This appears to hold good for drive units, certainly to the limits of any measurements I have been able to make, so the acoustic output of the B200 does not contain any significant phase shift due to the equalisation network. What is present, and easily measurable, is phase shift caused by the natural HF rolloff of the bass unit, and by the LF roll-off and nearby resonance of the HF unit. Correction for these inaccuracies is possible, but quite difficult, and as no detectable improvement has been found, the extra complexity is not really justfied.

Mr Morgan raises a couple of points - he says that there is an inaccuracy for the ' $C$ ' value but fails to say what it is! There have been several sets of formulae for speaker response calculations in use for several years - they all differ slightly, yet the results are likely)
to be more accurate at low fre-
quencies than any anechoic or free-field measurement, so there is no absolute way of showing who is right. The formulae given in the article will allow calculated response curves that are accurate to about 1 dB to be plotted, which is a lot better than I can measure at frequencies below 100 Hz . Mr Morgan is correct with his second point the bottom term should be bracketed.

Dear Sir,
As a sail plane, as opposed to hang glider, pilot I am very interested in your Vertical Speed Indicator design (variometer is a much neater name), and I shall be building at least one when time permits, but could the designer be prevailed upon to add a refinement known as Total Energy Compensation considered to be essential by sailplane pilots?

For non-gliding types, let me explain that to increase speed a sailplane (or hang glider) pilot has to lower the nose of the aircraft and dive; conversely, raising the nose slows the aircraft as it climbs. A variometer, being a very sensitive device, responds to very small control inputs even when the pilot thinks he is flying at constant speed. These climbs and descents involve only an interchange of potential and kinetic energy and any loss of height can be regained, within the constraints of the second law of thermodynamics, by reducing speed. The total energy of the glider remains essentially constant. The pilot therefore does not want these height changes to be indicated on his variometer, they confuse the important information whcih is the direction and speed of height variation caused by the air through which the glider is flying.

A total energy compensation system cancels out the unwanted signal, commonly by changing the volume of the capacity bottle in a flow measuring system by means of a diaphragm deflected by varying pilot pressure when speed changes occur. The pressure sensing system of the ETI design seems admirably suited to electronic compensation by means of a second pressure transducer in the pilot tube to provide an offset signal.

The design has caused considerable interest among sailplane pilots and a practical modification would be well received. Can you fix it?

A final word. I am not sure about open frame-work hang gliders, but if the variometer is to be fitted to a closed cockpit sailplane, the pressure sensor should be plumbed into the static vent pipework to prevent response to small pressure changes in the cockpit.

Yours faithfully,
Terence Jenvey,
Knole,
Somerset
Your points have been noted and passed to the author, who was last seen heading for his workshop: whether this was to get down to some serious prototyping or simply to hide from us, we do not know...

Dear Sir,
I have just finished filing the contents of ETI January 1983 to April 1984 inclusive and thought that you might be interested in the following observations.

It would greatly assist filing if the project/feature pages could be arranged so that they are i) totally separate, ie, not back-to-back with other articles and ii) not back-toback with advert pages.

An analysis of projects over the above period breaks down as:-

## Computing

Music 5
Audio
9
Test
7
Miscellaneous 19 (including everything not in the previous four categories).

Whilst I am fully aware that this is the age of the computer, there are magazines dedicated to this subject and I, for one, would welcome more high quality audio projects. I was particularly impressed with John Linsley Hood's Audio Design Series and would welcome more of the same.

Finally, a suggestion for a future feature article - how about an article on the design of PCBs, laying down the ground rules for component placement and input/ output runs to minimise pickup, unwanted feedback, etc, etc?

I hope that you find the above of some interest; keep up the good work with one of the best electronics magazines around.

Yours faithfully,
A. G. Crane

Kings Lynn,
Norfolk
We are not sure that counting the number of projects is the best way
of indicating what emphasis we are placing on particular fields. For instance, some of the longest projects we have published have been audio ones - for example, Barry Porter's Modular Preamplifier, and John Linsley Hood's 'Audio Design' amplifier (which may have to run to four parts rather than the three originally planned, due to the amount of material). Perhaps if the number of pages were counted, a quite different apparent balance would be arrived at.

That said, there is undoubtedly a very strong interest in using computers amongst our readers, and this shows in the numbers of contributions we get on the different subject areas. Whenever we are offered a project of sufficient merit, we do our best to use it, whatever its field.

Finally, the laying out of ETI pages is difficult enough as it is without trying to impose extra restrictions on us! Let it suffice to say that we do our best to produce a magazine that is, visually, easy to follow and attractive.

## Dear Sir,

Thanks for a great mag; my only complaint is where are the followup articles/projects for the Cortex 16-bit computer? Your last article entitled "Cortex BASIC Part 1" (Feb. 1983) - what about part 2? And while I'm at it, how about a few circuits to add-on. A parallel in/out would do nicely for starters!

Yours faithfully
A Gibson
Edinburgh
It's been a long time coming, but the follow up on the Cortex does seem to be arriving! Firstly, we dropped the article on Cortex BASIC after the first part because we found that Powertran were sending out a manual to kit purchasers with exactly the same information as we were intending to print. Perhaps we could have explained our decision better at the time, though.

Hardware follow-ups depend on you, the readers. We are just completing one hardware add-on (the Centronics interface, the second part of which was delayed so that we could sort out a few problems with the PCB), and others are in the offing. However, what we print depends on what we get sent by you lot out there, so if you've built something for your Cortex, and you think it would be up to our standard, let us know about it!

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# SIMPLE CMOS <br> <br> TESTER 

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## Here's a natty project to test the simpler CMOS ICs in up to 16-pin packages. Design and development by Peter Dooley.

When fault-finding on equipment which uses CMOS devices, it is not always easy to isolate the fault to one IC. One method of elimination is to substitute the suspect device with a new one, but this has the disadvantage of possible damage or destruction of the replacement part, should the fault be elsewhere. A more positive method would be to have some device for testing a suspect IC. The unit to be described will test most CMOS ICs (up to 16 pins), and can also be used for evaluation of unfamiliar devices.

## Construction And Testing

Fit and solder all links, followed by test pins, IC sockets, resistors, capacitors, diodes (except D2),

PARTS LIST


LEDs, DIL switches and the power socket. This last item is mounted on the foil side of the PCB, and is held in position by two screws. Note carefully the orientation of the DIL switches, this is such that they are closed when the sliders on them are towards the test socket.

D2 is soldered between the + ve terminal on the power socket and the appropriate track on the PCB ; the 0 V connection should be made using a short length of wire. Two flying leads are required, and for this we suggest using the specially flexible wire that you can sometimes get for test leads, otherwise you'll have to replace
these fairly regularly. Note that the sockets on the flying leads should match the test pins.

Six stand-off pillars are used to support the PCB, two of them being mounted close to the test socket to add strength where it's needed.

After checking the PCB and wiring for obvious faults, insert the three ICs. With the power still off and both flying leads disconnected, all switch positions on SW1-16 should be set to off. Apply power and observe LED1 7 flashing Adjusting RV1 should alter the speed. Apply the pulse probe to each of the 16 test points in turn and check that the corresponding


Fig. 1 Overlay diagram of PCB.

## HOW IT WORKS

IC1, 2, 3 are 4049 CMOS hex inverting buffers, one buffer being connected to each pin of a 16-pin test socket. An LED monitors the output of each buffer. With all poles in DIL switches SW1-16 open, the pins and test points on the test socket are held low by resistors R1-16 and the LEDs, which are displayed in DIL formation, are off. If one or more switches are closed, applying the positive supply to the IC pins, or an output on the test IC goes high level, then the corresponding LED lights to indicate a high level. The 0 V connection to the test IC is made using a flying lead which is connected directly to 0 V .

IC3e and f together with C1, form a variable speed oscillator, with a frequency of approximately 1 Hz to 20 Hz . The output can be connected to any of the test points TP1-16, using a flying lead. Diode D1 is used to protect the oscillator components, should the output be inadvertently connected to a high level point. The output is monitored by LED 17, which can be seen flashing at low speeds. The 9 volt DC supply can be obtained from a standard mains adaptor, or a 9 V battery could be used. Diode D2 serves as a reverse polarity protector.

LED flashes. Operate SW1-16 in turn and check that the corresponding LEDs come on, and remain on until the switches are turned off. This concludes the test procedure.

## In Use

Ensure that power is off before inserting the IC to be tested. Connect the 0 V lead to the test point corresponding to the 0 V pin on the IC and select the $+V$ on the appropriate switch of SW1-16. Apply power and observe the output status of the IC on the display.

Select the input using the appropriate sections of SW1-16; care must be taken not to apply a high to any of the outputs of the IC, which will damage the IC under test, or to apply a high tơ the $0 V$ power connection, which will risk damaging the PSU and D2. It should now be possible to work your way through the truth table of the IC under test, checking to see if all sections work.


Fig. 2 Circuit Diagram of the CMOS tester.

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## OOPS!

Corrections to projects are listed below and normally appear for several months. Large corrections are published just once, after which a note will be inserted to say that a correction exists and that copies can be obtained by sending in an SAE.

Programmable Speech Board - Mini Mynah (February 1984)
The PCB for this project is double sided but only the underside pattern appears on the overlay drawing on page 26 and on the Foil Patterns page. The component side pattern appears on the PCB Foil Patterns page in the March' 84 issue. The error does not affect PCBs supplied by our PCB service. There are also a number of errors in the circuit diagram on page 22. Pin 10 on IC11 should be connected to 0 V along with pins 1 and 11 , not pin 12 as shown; pin 12 should be left unconnected. On the sameIC, pin 25 rather than pin 23 should be connected to pin 2 and R12/C4: pin 23 is Vcc and should be connected to the +5 V supply. R 5 has been missed off of the circuit diagram; it should be shown connecting IC4a pin 8 and IC5 pin 21 to the +5 V supply. In each of the above cases the PCB and the overlay diagram are correct.

Adding Colour to the Ace (April 1984
We renumbered the components in this article to make things easier for you (!) and ended up with utter confusion. In the third paragraph of the construction section on page 43, IC4 should readIC14. In the first column of the How It Works section on page 44 , lines 3-4 should read"... via tri-state buffer IC9...". In the third column of the same section, the capacitor in the differentiatornetwork (lines 13-14) is 6 , not $C 9$ and the line sync pulse mentioned at the start of the next paragraph is applied via IC1e, not R1d. In the first column of How it Works on page 45, C6/R15/R10 on line 9 should read C6/R9/R10, and the list of resistors given three lines further down should start with R29 not R21. In the second column on page 45 , the colour modulator is IC14 not IC13 and the second phase shift network mentioned a few lines further down should be C16/R32, not C16/R17. On the circuit diagram on page 44, there are two C 7 s , the lowerone of which should be $C 8$ and have a value of $4 n 7$, not $47 n$ as stated in the parts list; C 9 is listed as being 100 n both on the circuit diagram and in the parts list but should actually be 1 n . In the other half of the circuit diagram on page $45, \mathrm{C} 17$ should be 33 p not 10 p and again the parts list is also wrong, and pin 16 of IC14 should be shown connected to pins 15 and 12 , not to the +5 V supply; the PCB overlay is correct. In the timing diagram at top left on page 45 , read IC1 for IC13 IC5 for IC12, IC10 for IC.9, IC11 for IC5, R14/C12 for R29/C19, and C9/R11 for C5/R6. In the timing diagram at top right on page 45 , read IC5 for IC12 throughout, and in the regenerate clock signal diagram below it, read IC6b for IC2 a, IC11 for IC5 and IC6c for IC2d. The same three ICs are mentioned inthe delaytiming diagram on the same page and should be similarly amended. In the setting up section on page 46 , read RV1 for RV2 and vice versa; and in the software section read fo for $£ 0$.

## Midi Drum Synth (May 1984)

Two small links on the PCB went missing: between RV5 (1) and upper (on PCB) RV4 connection, and between RV1-3 +VE and LED2 CATHODF take-off points. Also, the circuit diagram shows R13 going to $-V E$; it should go to earth (the PCB is OK ).

Spectrum Joystick Interface (June 1984)
The PCB and the circuit diagram do not agree; the circuit diagram is correct, and all PCBs sent out by the PCB service should have been amended. IC3 is 74LS241, as correctly stated in the parts list but incorrectly given in the footnote to the circuit diagram.

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## ADVERTISERS' INDEX

Armon. ..... 28
Audio Electronics ..... 22
BK Electronics ..... 38
Black Star ..... 25
BNR \& ES ..... 57
Boldfield ..... 21
Bridage ..... 28
Concept Electronics ..... 63
Cricklewood Electronics ..... 12
Crimson Electric ..... 53
Digisound ..... 14
Electrovalue ..... 58
GSC ..... 29
Greeenbank ..... 41
House of Instruments ..... 60
Happy Memories ..... 57
ICS ..... 58
Len's Electronics. ..... 41
Litesold ..... 58
Maplin ..... OBC
Marco Trading ..... 53
Merseyside Acoustic Developments ..... 38
MJL. ..... 45
Micro Processor Engineering ..... 53
Northamber. ..... 14
Newrad Instrument Cases ..... 38
Powertran ..... IFC,22,IBC
Rapid Electronics ..... 8
RVM Audiotronics ..... 74
Ship Co ..... 41
SME ..... 63
Skywave Software ..... 14
Sparkrite ..... 45
Stewart of Reading .....  63
Technomatic ..... 16,17
Thurlby ..... 25
Thandar ..... 25
TK Electronics ..... 45
Watford Electronics ..... 4,5
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