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Build our solid-state barometer with LED display and predict the weather yourself.

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Now there's a new breed of Beckman Industrial Corporation handheld DMMs tough enough to withstand accidental drops, input overloads and destructive environments.

The new HD100 and HD110 DMMs are drop-proof, packed with overload protection and sealed against contamination. You won't find a more rugged meter than our HDs.

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Constructed of double-thick thermoplastics, the HD100 series DMMs resist damage even after repeated falls. All components are heavy-duty and shock mounted.

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The HD series meters are designed to keep working even around dirt, heavy grime, water and oil. The special o-ring seals, ultrasonically-welded display window and sealed input jacks protect the internal electronics of the HD meters. The oops-proof meters are sealed so tightly, they even float in water.

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All DC voltage inputs are protected up to 1500 Vdc or 1000 Vrms. Current ranges are protected to 2A/600V with resistance ranges protected to 800 Vdc. Transient protection extends up to 6KV for 10 microseconds.

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For starters you can get 2000 hours of continuous use from a common 9V transistor battery. You can run in-circuit diode tests and check continuity. You even get a one year warranty.

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Some day Mark will be working on bigger projects. But right now, he's learning. Fortunately, the new ACE 109 solderless breadboard from A P PRODUCTS, just made learning a lot more affordable.

The ACE 109 is the newest, lowest priced All Circuit Evaluator in the A P PRODUCTS line. It has a universal matrix of 840 solderless plug-in tie-points. And is ideal for designing, testing and modifying small circuits. ACE 109 has three, standard 5-way binding posts for easy access to power sources.

With an ACE 109, there's no wiring, soldering or desoldering. Just plug in your components and interconnect them with ordinary solid hook-up wire. If you want to make a circuit change, just unplug the components involved and start over. It's just that easy.

Every ACE breadboard makes circuitry easy, fast, flexible. Now A P PRODUCTS has made it even more affordable. The ACE 109 is priced under $20.

Look for the complete line of ACE breadboards and other A P PRODUCTS at your favorite electronics distributor. For the name of the A P PRODUCTS distributor nearest you, call Toll-Free: (800) 321-9688.

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Make the A P connection.
ON THE COVER
Satellite TV offers a lot of attractions, what with its promise of nearly unlimited viewer selection of TV programming. But is it for you? This month, Radio-Electronics turns its attention to satellite-TV, with a special section devoted, among other things, to home reception of satellite signals. It all begins on page 45.

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On Sale June 21

- Energy Mizer. This useful project will help you get the most out of your air conditioning system.
- Interfacing the ZX81. Put your Timex/Sinclair computer to work with this practical interface.
- A Unique Ammeter. Here’s a DC clamp-on ammeter you can build.
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COMPATIBLE
HDTV

A compatible high-definition widescreen TV system has been proposed by North American Philips and Philips of the Netherlands. In the American version, a standard 525-line picture would be received on the basic TV channel, while a second channel would be used to supply the extra scanning lines required for the higher-definition picture, as well as the additional information for the two ends of the expanded screen, whose proportion would be 1.78 to 1. Philips says its research has shown that 687 lines, non-interlaced, at 60 fields, or 120 frames per-second, would be the optimum for HDTV.

Philips has developed a solid-state CCD frame-store that it says could be produced economically, and has demonstrated what it calls HDTV (High Quality TV), which could be developed in the TV set from a standard 525-line picture. The receiver would convert the 30-frame interlaced picture to a 60-frame non-interlaced one, using special line-averaging techniques in areas where motion is displayed. That gives the impression of virtually doubled vertical resolution, completely eliminating the picture's line structure, as well as line crawl, line flicker and cross-color. Philips says its HQTV system will be used in its TV receivers "sooner rather than later," although HDTV probably will have to wait for some form of standardization. HDTV probably will see its first use via DBS or cable TV, where spectrum isn't a major consideration.

Some aspects of Philips' frame-store system could show up quite soon in TV sets—perhaps within two years. Using a partial frame store, it's expected to add a picture-in-picture feature to some sets, superimposing a second color picture in the corner of the screen. Philips also likes the idea of what it calls "MPIC" (for Multiple Picture-in-Picture), providing up to nine pictures on a single screen to let the viewer see at a glance what programs are available at any time. Philips says the 9-picture display could be accomplished with only two tuners in the set by a scanning technique, but with lower resolution than normal full-screen pictures. The full-frame store, when available, will also provide still-framing of TV pictures and digital noise elimination.

MULTICHANNEL
TV SOUND

All indications are that the FCC will soon permit the broadcasting of supplementary multiplexed sound channels along with the TV picture. The two major benefits of that authorization will be the availability of stereophonic sound and a separate audio channel that can be used for bilingual translations, program commentary on a different educational level, or even descriptions of the on-screen action for the blind.

A four-year, industry-wide engineering study under the control and influence of the EIA tested three proposed multichannel TV-sound (MTS) systems and three competing (or noise-reduction) systems and chose an FM-AM system developed by Zenith, along with the dbx companding system, to recommend to the FCC. Also tested were transmission systems proposed by the EIA, Japan, and by Telesonics Corporation, as well as companding systems by Dolby Labs and CBS (the CX system, used for noise reduction on videodiscs). The winning Zenith system is similar to the current broadcast FM-stereo system, but the addition of companding will avoid the reduction in coverage area for stereo sound, which occurs in FM broadcasts, as well as reducing unwanted noise.

In proposing MTS, the Commission indicated that it intended to adopt the "marketplace approach"—permitting transmission in any and all technically sound systems—as it did in AM stereo more than two years ago. Fearing a repetition of the problem of AM stereo, which still has relatively little broadcasting and almost no audience, the EIA made specific recommendations that it hopes will serve as a de facto standard should the FCC stick to its marketplace policy for TV sound.

TV-set manufacturers are already looking for stereo versions. Some recently introduced sets incorporate plugs for stereo decoders. It's expected that high-end sets will include both stereo and A-B switching, the latter for the so-called "separate audio program" (bilingual, etc.), which can be broadcast simultaneously with stereo. Some medium-priced sets designed for regions with large foreign-speaking populations may have the A-B switch without the stereo feature. The inauguration of MTS is also expected to result in the availability of component hi-fi tuners that include the "TV-stereo" band, as well as stand-alone "converters" that are basically stereo radios incorporating TV audio.
Tek's best-selling
60 MHz scopes: Now 25 ways better for not a penny more!

Now Tek has improved its 2213/2215 scopes with brighter displays. Greater accuracy. And more sensitive triggering. At no increase in price.

The 60 MHz 2213 and dual time base 2215 have been the most popular scopes in Tektronix history. Now, Tek introduces an "A" Series update with more than 25 specification and feature enhancements — things you have asked for such as single sweep—all included at no added cost.

A brighter display and new vertical amplifier design provides sharp, crisp traces. That makes the 2213A/2215A a prime candidate for tasks like TV troubleshooting and testing, where fast sweeps are typical.

New features include 10 MHz bandwidth limit switch, separate A/B dual intensity controls (2215A only), and power-on light: additions customers have suggested for giving these scopes the final measure of convenience.

Triggering, sweep accuracy, CMRR and many more major specifications are better than ever. Check the performance chart. Not bad for scopes already considered the leaders in their class!

The price: still $1200* for the 2213A, $1450* for the 2215A. Or, step up to the 100 MHz 2235 for just $1650*!

You can order, obtain literature, or get expert technical advice, through Tek's National Marketing Center. Direct orders include operator manuals, two 10X probes, 15-day return policy, worldwide service backed up and comprehensive 3-year warranty.

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All scopes are UL listed and CSA approved. 3 Year warranty includes CRT and a check to 2000 family oscilloscopes purchased after 1/1/83

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Radio anechoic chamber tests 1990 antennas

A unique new facility at the National Aeronautics and Space Administration's Lewis Research Center is designed to test the sophisticated antennas envisioned for the communications satellites of the 1990s. It is intended to measure the electric fields very close to the antenna—the so-called near field.

That testing is part of a broad Lewis effort to design, build, launch, and conduct experiments with an advanced communications satellite operating in the higher 3/4 gigahertz range during this decade. Such a satellite will require a larger, more complex antenna than present types. But conventional far-field testing for such antennas requires a separation of many miles between transmitter and antenna, making measurements difficult, costly and impractical.

In the near-field environment, very precise measurements can be made of the beam pattern close to the antenna, even just a few feet away. From those measurements, far-field patterns—such as would be produced on earth by an antenna thousands of miles away in space—can be determined accurately.

The new near-field facility at Lewis is enclosed by walls 40 feet wide, 40 feet high, covered by thousands of small pyramids of specially coated foam material, which absorb stray microwave reflections much as reflected sound is absorbed by the similar-looking acoustic anechoic chambers.

A probe or scanner measures the antenna field as it moves up and down on a 22-foot tower mounted on a carriage that moves across the chamber on rails, acquiring data over a surface area 22 feet wide. Laser beams check the precise alignment of the moving systems. The probe can be moved to within a few thousandths of an inch over the entire 22 x 22-foot scan area, making it possible to make measurements on antennas up to 60 gigahertz.

Antennas on present satellites have very wide beams, covering an area the size of the United States with two or three single beams. The technology Lewis is working on is to design antennas that will have a great many non-interfering beams. That will greatly increase traffic-carrying capacity per satellite—the more beams there are, the more channels of different information that can be transmitted simultaneously.

Blind reading service is going national

In Touch, a New York closed-circuit network that provides a free reading service to the "print-handicapped," announces plans to extend its services to the whole country. Satellite Syndicated Systems, Inc., of Tulsa, Ok., is donating its Transponder 3 on Satcom IV for distribution of the free reading service to all parts of the United States. It will be available without charge to all cable systems and FM stations that wish to take advantage of it.

In Touch broadcasts 24 hours a day on weekdays and 14 hours a day on weekends. The service is provided by more than 300 volunteers, who read from seven selected newspapers and a wide variety of magazines. Part of the material is first read on tape (for the overnight and some of the weekend broadcasts). Not only do the visually handicapped find this service valuable, but also quadriplegics and victims of strokes or cerebral palsy who are not able to hold or turn the pages of printed material.

The effort is supported entirely by voluntary contributions, not only to purchase supplies and support the full-time staff of five—all of whom are visually handicapped—but to supply free receivers to those who may need them.

In Touch is located at 322 West 48 St., New York, NY 10036. The phone number is 212-386-5588.

RCA Americom to launch three more satellites

RCA American Communications, Inc., has filed with the FCC a plan to launch and operate three new hybrid communications satellites, or, at the company's option, three co-located C-band and Ku-band spacecraft, in the 1993-1995 time frame.

The Ku-band portion of the new service would be provided by sixteen 50-watt transponders on each spacecraft. The C-band portion would be provided by twenty-four 10-watt solid-state power amplifiers.

The company has requested orbital slots of 61, 63, and 65 degrees in the orbital arc. Spacecraft in those slots can provide service to the contiguous 48 states plus the Caribbean basin, specifically Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands.

Competing mobile groups agree in Minneapolis-St. Paul

MCI/Cellcom, Metro Mobile CTS, and Cellular Mobile Systems of Minnesota have combined their cellular applications in the Minneapolis-St. Paul area. The partnership includes all the applicants for the non-telephone company cellular franchise in Minneapolis-St. Paul. The group expects to receive a construction permit by the end of the year.

Under the agreement, MCI/Cellcom will take an 83 percent interest in the partnership. Metro Mobile will take 10 percent, and Cellular Mobile Systems 7 percent. If granted a construction permit, continued on page 8
The Digital vs. Analog battle is over.

$85 buys you the new champion.

The new Fluke 70 Series.

They combine digital and analog displays for an unbeatable two-punch combination.

Now, digital users get the extra resolution of a 3200-count LCD display.

While analog users get an analog bar graph for quick visual checks of continuity, peaking, nulling, and trends.

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All in one meter.

Choose from three new models. The Fluke 73, the ultimate in simplicity. The feature-packed Fluke 75. Or the deluxe Fluke 77, with its own multipurpose protective holster and unique "Touch Hold" function (patent pending) that captures and holds readings, then beeps to alert you.

Each is Fluke-tough to take a beating, American-made, to boot. And priced to be, quite simply, a knockout.

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Analog/Digital Display

Volt, ohms, 20A, basic test

Autorange

0.0% basic dc accuracy

2000+ hour battery life

3-year warranty

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Autorange

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2000+ hour battery life

3-year warranty

**Fluke 77**

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Analog/Digital Display

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Autorange

0.0% basic dc accuracy

2000+ hour battery life

3-year warranty

* Suggested U.S. list price effective October 1, 1983.
WHAT'S NEWS

continued from page 6

by the FCC, the partnership expects that its 12-cell system could be built in nine months.

**Voice warning system for auto drivers**

A system that tells a driver in English when his oil is running low or his parking brake is on, and warns him of 12 other possible problems, is being marketed by Audio Systems, Inc. (114B Royce St, Los Gatos CA, 95030). The device can even be set up to report the fuel level at a desired time daily, or when the fuel drops to a given level.

The circuit-monitoring unit consists of a complete package from National Semiconductor Corp., and includes the company's MM54104 Speech Synthesizer, which produces a high-quality female voice.

The system can be fitted into cars already in use. A car owner can install it in his or her car's electrical system in about an hour, or have it installed by a garage that specializes in automotive electronics, says the president of Audio Systems.

The suggested price of the Voice Warning System is $184.95.

**Camcorder marks Kodak's entry into TV Imaging**

Kodak, longtime leader in the optical imaging field, is now entering the video-recording market with an 8-mm camera-recorder (camcorder) which combines in one unit a camera and a video tape recorder, and weighs only a little over five pounds. Kodak is also introducing a wide range of video tapes.

Two camcorders make up the Kodakvision 2000 series: the manual-focus 2200 and an auto-focus 2400, which also adds several other features, including pushbutton fade-in/out control and backlight control. Both use an f/1.2, 6:1 power-zoom lens and an electronic viewfinder. Picture quality is claimed to be extremely high, "at least equal in quality to that displayed from 4-inch systems." The 8-mm video cassettes are only slightly larger than audio tape cassettes.

An interesting feature of the new series is the playback equipment. The "cradle," which is connected to the user's TV, the camcorder is placed in it to play back the recording, with the camera's motor driving the tape, while its battery is being recharged by the cradle.

Tentative list prices are $1,699 for the camcorder 2200, $1,899 for the 2400, and $190 for the cradle.

**NEMA makes Tech Alert available to nonmembers**

Since June 1973, the National Electrical Manufacturers Association (NEMA) has been publishing for its members, Tech Alert, a bimonthly newsletter on trends and events in plant automation and high-tech systems. Now Tech Alert is available to nonmembers as well.

The newsletter presents in a concise and readable form, a summary of some of the leading-edge issues relating to the complex automation process.

It spotlights emerging or critical technologies, and tells where to go for more information. It tells what is happening within NEMA and its Automated Systems Program; and in other organizations, national and international, that are working on technology issues.

Tech Alert covers state-of-the-art topics and critical legislative and regulatory issues relating to technology, and provides a continuing glossary of "technical terms" to help nontechnical managers understand the jargon of high technology.

For those who would like a free subscription, write Tech Alert, NEMA, 2101 L Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20037.
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THAT EMPHASIZES OPERABILITY
$535*

The SS-5702 has flexibility and power which make it ideal for the maintenance and troubleshooting of TVs, VTRs, audio equipment and a wide range of other electronic systems by hobbyist as well as professionals. At the top of its class, the SS-5702 uses a 6-inch rectangular, parallax-free CRT.

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SS-5702
DC-20 MHz OSCilloscope

IWATSU makes more than 20 oscilloscopes as well as an impressive lineup of other instruments including logic analyzers and digital memory scopes. The fastest oscilloscope has a maximum frequency of 350 MHz. And the same technological expertise and product quality that make this super high-frequency oscilloscope possible are incorporated in the SS-5702.

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SCOPE

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All HITACHI Oscilloscopes feature 2 year parts & labor warranty.

HITACHI 30 MHz SCOPE $549.95

Price does not include probes. Probes $50. a pair when purchased with scope. $15. shipping within continental U.S.

SPECIFICATIONS

- Vertical Deflection Sensitivity
  - 5mV/div to 5V/div ±10%. 10 calibrated steps
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  - (When using ± amplifier)
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- Bandwidth
  - DC to 15MHz, ±30% for 6 div
  - DC to 3MHz, ±30% for 4 div
- Rise Time
  - Direct: 150μs or more
  - X axis: 150μs or more
- Input Impedance
  - TV sync - separation circuit
  - 1 div or more (TV sync-signal)
- Trigger Sensitivity
  - TV sync-signal
  - AUTO: 20Hz to 2MHz, 0.5μV, 200mV
  - 2 to 15MHz: 1μV, 800mV
- Sweep Time
  - 10ns to 5ms
  - 10μs to 5ms
  - 100μs to 5ms (200μs/div and 50μs/div, not calibrated)
- Power Requirements
  - 100V/208V/240V 50Hz, 60Hz, 50Hz: 400W, approx. 40W
- Dimensions
  - 36mm x 36mm

Price does not include probe. Probe $20. when purchased with oscilloscope.

Full 2 year parts & labor warranty.

WE CARRY A FULL LINE OF HITACHI OSCILLOSCOPES

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• Sine, square and triangle output  
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• Typical sine wave distortion under 0.5% from 1 Hz to 100kHz

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• 4 instruments in one package:  
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• Resolves to 0.1pF  
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70 MHz Dual Time Base SCOPE

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$69.95

Circuitmate DM 45—
3½-digit multimeter; 0.5% Vdc accuracy, diode test, continuity beeper, 10 amps AC and DC ranges, auto-zero, auto-polarity, auto-decimal

$89.95

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The DM 77 gives you the convenience of autoranging plus 10 amps ac/dc measurement capability. You simply select the function you want, and the DM 77 automatically sets the required range.

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WPIX-TV, the popular New York City television Channel 11, is becoming the newest satellite superstation, transmitted nationwide via a transponder on Westar 6. WPIX, with its full complement of New York-area sports events, movies, and other programming, will be beamed by United Video, the same satellite carrier that made WGN-TV, Chicago, into a superstation.

**ESPN MAY SCRAMBLE**

ESPN, the mostly sports network on Satcom 3R, may begin scrambling its satellite transmission by year's end. The company is in the preliminary stages of analyzing how, or if, it could begin encoding its signals; it would be the first ad-supported cable/satellite network to install such scrambling to prevent reception by unauthorized earth stations. ESPN claims that pick-ups by home and apartment earth stations diminishes the value of its programming to cable-TV operators who pay for the 24-hour channel. HBO is already well along on scrambling tests, and Showtime cable/pay TV network is considering a scrambling system.

**SKY-HIGH PREDICTIONS**

More than 550,000 backyard earth stations will be installed this year, twice the number set up during 1983, according to a forecast by KLM Electronics President Peter Dalton, an official of the home earth-station association, SPACE. If Dalton's prediction comes true, upwards of 875,000 dishes will be in place by the end of 1984, including units at apartments, schools, and office buildings, as well as home satellite receivers. The price is now averaging about $2,500 apiece. (That's down from last year's $3,000 average.)

**PLAYING MUSICAL ORBIT SLOTS**

The FCC has shifted several orbit assignments for domestic satellites in an effort to head off interference problems of C-band and Ku-band birds. Westar 5 (the C-band bird which malfunctioned after launching from the February Shuttle) still has rights to 91° west longitude; Westar 3, which had been in that slot, shifts to 61°, and Westar 2 continues operating from current 76.5°. SBS 4, a digital-data satellite, will operate in the same slot in Ku-band. AT&T's Comstar D3 will move from 88.5° to 66°, and GTE Spacenet satellite—due to launch this summer—will go into the 69° slot.

**DBS DRIVES**

United Satellite Communications Inc. has accelerated its direct-broadcasting satellite activities, introducing a five-channel service in Washington, Cincinnati, Richmond, and Harrisonburg (VA) so far this year. (Its first site was Indianapolis in late 1983.) USCI expects that by the end of the year 200,000 homes will have signed up to use the pay-TV service, which comes in via Canada's Anik II bird. Subscribers pay $300 for installation then $40 per month for service and equipment rental. Customers are also allowed to purchase receivers for $700 then pay only $25 per month. USCI plans to expand in 1985 to a higher-powered Ku-band bird allowing coverage of all U.S. homes.

Meanwhile, Satellite Television Co., the Comsat DBS subsidiary, is firming up plans for its late-84 launch. Toshiba and ANCOM (a venture of Alcoa and NEC) have developed the equipment package, which costs about $350 to $450 per home. STC plans to charge about $15 to $20 per month for its 3-channel service.

**OLYMPIC TELETEXT**

Olympic visitors in Los Angeles this summer will be able to use teletext on KTTV Channel 11, a Metromedia station, to look up late results from the Games, find out about road conditions to the scattered events, and even get tips about other area activities. Two hundred teletext receivers, made by Zenith and Sanyo, will be placed in hotel lobbies, travel centers, and other public sites around L.A. The project is part of a test by Metromedia and other supporters of the World System Teletext format (which is incompatible with the technology that CBS and NBC are using).

Sanyo's plunge into teletext carries increased significance, because it will build an integrated set with decoder; the company has also been actively involved in related teletext services, notably as sole maker of TeleCaptioning decoders used for closed-captioning of TV shows.
LETTERS

Address your comments to: Letters, Radio-Electronics, 200 Park Avenue South, New York, NY 10003

DIGITAL PANEL METERS

I have been following the articles on digital panel meters with interest. In the March, 1984 issue, I was particularly interested in the precision thermometers, since I am in the process of building several for automatic controls in my hybrid solar house. I am using both the LM3911 and LM335 sensors. Even though the latter is called a precision temperature sensor, it really doesn’t do any better than that claimed for the one in Ray Marston’s article, “How to Use Digital Panel Meters.”

There is one flaw in the calibration procedure that I would like to point out, however. It is a shame to build such a potentially accurate thermometer and then calibrate it erroneously. Water does not boil at 100 degrees C. except at 760 mm of mercury atmospheric pressure. The boiling point drops about 1 degree for each thousand feet of elevation; in Denver, for example, climatic conditions will cause the boiling point to vary about ½ degree above and below the average for the particular altitude.

If the thermometer is calibrated to read boiling at 100 degrees, and the altitude is appreciably higher than sea level, the thermometer will still be reasonably accurate in the lower quarter of its range. But if one wants the best accuracy, or is going to use it at higher than normal weather temperatures, I suggest that it would be better to adjust the boiling point downward at the rate of 1 degree-per-thousand feet of elevation. If higher accuracy is required, one should take into account both altitude and current barometric pressure. The details are beyond the bounds of this letter. Or one could better calibrate the thermometer immersed in a mixture of liquid and frozen chemical at known freezing point, exactly as with water for the 0 (zero)-degree calibration. Or what is even simpler yet, immerse it in a liquid held essentially at a steady temperature that is monitored with a good lab thermometer.

KENNETH E. STONE
Cherryvale, KS

continued on page 22
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THE COUNTDOWN CONTROVERSY

After reading Jack Darr's June 1983 article on countdown circuits and LD Smithley's letter concerning the same, I did some research to clear up the confusion in my mind and hope that the results of my research will help give other readers of Radio-Electronics a clearer view of how countdown circuits function.

As Mr. Smithley said, the ratio of 15,750 to 60 (or 262.5) is not directly compatible with those operations by using a master-clock VCO, which oscillates at 31,468 Hz. Its output is divided by 525 to obtain vertical pulses and by 2 to obtain horizontal pulses.

Mr. Smithley was right in stating that, "Perhaps the circuit is doing something that it is not telling him". Also, Jack Darr did a good job describing the operation, except for that one minor detail, which is understandable when you consider how difficult it can be to find all of the information on new circuits. I love your magazine and Jack's articles.

STEVEN JAY BABBERT
Worthington, OH

CORRECTION

I was extremely pleased to see my article, "Instrument Landing Systems," in the March 1984 issue of your magazine. I would like to point out one correction, however.

On page 52, fourth line from the bottom of the first column, the text reads: "feet in width at the outer marker or 3 feet in width at the landing threshold or 3 feet in width at the EBU has no plans whatsoever to launch a multinational satellite super-observation during 1984." That is because the EBU has no plans whatsoever to launch a multinational satellite system, only one of which involves the EBU. That is, the contract concluded between the EBU and Eutelsat for a ten-year lease of two transponders in the Eutelsat F-2 satellite. Those transponders will be used exclusively to enable certain of the point-to-point international television circuits, whose use is coordinated by the EBU, to be transmitted from the existing terrestrial facilities—which should occur during the second half of 1984.

Those circuits are used only for the exchange of programs and news items between the broadcasting stations and networks that are members of the EBU, known as Eurovi...
on a fine article, "Build this Powerline Transient Suppressor," in the September 1983 issue.

Something was apparently lost in the translation about European satellite activities. In using usually reliable information about satellite developments in Europe, the misinterpretation that Mr. Gressman suggests crept into the report. With so many countries planning satellite services—including several multinational projects—it's possible that EBU's role was improperly stated. Thank you for setting the record straight, and I look forward to hearing more from EBU about European satellite activities.—Gary Aron.

**ADDITIONS TO POWERLINE TRANSIENT SUPPRESSOR**

I'd like to congratulate Mr. Herb Friedman on a fine article, "Build this Powerline Transient Suppressor," in the September 1983 issue.

My two units (for two computers) are built inside a surplus Executive telephone desktop machine. I made two small additions: a) added MOV's from "hot" 115-volt AC to ground and from "neutral" to ground, to guard against transients; b) added a 4-amp fuse in series with the power-input line. My units have been up and running for 4 months without incident, and have worked beautifully under field conditions. Total cost $25.00. Keep up the good work.

WE1-LI Seattle, WA

**SCHEMATIC NEEDED**

On the fifth of October, 1982, I purchased an IBM Selectric-Redaction-I/O Printer/Typewriter from a company called Computer Products & Peripherals Unlimited (CPU), for my then new, VIC-20. Being very new to computers, I paid the $25.00 for the interface kit and an extra $120.00 for the "tested & operational" machine. Unfortunately, the machine was neither, and the kit consisted of one IC and some illegible photocopies.

The company did make partial repairs, but the machine still is not usable. I can not afford to throw away over $150.00, so I would like to contact anyone who has built the interface and is willing to help out with the schematic or layout. Please contact me for details and costs. Thank you.

EUGENE WITHROW
254 Harken Street
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OF ALL THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF ELECTRONICS test equipment available, the instrument that’s bought more than any other is the multimeter. The handheld digital multimeter seems to be the type favored by most buyers today. We recently had the opportunity to examine a good representative of that class of instruments—the model 3500 from Triplet Corporation (One Triplet Drive, Bluffton, Ohio 45817).

Although the 3500 is a autorange model, its measurement ranges can be selected manually. Let’s take a look at those ranges—it’s perhaps the best way to get an idea of what the 3500 can do. Its voltage ranges are: 0.2, 2, 20, 200, and 1000 volts DC and 2, 20, 200, and 600 volts AC. The meter also has an auto-ranging feature that automatically selects the range appropriate for the signal being measured.

The multimeter also features a true zero calibration, which is essential for accurate measurements. It also includes a built-in battery, which makes it convenient for field use. The meter has a large, easy-to-read display, making it simple to interpret the results.

The Triplet 3500 is a versatile tool that can handle a wide range of measurement tasks. Its reliability and ease of use make it a popular choice among hobbyists and professionals alike.
...the leads are shorted together. It can also be used in the voltage or current modes to make offset measurements (as long as the two least-significant digits are less than 19).

Three input jacks are centered at the bottom of the unit. The only time the leads have to be changed is when making current measurements in the 10-amp mode. All of the jacks are of the recessed safety type.

The accuracy specifications of the 3500 should suit the professional as well as the hobbyist. When measuring DC voltage, your measurements will be, at worst, accurate to within .75% of the reading ± 1 digit (when the meter is correctly calibrated). For AC voltage measurements, the worst-case specification is 1% of the reading, ± 3 digits (for signals between 40 and 500 Hz). In either resistance mode, you can expect your measurements to be accurate within 1.5% ± 1 digit. The accuracy of the 3500 drops when measuring current. 1.7% ± 1 digit DC, 1.7% ± 3 digits AC.

If you plan to make in-circuit measurements with your multimeter, there are some additional specifications that you should look at. One of those is the input impedance, which is at least 10 megohms on all voltage ranges. When making current measurements, the voltage drop across the instrument is, at worst, 2/10 volt. For in-circuit resistance measurements, the open-circuit voltage drop across the leads is important. That voltage is less than .4 volt in the low-power-ohms mode, and less than 1.5 volts in the high-power-ohms mode.

**User features**

The most "user-friendly" feature of the 3500 is its autorange capability. When making voltage or resistance measurements, there is no need to select a measurement range. However, you can, as we mentioned earlier, select ranges manually by depressing the RANGE SELECT button. When you do that, the AUTO annunciator will disappear from the display. As you step through the ranges, the decimal point on the display will change, as will the unit annunciator.

One advantage of using the manual range mode is that the meter's response time is improved for some measurements. For example, while the response time when making resistance or AC voltage measurements is 5 seconds (maximum) in the autorange mode, it is only 3 seconds (maximum) in the manual mode. The response time for DC voltage measurements is the same in either the auto or manual modes, about 3 seconds maximum. The maximum response time for current mea-
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- MANIPULATOR ARMS and end-effectors (hands) are what enable the robot to perform useful tasks. Details of construction techniques and considerations are fully explored.

Protection

No matter how careful you are, it’s all too easy to put excessive voltage across the meter probes. For example, the meter’s resistance mode will set off whenever there is a 1 to 100-volt difference between two points. This is why you should protect it against rough handling.

The 3500 requires 2 “AA” cells—you can expect 300 hours of operation from two alkaline batteries. A low-battery indicator appears in the display when there are less than about 50 hours of operating life remaining.

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<th>Triplett 3500</th>
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The instruction manual that’s supplied with the meter is adequate. It includes—along with a listing of specifications and instructions—a parts list, schematic, and a parts-placement diagram.

The 3500 has a suggested price of $140, which is about what you’d expect to pay for an instrument with similar specifications. It comes equipped with two test probes with screw-on alligator clips. Other accessories are also available, including a temperature probe, two high-voltage probes (6 kV and 30 kV), a 20-amp external shunt, and a variety of carrying cases. You’ll probably want to get one of the cases—the 3½ x 6 x 1½-inch unit is too large for a shirt pocket.

R-E

Beta Electronics Pro-Kit I

PC-Board Fabrication Kit

Using a stencil is the best way to make a group of printed-circuit boards that use the same circuit pattern.

CIRCLE 102 ON FREE INFORMATION CARD

MOST OF THE CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS presented in the pages of Radio Electronics require the use of a printed-circuit board. Even when it’s not mandatory, it’s
usually a good idea to use one—PC boards can reduce wiring errors and make troubleshooting easier. But if a prepared board isn’t available, what do you do?

One solution might be to make your own, using a PC-board fabrication kit such as Pro-Kit / from Beta Electronics (2081-A 3rd Street, Riverside, CA 92057). The kit is best suited for making more than one board at a time—once you’ve done one board, it’s not much more work to do twenty more. That makes Pro-Kit / well suited for club or school projects that require many boards of the same type. But because the results from Pro-Kit / are close to professional quality, you could even use it in business applications.

The process

Pro-Kit / uses a screening method (the same method that’s used professionally): you first make a stencil (photographically) of your PC-board layout and apply resist ink to a copper-clad board using the stencil—but it’s not as easy as all that, as you’ll see as we go through the process step by step.

Once you have your artwork completed, you’ll need a right-reading emulsion positive which is used to expose the stencil material in the contact printer that’s included with the kit. (The stencil material can be exposed in direct sunlight or under a sun lamp.) After exposing the stencil material, you have to develop it, rinse it, and then place it on the screen.

After blotting up the excess water with newspaper, block-out is applied around the stencil material. That, when dry, will prevent the resist ink from flowing through the screen. (It helps to save ink and keeps the work area cleaner.)

When everything is dry (about 2 hours later), you can pull off the stencil material—but all that is removed is the plastic sheet—the emulsion stays on the screen in the area where you want the copper removed (and prevents the resist ink from being applied to the copper). The combination of the block-out and emulsion on the screen makes up the stencil.

Now that the stencil is all prepared, you place your copper-clad board under the screen and then pour resist ink on the screen and “pull” it over the stencil.

When the resist dries, you can etch the board. All that’s left to do is to clean up.

The advantage of screening

You might wonder what the advantage of the Pro-Kit method is. After all, you could have gotten the same results, with fewer steps by using a photo-resist method. But what if you wanted to make another board? If you used a photo-resist method, you’d have to expose another board and worry about the exposure times, rinsing, etc. And if you wanted to expose five more boards, you’d have to do the same thing five times more. With Pro-Kit /, all you’d have to do is to place another copper-clad board under the screen and “pull” some more ink over it—you no longer have to worry about exposure times. Beta claims that, with practice (a lot of practice, as far as we could tell), you should be able to get enough speed to print 75 or more of the same images in one setup. (If you let the screen sit too long, the ink will dry on the screen. But even if that happens, and you still want to print the image more, you can use lacquer thinner to clean off the ink without disturbing the stencil.)

continued on page 40

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SCANNER, the Bearcat model CP 2100, is the first scanner radio designed as a peripheral for today’s personal computers. It is available in versions that are compatible with the IBM PC, Atari 800, Apple II and III, Osborne, and Commodore 64 personal computers. The model CP 2100 can monitor police and fire calls, emergency transmissions, Coast Guard rescues, aircraft communications, and amateur-radio transmissions in the 10, 6, 2 and 7 (70cm) meter bands. Each of its 200 channels can be programmed to display the source and location of a transmission, 10 codes, and phone numbers. Whenever a broadcast is monitored, the information pro-

OSCILLATOR, model 4400A, has a 3-digit frequency selector that eliminates any need for a frequency counter for most applications. It covers a frequency range from 10Hz to 100kHz.

CIRCLE 121 ON FREE INFORMATION CARD

CORDLESS PHONES, model FCT-246, model FCT-266, and model FCT-346 (shown in photo) all feature circuitry that provides se-
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Circuitry against unauthorized use, and eliminates interference and false ringing. The three models also feature selectable guard-tone frequencies and a handset that operates at the maximum range allowed by the Federal Communications Commission: up to 1,500 feet.

The model FCT-246 features a 3-position security switch, touch-button dialing, last-number redial, and paging from the base to the handset. It is priced at $129.95.

The model FCT-266 adds selectable pulse or tone dialing to provide access to long-distance networks, such as MCI, SPRINT, etc. It is priced at $149.95.

The model FCT-346 features continuous-monitor digital-security coding to guard against unauthorized use and false ringing, and a range selector for choosing normal or extended range. Pulse or tone dialing allows access to long-distance networks, and two-way intercom between the cordless handset, and a conventional handset plugged into the base. It is featured in the model — Fanon, 15500 San Fernando Mission Blvd., Mission Hills, CA 91345.

LCR BRIDGES, model 4225 (shown) and model 4210 are second-generation models claimed to be great improvements over earlier bridges.

The model 4225 is a portable microprocessor-controlled, AC-powered component bridge that can be operated with automatic or manual component display selection, and three operating frequencies. With a basic accuracy of 0.5%, a wide component-value range, it is capable of displaying D and Q values for reactive components. It uses a touch-sensitive keypad, is operated in four-terminal mode from a built-in test fixture, and is capable of single-shot or continuous measurements. The model 4225 comes with a suggested list price of $1,195.00.

The model 4210 offers accuracy of 0.1% and numerous options; it shares the features of the model 4225. The most important option is the complete systems capability through the RS-232 output and the IEEE-488 bus. Complete remote command and data transfer allows the instrument to play a key data-acquisition role in automated parts handling, component evaluation, and other applications requiring program control of high-accuracy bridges. The model 4210 is priced at $1,095.00.—Wayne Kerr, Inc., 400 West Cummings Park, Woburn, MA 01801.

CONTACT BURNISHERS, the P-4 and P-6 are pocket-pen type burnishers/cleaners for the communications, telephone, and electronics industries. They are designed for all types of contacts: silver, platinum, gold, palladium, tungsten, molybdenum, and all other precious-metal contacts. The burnishers are light, and the flexibility of the blades can be adjusted by varying its depth in chuck. The burnishers are non residual, leaving no grit or dust on the contact. Their insulated caps permit working on "live" contacts. They have interchangeable blades made of stainless steel, with an abrasive coating of aluminum oxide that leaves minimum contact wear.

The burnishers are 5/8 inches long, 1/4 inch in diameter, and are available in two types. The P-4 pen has 12 blades, 3.16 inches wide, 1/4 inches long, and .007 inch thick for
microphones, model PZM-180, is a general-purpose microphone suitable for applications such as conferences, interviews, group discussions, home-video productions, broadcast news and sports, and music recordings. It uses the “Pressure Recording Process,” in which a miniature condenser-microphone capsule is arranged very close to a sound-reflecting plate or boundary. The capsule is mounted in the “pressure zone” just above the boundary—a region where sound coming directly from the sound source combines in-phase with sound reflected off the boundary. That eliminates phase interference between direct and reflected waves, resulting in cleaner reproduction.

An integral handle allows the microphone to be hand-held, stand-mounted, or simply laid on any hard surface.

The model PZM-180 can be phantom-powered or battery-powered; it requires no external power-supply interface, it is supplied with a battery for powering and a windscreen to reduce pickup of wind noise and breath “pops.” Self-contained electronics adapt the unit for phantom powering and connecting the microphone to a phantom-power supply disconnects the internal battery.

The suggested retail price of the model PZM-180 is $169.00.—Crown International. 1718 W. Mishawaka Road, Elkhart, IN 46517.

MULTIMETER, the B&K-Precision model 2804, is a 3-1/2-digit auto-ranging, handheld digital multimeter featuring 0.7% volt DC accuracy, diode test, audible-continuity check, and 10-amp current range.

DC voltage ranges are 200 mV, 2000 mV, 20 V, 200 V, and 1000 V. AC voltage ranges are 2000 mV, 20 V, 200 V, and 750 V. Input impedance is 10 megohms. Resistance ranges are 200 ohms, 2000 ohms, 20 K ohms, 200 K ohms, 2000 K ohms and 20 M ohms. DC and AC current ranges are 200 mA and 10A.

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How often have you followed the car in front of you and noticed that its turning signal was flashing without purpose. Perhaps you, too, have left your turning signal on by mistake. The clicking sound of the interrupter in many cars is almost inaudible: therefore, its difficult to know whether the signal cut-off has taken effect. At other times steering turns are so gradual that the cancellation switch fails to do its job. A brute-force solution to making the interrupter more noticeable is to connect a buzzer between the two terminals of the turn flasher relay (located under the dashboard). However, that may prove annoying to the occupants of the car—making the cure worse than the "disease."

A more practical way of dealing with the problem would be to provide a tone circuit with a reasonable delay so that the tone signal is activated only after the turn signal is left on for an excessively long time. That's the approach taken by the circuit described in here. If you've been having a problem with leaving your turning signal on, perhaps this circuit will interest you.

How it works

Figure 1 shows a circuit that can be used to tell the driver of a vehicle when his or her turning signal is left on for too long. The circuit consists of ICl, a 555 timer; transistor Q1, an MPS3702 PNP preamp/driver, PBI, a piezoelectric buzzer (such as Radio Shack's 273-065); along with an assortment of resistors, capacitors, and diodes. The 555 is connected in the monostable mode, requiring only a momentary negative pulse at pin 2 to trigger the timing cycle.

Power for the circuit is picked off the flasher relay and applied to ICl, pin 8, through diode D1. The negative pulse is provided by an initially discharged capacitor C2. After the initial triggering, the voltage across C2 rises as it becomes charged through R4, a 10,000-ohm resistor. That prevents subsequent interference with the delay function due to false triggering.

Capacitor C3 and resistor R1 determine the delay. With the component values shown, a delay of about one minute will be provided before the intermittent tweet sound generated by the circuit begins. If higher values are used for C3 and R1, a longer delay time will result. The light-emitting-diode, LED1, provides a voltage drop to assure complete transistor block- ing during the off periods of the flasher. Alternatively, two diodes in series can be used.

—Walter K. MacAdam

NEW IDEAS

This column is devoted to new ideas. Circuits, service applications, construction techniques, new parts, etc.

All published entries, upon publication, will earn $25. In addition, for U.S. residents only, Panavise will donate their model 333—the Rapid Assembly Circuit Board Holder, having a retail price of $39.95. It features an eight-position rotating adjustment, indexing at 45-degree increments, and six positive lock positions or the vertical plane, giving you a full inch height adjustment for comfortable working.

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Another advantage of the screening method is that it can be used for things other than applying resist ink to copper-clad boards. For example, you can use the appropriate ink to print component legends on PC boards, or the legends on the front panel of your next project, or use it to print the PC-board solder mask. And you can use it for non-electronics hobbies too. For example you can print posters or designs on fabric (but you’ll probably need a vacuum-frame contact printer for best results).

Of course, there are some disadvantages to this method as well. It can be very messy, and it takes quite a lot of practice to get consistently good results. That’s why our rating chart shows only a “fair” mark for “Ease of Use.” Of course there’s no easy way to make PC boards—until you get the hang of things. The Pro-Kit takes a bit longer to learn than other methods, but it can do more as well.

Another disadvantage to the kit is that

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SUDHIR K. GUPTA

Before weather satellites came into use, the barometer was perhaps the most useful instrument for providing information about future changes in the weather. Both mercury and aneroid barometers have long been used to measure the atmospheric pressure. But we're going to show you a new type of barometer—a barometer that uses a state-of-the-art solid-state pressure transducer and gives a digital readout of atmospheric pressure.

The barometer that we'll build can be thought of as being made up of four basic building blocks. As shown in Fig. 1, they include the pressure transducer, power supply, signal conditioner, and the measurement-and-display section. Let's look at each separately.

The pressure transducer

A transducer is a device which transforms one form of energy to a different form of energy. In this barometer, we'll be using a pressure transducer that converts barometric pressure into electrical signals. The transducer is made by SenSym (1255 Ramwood Ave., Sunnyvale, CA 94089) and is shown in Fig. 2. It is an absolute-pressure device. That is, it measures pressure relative to a vacuum. (Another pressure-transducer type is the gauge type, which measures pressure relative to ambient pressure.)

The transducer's sensing circuitry is deposited on a silicon chip that has a cavity etched out to form a diaphragm. On the top of the diaphragm (the "exposed" side) is the pressure-sensing circuitry. The other side of the diaphragm is a vacuum. Figure 3 shows the structure of the device along with the transducer's pinout and its schematic.

Changes in ambient pressure affect the deflection of the sensing diaphragm. The resistance of the piezoresistive elements changes as the pressure changes, and thus the output voltage changes. The voltage on pin 6 (V1) increases with an increase in pressure. The voltage on pin 5 (V2) decreases (or goes negative) with increasing pressure.

The signal-conditioner section is necessary to provide zero and offset corrections for the transducer output. The signal...
from the transducer (about 40 millivolts) is amplified to about 1 volt. That corresponds to a display of 100 kilopascals (abbreviated kPa). We’ll discuss that unit and others shortly.

We want the power-supply section to provide +5 volts DC for the signal-conditioning and measurement section as well as 6.9 volts DC for transducer excitation. Therefore, we can use an AC adapter that provides 8–11 volts DC. Such adapters are readily available from many sources, including Radio Shack. The adapter’s output is filtered and regulated by IC3, a 7805 5-volt regulator. A monolithic voltage converter, IC4 (an ICL7660 from Intersil) provides +5 volts DC. Finally, a Zener diode is used to provide 6.9 volts DC to the transducer.

The measurement-and-display section is based on a single-IC A/D converter from Intersil: their ICL7106. The author’s prototype used Intersil’s ICL7106 EV panel-meter evaluation kit for a display. It is capable of displaying 199.9 millivolts or 1999 volts full-scale. In our application, the full-scale reading is set to 1999 volts.

Circuit description

Conventionally, the pressure transducer is powered by a 10–15-volt DC power supply, and a 6.9-volt Zener diode is shunted across the supply terminals (pins 3 and 8). That provides an excitation voltage of 6.9 volts DC. Unfortunately, when that is done, there is a common-mode voltage of about 1.8 volt DC at the signal output terminals (pins 5 and 6). We do not want the small transducer output signal of 30–40 millivolts to ride on such a large common-mode signal.

To get around that problem, we can use a simple instrumentation amplifier with large common-mode rejection ratio (CMRR), or we can play a trick. That is, we can use a bipolar supply of ±5 volts DC instead of a 10–15 volt DC supply. As shown in Fig. 4, we can connect pin 3 directly to +5 volts DC and we can connect pin 8 through a dropping resistor to −5 volts DC. We can obtain the −5 volts from the ICL7660 that we discussed earlier: the power-supply schematic is shown in Fig. 5. The ICL7660, incidentally, is listed in this year’s Radio Shack catalog.) A precision Zener reference across pins 3 and 8 regulates the voltage to 6.9 volts DC. That technique reduces the common-mode voltage to a mere 100 millivolts. Now it is feasible to use a conventional op-amp (like the LM324) as a differential amplifier.

One quarter of that quad op-amp (IC1-a) is used as a differential amplifier. It amplifies the input signal by a factor of about 22. We use IC1-b, another section of the LM324 quad op-amp to introduce the offset that will be required to calibrate the barometer. The signal is further amplified by IC1-c to about 1 volt. That gives us a scaling factor of 10 millivolts per kilopascal.

Scaling the display

Barometric pressure is expressed in a variety of units, including pounds-per-square-inch (psi), bars, millibars, pascals, inches of mercury, atmospheres, torr, etc. Table 1 is a conversion chart to help you convert from one unit to another. To use that chart, look across the top for the unit you want to convert from, then look down the side for the unit you want to convert to. Multiply the units you have by the conversion factor indicated by the table, and your answer will be in the units you want.

Because we are using a 3½-digit display, the maximum resolution is obtained when the pressure is displayed in kilopascals (millibar/10) or millibars. A barometric scale of 95 kilopascals (28 inches of mercury) to 105 kilopascals (31 inches of mercury) more than covers the useful barometric pressure range. You may think that using the unit of Pascal (a unit that you’ve probably never heard of) is not a good idea. However, that’s not necessarily so. The pascal is the standard unit for pressure or stress in the International System of Units (SI). ANSI (the American National Standards Institute) has adopted the pascal as its standard pressure unit. It is equal to one newton per square meter (N/m²). Weather reports often give barometric readings in millibars as well as in inches of mercury just as they give temperature readings in both Fahrenheit and Celsius. Conversion from kilopascals to millibars is simply a matter of multiplying by a factor of 10.

Construction

The project is built in two parts: the transducer/power-supply board, and the display board. A suggested layout for a printed-circuit transducer board is shown in Fig. 6. A parts-placement diagram is shown in Fig. 7. However, it’s not really necessary to use a PC board. It is just as well to use perforated construction board and point-to-point wiring. We do, however, recommend that you use IC sockets for all IC’s.

As we mentioned before, the display
section of the author's prototype is based upon an evaluation board from Intersil—their ICL7106 EV kit. That was used as a dedicated display. If you want to avoid the expense of that kit (about $55), you can use an ordinary digital voltmeter or even an analog meter with a full-scale range of 2 volts DC.

If you do use the Intersil evaluation board, follow the instructions that are supplied with it to set the full-scale display to 2,000 volts. Keep in mind that there is no need to use a battery to power the ICL7106 EV—the transducer/power-supply board generates ±5 volts that can be used for powering the display board. Connect +5 volts to the +v input on the evaluation board and −5 volts to the −v input. We should note here that the current drain from the ±5-volt supply should be limited to a few milliamps. Otherwise, degradation of ±5-volt supply will result. You should, however, have no problem powering the display.

As we mentioned before, the use of IC sockets is strongly recommended. The pressure transducer can be installed in an eight-pin socket. But don't install it—or any IC's—yet. First install all resistors, capacitors, potentiometers, and IC sockets. Check for solder bridges and clean all of the flux off the board. If you used point-to-point wiring, be especially careful of cold-solder joints. When you have double-checked your work, you can install all the IC's except the transducer.

Apply 8–11 volts DC to the transducer/power-supply board and check for ±5 volts DC at the output indicated in the parts-placement diagram of Fig. 7. Also check for 6.9 volts DC at the transducer socket. Bend the transducer pins, recheck the orientation, turn off the power, and install it in the socket. If you wish, you may install the transducer remotely and connect it to the transducer board through a four-wire shielded cable.

You can mount the unit in just about any cabinet, but you should keep the transducer outside the cabinet, or make

---

**TABLE 1—CONVERSION FACTORS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PSI</th>
<th>PASCAL</th>
<th>kPa</th>
<th>MILLIBAR</th>
<th>in. Hg</th>
<th>mm Hg</th>
<th>ATM</th>
<th>TORR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PSI</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.4504</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7506</td>
<td>1.0132</td>
<td>14.69</td>
<td>1013.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PASCAL</td>
<td>6.8946</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.1332</td>
<td>0.1013</td>
<td>0.7506</td>
<td>1.0132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kPa</td>
<td>6.8946</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.1013</td>
<td>0.7506</td>
<td>1.0132</td>
<td>0.1332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MILLIBAR</td>
<td>68946</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.013</td>
<td>14.69</td>
<td>1013.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in. Hg</td>
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<td>2.9520</td>
<td>0.2953</td>
<td>2.9520</td>
<td>0.7506</td>
<td>25.401</td>
<td>760.00</td>
<td>51.714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mm Hg</td>
<td>51.714</td>
<td>7.5006</td>
<td>0.7506</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>TORR</td>
<td>51.714</td>
<td>7.5006</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
sure that your cabinet is not-tight fitting. The best place to mount the unit is in an old aneroid barometer. Then you not only have an interesting conversation piece, but you can also use the old barometer’s pressure scale as a conversion scale.

Transducer calibration
A typical transducer requires a two-point calibration to correct for offset and gain over the entire operating range. In the case of this barometer, the actual operating range is limited to ±5% of the top of the scale (95 - 105 kPa). Therefore, a single-point calibration performed at the middle of the range (100 kPa) may be acceptable. So that we can please everyone, we’ll discuss both methods.

Before doing any calibration, switch the unit on and let it warm up for about an hour. Set potentiometer R9 to its middle position. Obtain the barometric pressure (using the local weather forecast or a barometer that you know to be accurate). Using Table 1, convert the barometer’s reading to kilopascals or millibars. (The closer the reading is to 100 kilopascals, the better.) All that is to be done for single-point calibration is to adjust potentiometer R9 until the meter displays the barometric pressure.

If you can, it is best to use two-point calibration. That’s because a typical transducer requires an offset correction as well as slope correction.

As a first step, perform the single-point calibration that we just discussed and leave the unit operating over a period of a few days. Try to obtain two readings: one at the low end of the scale (around 98 kPa) and the other at the high end of the scale (around 102 - 104 kPa). On both those days, note the actual barometric pressure as well as the corresponding meter readings. We’ll use a little mathematics to arrive at the calibration values. Following are some sample calibrations.

Let the old barometric pressure, \( P_1 = 98 \) kPa and the corresponding meter reading, \( M_1 = 972 \) mV.

Let the present barometric pressure, \( P_2 = 102.5 \) kPa and the present meter reading, \( M_2 = 1030 \) mV.

The change in barometric pressure is \( P_2 - P_1 = 102.5 - 98 \) kPa = 4.5 kPa

The change in the meter reading is of course, \( M_2 - M_1 = 1030 - 972 \) mV = 58 mV.

The generated slope is \( \Delta M / \Delta P \) or \((M_2 - M_1)/(P_2 - P_1) = 58/4.5 \) mV/kPa or 12.88 mV/kPa.

The slope that we require is 10 mV/kPa. Therefore, the change in the gain required is 10/12.88 = 0.776.

What we are going to do is to reduce the gain generated by the op-amp by a factor of 0.776. An example of how to do that follows.

Measure the voltage at the output of IC1-c. We’ll call it \( V_{oc} \). Presume that \( V_1 = 755 \) millivolts. Then the gain of IC1-c = \( M_1 / V_1 = 1030 / 755 \). The required gain, however, is 1030/755 \times 0.776 = 1.059.

So the required output at IC1-c is 1.059 \times \( V_1 = 1.059 \times 755 = 799 \) mV.

Adjust the gain potentiometer, R9, until the meter reads 799. Now adjust the offset potentiometer, R8 until the meter reads 1025 millivolts, corresponding to the present barometric pressure. That completes the calibration. Now you can substitute your own values in the calculations and perform the calibration on your digital barometer.
All About Satellite TV

The Dish
From Feedhorn To Receiver

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All About Satellite TV

In this article we’ll look at how satellite TV works, and answer many of the most popular questions concerning it.

The basic problem of television is not its production but its delivery. For instance, terrestrial broadcast TV has a lot going against it. It is most suitable when the transmitting and home TV-antennas can “see” each other, with no intervening objects between them. Unfortunately, there are a wide variety of intervening objects around to cause problems, including hills or mountains, and man-made structures such as buildings or bridges. Another source of problems is the curvature of the earth.

The way to avoid the problems caused by intervening objects and the earth’s curvature is to place the transmitting and/or receiving antennas high enough. In the early days of TV, there were suggestions about putting the transmitting antenna above a plane. Later on, receiving antennas were placed on a mountain top or other high location, with the received signals delivered to paying subscribers via cable. Known as CATV (Community Antenna Television) such a setup became the ancestor of cable TV.

There is a more practical way of getting a TV transmitting-antenna high enough and that’s by putting it on a satellite. Doing that offers a lot of advantages. For one thing, the curvature of the earth, a limiting factor in terrestrial transmissions, doesn’t affect satellite signals as much. Also, large buildings, bridges, mountains and hills can not come between satellite signals and their destination, so those causes of signal ghosts are eliminated.

Another factor to consider is that satellite television signals are transmitted at microwave frequencies ranging from 3.5–6 GHz (C-band) to 12–14 GHz (Ku-band). At those frequencies, signals are relatively immune to atmospherics, and are not bothered by sunspot activity. Thus, if good quality receiving equipment is used, you can expect television pictures produced by satellite transmissions to be of nearly studio-monitor quality.

In the rest of this article, we are going to attempt to answer some of the questions you may have had concerning satellite TV. We are going to look at some of the things you should consider when buying or setting up a receiving system, and also learn what some of the terminology often used when describing satellite TV means.

Earth stations and TVROs

Television programs are produced on earth, radiated to a satellite and are then retransmitted back to earth. Any two-way communications between the ground and the satellite must be handled by an earth station, a facility equipped for both transmission and reception. A receive-only arrangement, such as an in-home installation, is a TVRO, or Television Receive Only setup.

Geosynchronous orbits

For satellite TV to be practical, some way must be found to keep the satellite at the same position relative to the ground at all times. That is done by placing the satellite at a distance from the earth such that its orbital speed is zero in relation to the rotational speed of the earth. The distance for such an orbit is 22,279 statute miles (a statute mile is 5,280 feet). That distance is from the satellite to a spot on the equator directly below it. Satellites in such an orbit are geosynchronous (or geostationary), having an orbital speed synchronized with the daily rotational period of the earth (23 hours, 56 minutes, 4 seconds). See Fig. 1.

A geosynchronous orbit is a parking place for satellites, and, like parking places anywhere, is in limited supply. North American satellites are put in orbit above the earth’s equator, in what is called a geosynchronous orbit.
known as the equatorial plane. Between 79° west longitude and 143° west longitude. Right now there are 16 U.S. and Canadian satellites in orbit, the FCC has authorized 20 more U.S. satellites by 1986. See Fig. 2.

Identifying Satellites

Satellites can be identified in many ways: by designation, by name, by position, or by any combination of those. Satellite names and designations are usually followed by a number or letter to indicate which member of the satellite family it is. Sometimes a higher number is used to identify a satellite, but there is no lower number, meaning that a new satellite has been sent up as a replacement. For example, Westar 2 is a substitute for the formerly existing Westar 1. The working lifetime expectancy of a satellite is from 7 to 10 years.

Satellite Separation

Presently, satellites are spaced about 4° apart, with the exception of two Canadian satellites that are spaced 4.5° apart. That translates to a distance of approximately 1836 miles. Of course, satellites are subject to the gravitational pull of solar system planets so they do not follow a smooth path. Instead, they may have a wobble of as much as 60 miles, an insignificant percentage of the 164,884 miles traveled each day. In order to place more satellites in orbit in the equatorial plane, efforts are now being made to reduce spacing distance. We’ll see the importance of spacing a little later on in this article.

Tilt Angle

The tilt angle, or orbital inclination, is the tilt the satellite assumes with respect to the equatorial plane, with the equatorial plane being an imaginary, two-dimensional flat surface bisecting the earth at the equator and extending into space. Tilt can be controlled from the earth by radio, with the signals being used to cause a hydrogen-peroxide-ignited/hydrane-fueled thruster to fire in a computer-programmed sequence.

Satellites aren’t put into space and then left to chance. Station keeping, using a satellite’s telemetry tracking command subsystem, is needed to maintain the satellite’s position with respect to the earth. There are three axes of motion along which a satellite can move, but each of those can be independently earth-controlled. Flywheels on the satellite supply a counter torque to any thrust or attempted movement from the desired position, supplemented by the firing of small rockets.

Operating Power

The power for operating the electronics gear aboard a satellite is obtained from batteries. Satellites are equipped with wing-like structures, which are deployed when the satellite reaches orbit, on which are mounted solar cells that are used to convert solar energy to electricity that is used to charge the batteries (see Fig. 3). Since the position of the sun with reference to the satellites keeps changing, the panels are adjusted so as to keep them at right angles to the sun.

Transponders

A satellite is not a passive relay station. It does not simply reflect television signals, but receives them, processes them, downconverts them, and retransmits them. Aboard each satellite are a number of transponders, a type of transceiver that is capable of receiving signals from earth and retransmitting them. Transponders not only transmit video, but also both mono and stereo audio, telephone messages, news reports, and data.

The average operating power of a transponder is 5 watts. That is the DC power delivered to the RF power-amplifier output stage. One exception is the Canadian satellite, Anik D, positioned at 104.5° west, which uses an average operating power of 11.5 watts. Note that larger amounts of power are available and could be used. The reason it is not is that transmissions from C-band satellites fall in the same microwave-frequency range used

by AT&T for the transmission of telephone communications and if higher power levels were used, interference with those communications would occur.

When signals are transmitted to a satellite, that is called the uplink. Uplink transmissions use the frequency band from 5.925 to 6.425 GHz. In the satellite, the signals are downconverted to a frequency range between 3.7 and 4.2 GHz and retransmitted to earth, that retransmission is called the downlink. See Fig. 4.

The number of transponders on a satellite is related to bandwidth requirements. For video use, the bandwidth requirement of a transponder is 40 MHz (36 MHz plus a 4-MHz guard band). With a total bandwidth availability of 500 MHz (that total is calculated by subtracting the lower frequency limit from the upper one), that would permit 500/40 = 12 transponders only.

Yet, a typical satellite will have 24, not 12 transponders. As we’ll see shortly, signal polarization is taken advantage of to squeeze in the extra transponders.

Note that not all satellites have the same number of transponders. Typically, North American satellites will have either 12 or 24. But some satellites have 6 or 10 transponders. And in the 12-GHz, or Ku-band (also known as the K Band), there are satellites with as many as 32 transponders.

Signal Polarization

As indicated above, the total available bandwidth would seem

FIG. 2—NORTH-AMERICAN SATELLITES, and their positions in the equatorial plane, are shown here.

FIG. 3—A TYPICAL TV SATELLITE. Note the wing-like structures which contain the solar cells used to charge the batteries used for power.
to limit the number of transponders per satellite to a maximum of 12. Additional transponders are accommodated by alternating the polarization of the signals they transmit.

A radio wave, and that, of course, includes television signals as well, consists of a pair of fields—an electric field and a magnetic field—at right angles to each other (see Fig. 5). The polarization of a wave is described by the direction of the electric field. North American satellites use horizontal and vertical polarization. In addition, other types of polarization are used. Those are right-hand circular and left-hand circular. Most international satellites use circular polarization.

With alternating polarization, 24 rather than 12 transponders can be used. That's because the signals from the adjacent transponders are 90° out-of-phase and thus they do not interfere with each other even though their frequencies overlap. Because of that overlap in frequency, the technique of using alternating polarization is termed frequency reuse.

Polarization is one method of allowing the same frequencies to be reused. Another is by separating the satellites by a sufficient distance in the sky. That's the reason for the 4° spacing between satellites we discussed earlier. Table 1 is a listing of channel allocations for a 24-transponder satellite. The frequencies listed are those of the unmodulated carrier. Each transponder is identified by a channel number, and every satellite having the same channel numbers uses the same frequencies. That is possible, of course, only if the satellite spacing is adequate to prevent interference.

Generally, if a pair of satellites are adjacent, one satellite will have all its odd-numbered channels vertically polarized while the other satellite will have all its odd-numbered channels horizontally polarized. Alternating polarization is used only if a satellite is equipped with 24 transponders. If a satellite has only 12 transponders, all transmissions will be horizontally polarized; that is true regardless of whether the channel in question is odd or even numbered.

Translation frequency

The frequency difference between an uplink signal and its corresponding downlink signal is always 2.2 GHz. Thus an uplink signal with a frequency of 5.92 GHz will be downlinked by its transponder at 3.72 GHz. That 2.2 GHz relationship holds true for every uplink and downlink pair and is called the translation frequency.

Space loss and power

With a distance of 22,300 miles to travel, the downlink signal is heavily attenuated by the time it reaches earth, with a loss of about 96 dB and an approximate signal strength of \(0.5 \times 10^{-20}\) watts. That is less than the thermal noise level that is present at the ground.

Space loss also strongly affects the uplink signal. The RF signal power at the uplink antenna ranges from about 400 watts to 1 kilowatt. However, that is multiplied by the gain of the uplink dish, which is commonly on the order of 50 dB, to give us the effective radiated power, sometimes referred to as Effective Isotropic Radiated Power (EIRP). A gain of 50 dB translates into a power ratio of 100,000. Thus, if the RF signal power is 400 watts, and the power ratio is 100,000, then the EIRP is 400 \(\times\) 100,000 = 40,000,000 watts. However, due to the effect of space loss, the received signal at the satellite is on the order of microwatts.

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**Table 1—Channel Assignments**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Channel</th>
<th>Operating Frequency (MHz)</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3740</td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>3760</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3780</td>
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<td>3820</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>4160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>4180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Footprint and boresight point

The EIRP of the downlink signal is its terrestrial strength and can be plotted on a map in terms of dBW (decibels referred to 1 watt). Such a diagram, called a footprint, is shown in Fig. 6. The actual shape of the footprint will vary with each transponder. The center of the pattern is the area of maximum signal strength and is called the boresight point.

Signal processing

Uplinking a video signal to a satellite and then re-transmitting that signal by a transponder isn’t a simple matter of signal transmission. Since the signal will need to make a round trip of about 44,600 miles, some signal processing is needed.

Signal processing isn’t a new concept. For example, standard FM broadcast signals are processed by pre-emphasis (a method of boosting the high-frequency component of the signal) prior to being broadcast. Similarly, the audio waveform of a satellite-TV signal undergoes pre-emphasis prior to uplinking. The purpose is to improve the signal-to-noise ratio, since the FM demodulator in the satellite receiver is noisier at the high-frequency end. Compensation for pre-emphasis is supplied in the in-home satellite receiver subsequent to demodulation by a de-emphasis network. Following pre-emphasis the audio signal is frequency modulated onto a subcarrier whose center or resting frequency is somewhere between 5 MHz and 8 MHz. Representative audio subcarrier frequencies are 6.5, 5.8, 6.0, 6.12, and 6.4 MHz.

Another signal processing method used prior to transmitting the uplink signal is dithering of the video. That is done by adding an energy-dispersal waveform to the video signal; that added signal is a triangular wave having a frequency of 30 Hz, which is the television-receiver frame rate. Its effect is to produce a more uniform dispersal of the video-signal energy, thus eliminating, or at least minimizing, video-signal energy concentration. (That helps to reduce interference to terrestrial microwave links.) In the satellite receiver in the TVRO home station, the effect of that dithering action is counteracted by a video-clamping network.

Subsequent to processing, both the audio and video are used to modulate a selected carrier frequency in the uplink C-band. Prior to delivery to the microwave transmitting antenna, the modulated signal is strengthened by an RF power amplifier.

The signal from the antenna is reflected by a parabolic dish to a selected satellite. Usually, the dish delivers its signal to a single satellite, and so once the dish is properly aligned on a line-of-sight basis with its selected satellite, it is fastened into a permanent position. Dishes used for transmission are much larger than those in TVRO setups and a dish diameter of 30 feet is not uncommon. Large-aperture dishes are desirable since the gain of a dish is directly dependent on its diameter.

The TVRO system—an overview

At the transponder, the uplink signals are downconverted and re-transmitted to earth. On the ground, a TVRO system, such as the one shown in Fig. 7, picks up the video and sound signals, possibly selecting them from one or more satellites, and ultimately delivers them to a video monitor or the VHF input of a television receiver. The signals are then displayed on either Channel 3 or 4.

The most conspicuous part of the TVRO is the dish, most often a parabolic reflector comparable to the reflector used in an auto headlight. Although commonly referred to as an antenna, the dish is simply a signal reflector, although it is an important part of the antenna system. The dish has just one function and that is to focus the signals of a single satellite to some point forward of the dish, generally a distance of just a few feet. That focal point is the entrance to a short rectangular or tubular waveguide (which is just another type of transmission line, like coaxial cable or twinlead). The concentrated signal is gathered by the feedhorn (the entrance of the waveguide) and passed a short distance to a small length of metal, often no more than 1-inch long—that piece of metal is the antenna probe.

The signal voltage developed across the antenna probe is immediately delivered to a low-noise amplifier, often referred to as an LNA. The amplifier is a broadband type that uses GaAsFET and bipolar transistors. The output of the LNA is fed to a downconverter.

The downconverter, as its name implies, reduces or downconverts the frequency of the C-band signals. Signals of lower frequency can be connected by a cable to following components with lower losses than if microwave signals were used. The frequency conversion process is akin to that used in all superheterodyne receivers in which a local oscillator produces a signal whose frequency is made to beat with that of the incoming signal. The output of the downconversion process usually has a frequency of 70 MHz and can be regarded as an intermediate frequency (IF).

The LNA and downconverter, whether separate units or integrated, are generally mounted on or near the frame supporting the dish and must be shielded against the weather.

From the output of the downconverter, the 70 MHz IF is brought via coaxial cable into the home and delivered to a satellite receiver. In the receiver, the signal is amplified and then demodulated into the original baseband audio and video.

The baseband audio and video signals are then remodulated, either by a separate remodulator unit or one that is integrated into the receiver. Demodulation is required since both video and audio are frequency modulated and cannot be used “as is” by the input of the television receiver. The RF carrier used in the remodulator is the carrier frequency of either VHF channel 3 or channel 4. The output of the remodulator is exactly like that of a terrestrial TV-broadcast. That is, it follows the NTSC standard (at least in North America) and uses AM for video and FM for audio. The audio and video signals are then supplied to the antenna input terminals of a television receiver, which can treat them exactly like a terrestrial broadcast.

The final link in the TVRO setup is the television receiver. The finest TVRO system cannot produce a quality picture if the receiver is inadequate.

Licensing

No FCC license is required for a TVRO setup, although one was once mandatory. On October 10, 1979, the FCC rescinded its licensing mandate for TVRO systems. As a result, it is legal to install and operate TVRO equipment.
The Dish

One of the most important, and most conspicuous parts of a TVRO system is the dish. In this article we'll look at satellite-TV dishes, including what they do and some things to consider when selecting one for your system.

The Dish, easily the most conspicuous component in a TVRO system, has a double function: to gather in as much signal energy as possible, usually from a single satellite, and to focus that energy on the entrance to the feedhorn. A dish, then, such as the one shown in Fig. 1, is just a large-sized, passive, signal reflector.

The downlink signal to be picked up by a dish is very weak, far weaker than the uplink transmission. The DC input power to an uplink final stage ranges from about 400 watts to a kilowatt; the input power to a satellite's transponder is often 5 watts. Another reason that the downlink signal is far weaker than the uplink is that the dish of an earth station supplying an uplink signal is much larger than the dish of a TVRO. Gain, of course, depends on the size of the dish. Thus, while the gain of an earth-station dish used for transmitting is more than 50 dB, the gain of a TVRO dish is about half of that.

Both the uplink and downlink signal suffer from space loss, which is also called spreading loss. That loss is approximately 200 dB and is proportional to the distance squared between the earth and the satellite; that distance is 22,300 miles. Because of a satellite's low EIRP and because of the tremendous distance involved, by the time the signal reaches the TVRO dish it is down by a factor of about 10^20. As a consequence the received signal is practically non-existent, as it is literally buried in thermal noise at the earth's surface.

Shape of the dish

Most TVRO dishes are parabolic, although some are spherical. A spherical dish is merely a section of the surface of a sphere, but things get a little more complicated when you are dealing with a parabola. In a parabolic dish, a curve drawn across the surface from any point on the perimeter of the dish to a point directly opposite will yield a parabola. In geometry, such a curve can be obtained by sending a plane through a cone such that the plane is parallel to an element of the cone. Thus, a parabola is a conic section. A parabola can also be derived mathematically from the formula \( y^2 = 4f \times D \), where \( y \) is the distance of the curve from its center, \( f \) is the focal length, and \( D \) is the desired diameter.

Dish construction

All dishes are made of stainless steel or aluminum, but since they are exposed to the elements, they must be treated with a rust preventive, usually by using a bonding process, or coated with a substance such as fiberglass. That is important since the oxidation of a dish surface results in pits that deform the shape of the dish and can produce inaccurate reflections causing signal loss at the feedhorn. The coating that covers the metallic surface of the dish is a type that is heat absorptive rather than reflective. The objective is to direct as little heat as possible toward the feedhorn. A dish can be stamped from a single sheet of metal or can be petallized (made up of sections), and can be solid or made of wire mesh. The petallized form, whether solid or mesh, makes shipping easier, but requires assembly at the site. A petallized dish is
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also easier to handle if the unit is to be moved to a new site.

Another consideration is wind loading. The shape of a dish is such that it offers maximum obstruction to wind gusts, and it must be able to withstand those without being maged out of position. Wire-mesh screens have a higher wind-loading tolerance than those that have solid surfaces. Size for size, the mesh types are lighter, since they do not have the added weight of a fiberglass coating. Solid structures can also accumulate water, and in freezing weather the water can form ice. Another disadvantage of the fiberglass coated dish is that, if improperly cured, the covering material can warp.

Focal length and focal point

The focal length of a dish is the distance from the center of the dish to the focal point, a small area where the reflected signal energy is concentrated. The entrance to the waveguide feedhorn is at the focal point. See Fig. 2.

Positioning the dish

Since the parabolic dish is made to face a selected satellite, some provision must be made for turning the dish if reception from more than one satellite is wanted.

To be able to “see” a selected satellite, a parabolic dish must be able to move horizontally and vertically. The horizontal movement is variously known as the angle of rotation, bearing, the angle of azimuth, or simply azimuth. The reference point for the azimuth is the true North Pole, not the magnetic one. The azimuth of the true North Pole is 0° (or 360°).

The vertical motion of a dish is its elevation, with the earth as a reference at zero degrees, as shown in Fig. 3. The maximum elevation of a dish is 90° and is along a line that is perpendicular to the earth. At 90°, the signal-collecting surface of the dish faces straight upward into the sky.

Since all the satellites are in the equatorial plane, the elevation of a dish depends on its location. Along the equator the elevation would be such that the dish points straight upward. Farther north or south the angle of elevation decreases. Typically it ranges from about 5° to 70°.

The orbital path of the satellites around the earth is a circle surrounding the earth, parallel to the equator. 23,000-miles high. North American satellites occupy a small part of that circle, and are located in an arc from 72° west to 143° west longitude. Just as the hub of a wheel has a small motion compared to its rim, the movement in azimuth of a dish is measured in inches even though the satellite are separated by thousands of miles. If a parabolic dish is to pick up more than one satellite, it must turn in an arc that follows the path of the satellites. Closer to the equator the arc becomes smaller.

Dish VSWR

Although a dish simply transfers the signals it receives from a satellite, focusing them on the feedhorn, it can be regarded as the first stage of the TVRO: that is, as the signal source. But not all of the picked up energy is focused on the feedhorn, and as a consequence there is an energy loss, with some of the signal energy being returned to the dish. Ultimately, the unused signal energy is dissipated in heat.

The relationship between the signal energy delivered to the feedhorn and that which is not used is the Voltage Standing Wave Ratio (VSWR). A typical value for the VSWR is 1.2, but the closer the VSWR is to unity (1:1), the better. With a VSWR of 1:1, the optimum amount of signal energy is accepted by the feedhorn.

Illumination

The relationship between the dish and the feedhorn is a critical one. For one thing, the dish must “see” the feedhorn, which is another way of saying that the feedhorn must be at the focal point. Similarly, the feedhorn must see the full surface area of the dish, not too little nor too much. The ideal setup is one in which the dish is fully “illuminated” and the feedhorn receives signals from every section of the dish. A partially illuminated dish is one in which the full reflective surface of the dish isn’t used so that the feedhorn doesn’t receive an adequate amount of signal. Another possibility is the “viewing” of the area beyond the perimeter of the dish: that condition is known as spillover. With spillover the feedhorn receives all of the reflected signal, but the signal-to-noise ratio is worsened since the region beyond the perimeter of the dish contributes noise, but no signal. See Fig. 4.

Dish gain

Dish gain is directly related to dish aperture and generally ranges between 35 and 45 dB for a TVRO dish. Gain is a variable and is usually higher at the high-frequency end of the C-band. Specification sheets do not emphasize that point and often supply only the highest gain-value. The gain of a 6-foot dish is at best about 35 dB, with an increase in gain of approximately 1 dB for each additional foot in dish aperture. That applies to dishes in the 6-foot to 11-foot range. Once the aperture gets beyond 11 feet, gain continues to increase, but at a rate of about 1/2-dB per-foot increase in aperture.

The gain of a dish also depends on how well the surface of the dish adheres to its intended curvature, and whether that curve is parabolic or spherical. Warpage, corrosion, and deformation caused by stress put on the dish surface, as well as debris collected on it, all contribute to loss of gain.

Noise

There are two important electrical-noise sources that affect TVRO systems. One of those is thermal energy, the energy supplied by the sun. Noise caused by thermal energy is sometimes called space noise. The earth is also a secondary noise-generator, acting as a heat-energy reservoir during daylight hours and releasing that stored energy after sunset. That energy can affect signals in the C-band, particularly when the elevation of the dish is low.
Noise can also be generated by solid-state components such as diodes and transistors. The noise generated by those devices is known as shot-effect noise and is caused by random movement of electrons, which increases with temperature. Transistors for the first active component following the dish, the low-noise amplifier (LNA), are GaAsFET's, which are noted for their low-noise level compared to other transistors.

Noise figure
The noise figure, abbreviated as NF, is a comparison of the signal-to-noise ratio at the output of a component with reference to the signal-to-noise ratio at its input. Wide-band amplifiers are more subject to high noise-levels since they are capable of including a greater range of frequency categories. Such amplifiers also have a higher gain and so the amount of noise compared to signal level tends to be higher.

Noise and the picture
Noise, carried through and amplified by a TVRO, can affect the picture in several ways. Noise in the chroma portion of a picture can consist of colored dots or small rectangular streaks that can vary in intensity. That type of noise is sometimes referred to as "confetti" or "sparkles." The luminance portion of a picture can also show the effects of noise. Noise there appears as the black and white particles known as snow. Noise in the picture can be caused by inadequate signal-levels or by electrical interference that's overriding the signal level. Noise can also affect the sound portion of the video signal, showing up as mainly as hiss.

Carrier-to-noise ratio
Abbreviated as C/N, the carrier-to-noise ratio is a comparison of the power contained in the downlink signal to the amount of noise, with the result supplied in decibels. Obviously, the higher the carrier and the lower the noise, the better the picture.

Beamwidth
A dish has the capacity to accept some signals and reject others, although it can not select certain transponders of one satellite while rejecting the signals of other transponders of the same satellite. Instead, a dish has the ability to respond to one selected satellite while rejecting the signals of other satellites.
nsequently its support can be made quite substantial and may be desirable in areas where wind loading is a significant factor. It is also a suitable type where signal pickup from two adjacent satellites is all that is wanted.

The chief disadvantage of the spherical dish, and one that has diminished its popularity for TVRO systems, is its very long focal length, often 12 to 20 feet.

![Diagram of a spherical dish](image)

**FOCAL POINT**

A spherical dish can receive signals from more than one satellite, with each satellite having its own independent focal point.

**Mounts for parabolic dishes**

The mount used for a dish has two functions: the first and more obvious is that it must support the dish, an important consideration but particularly so in areas having occasionally strong winds. The other requirement is that the dish must face a selected satellite.

The simplest support is the fixed mount. Its chief advantage is that it is permanently fixed in position, requiring no further adjustment once good signal reception is established. Further, such a mount can be reinforced so as to tolerate substantial wind. The most serious disadvantage is that the dish is restricted to pickup from one satellite only. In some instances that may be desirable, as in the case of a newspaper using the services of just one satellite, or a cable-TV earth station that communicates with and receives signals from a designated satellite. In some areas signal blockage by trees or buildings permits the use of one satellite only.

For the average TVRO owner, though, a preferable mount is the Az/El type. The Az/El (Azimuth/Elevation) has two axes of movement: azimuth and elevation. Adjustments in positioning can be made along either axis and those adjustments can be handled either manually or by motorized control, at the dish or remotely. The difficulty with such mounts is that making a change in azimuth can affect a change made in elevation. However, with an Az/El mount, the dish can be moved to point at a number of satellites and if a record is made of the positioning points, moving the dish from one satellite to another is possible, but tedious.

The most popular mount for TVRO installations is the polar mount. With the polar mount, just the angle of azimuth needs to be changed, with adjustments in elevation being made automatically. A support of that kind can be controlled at the dish site or remotely from the home.

**TVRO site selection**

A prime requirement for a TVRO system is a clear line of sight to a minimum of one, and preferably more, satellites in geosynchronous orbit. The dish must have a clear view of a certain portion of the southern horizon with no buildings, hills, or trees blocking the downlink microwave-signal.

A preliminary examination of a proposed site for dish will sometimes quickly determine if a TVRO system is feasible. A good way to make that examination is to make a preliminary site overview sketch as shown in Fig. 7. Note the variety of factors taken into account in that sketch. Among the things often overlooked are the connections between the dish and the house. Your survey should indicate the length of coaxial cable that needs to be run from the site to the satellite receiver in the home. Make allowance for the fact that the receiver may be on an upper floor or in a room not immediately adjacent to where the cable enters. A good installation technique is to route all connections between the dish and the house through PVC pipe that's buried underground. Special sealants are available for closing the entrance and exit of the pipe to prevent water entry.

Another factor to be considered while doing your site survey is the fact that the dish will need to be supported not only in terms of weight but also wind stress. Thus, a concrete pad, which involves the mixing and pouring of one or more cubic yards of cement, is needed.

If a preliminary site survey is satisfactory, the next step is to use a site tester. The site tester shown in Fig. 8 is one of various types that can be used. The device looks like a miniature telescope, but it does not have a lens. Instead, it has an elevation plate calibrated in degrees, a bubble glass to help you keep it level, and a built-in compass. The device is used to give a prior indication of what satellites can be viewed and what obstruction (i.e., tree) removals may be necessary.

Here are some factors to consider when selecting a site. Not only must the dish have a clear line of sight to the satellites, but there should be no overhead power lines since the electrical noise produced by those can override the signals. The selected site should be clear of existing underground installations: phone lines, power lines, storm drains, etc. It is also advisable to check with municipal or township authorities to learn if there are any restrictions on satellite-dish installation. In some instances, it may be necessary to obtain the cooperation of neighbors for tree removal or site clearance.

Following pickup by the dish the signals will be processed by equipment mounted on or near the dish, but ultimately the signals will need to be brought into the home. The maximum distance between the dish and the home should be about 300 feet, but remember that the shorter the cable, the less the signal loss.
There is always the possibility of microwave telephone interference since phone companies operate over the same frequency range as satellite-TV signals. That is not a problem, unless the dish site is in the path of such transmissions.

In addition to the information given by the site tester, it is necessary to know the azimuth and elevation heading of the various satellites for any particular dish site. That information is often available in the form of a computer printout from dish manufacturers. There are also commercial services that supply such data. The azimuth and elevation readings, plus the information from the site tester, will give you a preliminary indication of which satellites will be available at the selected site.

Foundation types

We mentioned earlier that a concrete pad or foundation is required in a TVRO installation. There are several types of foundations. One type consists of a single slab of reinforced concrete (see Fig. 9). Its advantage is that it distributes the weight of the dish and the forces pushing against it over a large area. The slab mount may be necessary in areas where the soil is loose or where there is a drainage problem. When installing that type of foundation, it will be necessary to construct forms to hold the cement and it is also advisable to use a gravel base before pouring the cement. The single pole support of the polar mount must be embedded in the center of the cement slab and must be absolutely vertical. The depth of the pole in the cement should be at least two feet. As the pole is pushed into the gravel base and as the cement is poured, make repeated checks of the pole using a large bubble glass to make sure the pole is vertical. The concrete base itself has no kind of orientation. Its only functions are to supply support and rigidity for the mount.

After the cement has been poured, it should be allowed to cure. The cement should be watered lightly once or twice a day, but the dish should not be mounted, preferably for a week. How fast the cement will cure will depend on the ambient temperature and moisture content of the air. Cement should not be poured if there are predictions of rain.

Another type of foundation is the pier mount, shown in Fig. 10. A pier mount is used where a low frost line prevents the use of a slab. An X-frame consisting of a series of wooden beams can be used as a dish support, supplemented by a concrete pad. The footing supplied by the pier resists movement in any direction.

The choice of the type of foundation is often dictated by conditions at the site. If the site is very rocky it may not be possible to drill pier holes and so a slab foundation may be necessary, especially since it can be poured directly over rock. If you need help in installing the foundation, some small contractors who are experienced in working with house foundations can be consulted and in some instances they will take the job. In addition, manufacturers of dishes often supply suggestions about dish supports, complete with plans and dimensions.

The dish and its environment

A dish is not an object that can be readily concealed. For that reason there may be some apprehension on the part of family members or neighbors about its appearance. The usual location for a dish is somewhere near the rear of the house, generally in an area that isn’t otherwise used. A dish can be situated in a tree or shrub area provided that none of those obstruct the front of the dish as it sweeps through its arc.

From a low-noise viewpoint, the higher the dish is in the air, the better. There are instances of roof mounts, but generally those are in commercial applications. The roof must be strong enough to support the dish but the wind force to which the dish is subjected. Such installations require the approval of town or city authorities. In some instances it may be necessary to obtain a variance to avoid violating local building codes.

FIG. 8—If the results of the site survey are satisfactory, the next step is to use a site tester such as the one shown here.

FIG. 9—A single slab concrete foundation for a polar mounted satellite dish.

FIG. 10—Pier mounts can be used where a low frost line makes using a slab foundation impractical.
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Satellite Receivers

Along with the satellite dish, antenna, and downconverter, the satellite receiver is an important part of any TVRO system.

The satellite receiver is one of the few parts of a TVRO system that is located indoors. Its main function is to convert signals from the LNA so that they're compatible with your TV or video monitor.

One of the first specifications that you'll notice about the receiver is the number of channels it can receive. A receiver with 24-channel capability is best, even though not all satellites have 24 transponders (some are equipped with 12 or even fewer). There are some satellite receivers designed for single-channel input. Those are called dedicated satellite receivers and are not for general home use. (They are usually used commercially to pick up, for example, news from one satellite or programs from a cable company's satellite.) The use of a dedicated satellite receiver does have its advantages, though. Because you only want to receive one channel, the receiver is a fixed-tuned type. So the tuning control, once set, seldom requires readjustment. A fixed mount for the dish is generally used with such receivers, so once the dish's azimuth and elevation are set to focus on a particular satellite, adjustments are no longer required.

The second type of receiver (and the one commonly used with in-home TVRO systems) is known as a frequency-agile satellite receiver because it has the capability of tuning from one channel to the next. Such a receiver is shown in Fig. 1.

Tuning frequency-agile receivers

The first step in tuning the in-home satellite receiver is to make sure that the dish is facing the selected satellite. Then you must select (using a rotary dial or a pushbutton selector) one channel from among the 12 or 24 offered by the satellite.

The receiver will also be equipped with a control (usually labeled V/H or VERT/HORIZ) that lets you select between signals that are vertically or horizontally polarized. Although the polarity of many channels are published, using the V/H control is so quick and easy that you may not want to bother with the published information. No matter what, you'll be right half the time!

The double-conversion receiver

The output of a C-band LNA consists of audio and video signals that are frequency modulated onto a microwave carrier in the downlink frequency band (3.7 to 4.2 GHz). From there they are fed either to an external downconverter or directly to a receiver.

In the double-conversion (or dual-conversion) receiver, there is no external downconverter—the signals are brought directly from the LNA into the receiver as shown in Fig. 2. In that arrangement, all of the downconversion is handled directly in the receiver itself. That's a bit of a disadvantage—bringing the microwave signal from the antenna to the receiver requires special, expensive coaxial cable. Signal losses become very critical.

The first downconversion is accomplished by a mixer/local oscillator arrangement. The first mixer is used to heterodyne the downlink signal and the first-local-oscillator signal, producing an IF of 1100 MHz. (Heterodyne means to mix two frequencies together to produce sum and difference frequencies.) The selection of the IF or Intermediate Frequency is arbitrary and is a manufacturer's choice, but 1100 MHz is typical.

Like all IF stages, the first IF is an active filter, and supplies not only selectivity but gain as well. Although the diagram shows a single block, the IF section consists of a number of stages.
The bandwidth of the modulating waveform for both the uplink and downlink signals is 36 MHz. Technically, that should be the bandwidth of the IF stages. But in many receivers, the bandwidth is restricted to 28–30 MHz. There's a good reason for doing that—it results in an improved signal-to-noise ratio (S/N). By narrowing the bandwidth of the IF, noise on the outer limits of the bandpass is rejected. At the same time the gain of the IF amplifiers is increased because of the narrower band. However, in narrowing the bandpass of the IF, some picture quality is sacrificed. But because of the increased S/N, that's a tradeoff that seems worthwhile.

Following the 1100-MHz IF section, the signal is sent to another mixer/local-oscillator circuit, known approximately as the second mixer/second/local oscillator. The local oscillator here is at a frequency that is 70 MHz higher than that of the first IF, namely 1170 MHz. The output of this circuit is a second IF of 70 MHz. As we'll see shortly, that is the same frequency as the output of an external downconverter.

In a double-conversion arrangement, the change in carrier frequency is accomplished in two steps, with both of these steps taking place in the in-home receiver. While the double-conversion setup does make use of two local oscillators (a first and a second), only the first local oscillator is tunable. Since the IF remains the same for any of the 24 channels tuned in, the second local oscillator is a fixed-tuned type.

While this type of double-conversion receiver eliminates the need for an external downconverter, we have a problem of bringing the microwave signals in from the outdoor LNA—because of the very high frequencies of those signals, cable losses become a serious problem unless special, expensive coaxial cable is used. Therefore, dual-conversion receivers that use external downconverters are much more popular.

External dual downconversion

Even though the downconverting circuitry is located in a separate, externally mounted component, we can (and will) still think of the satellite-receiver/external-downconverter system as an integrated unit. The first part consists of dual mixers/local-oscillator circuits and the second part consists of demodulators and amplifiers.

The only major difference between this type of system and the system that we looked at previously is that it’s housed in two separate cabinets, one of them outdoors. In a typical setup, the dish-mounted downconverter first changes the downlink band from 3.7–4.2 GHz to 850 MHz and then, using a second local oscillator/mixer arrangement, has another downconversion step resulting in a 70 MHz carrier. That setup is shown in Fig. 3. That 70-MHz IF output is then brought to the in-home receiver using standard RG-59/U coaxial cable. That’s the real advantage of this system. (Remember the problems we had with the coaxial cable when all downconversion was handled indoors.)

Single downconversion

Another popular receiver used today is the single-downconversion type, as shown in Fig. 4. In that type of system, all of the downconversion takes place in an externally located component. A disadvantage of single-conversion receivers is that of image signals that can be produced by the single downconversion process. To minimize that possibility, single-conversion satellite receivers may be equipped with an image-reject mixer.

Tuning

Just as a terrestrial TV signal uses a subcarrier to carry the...
colorburst signal at 3.58 MHz, the subcarrier technique is also used by the downlink transmission. The sound subcarriers can be at 5.6, 5.8, 6.2 or 6.8 MHz. The satellite receiver will be equipped with a control to permit subcarrier tuning by means of a tunable audio demodulator. The sound output will be mono, but stereo can be had through the use of a pair of audio demodulators, one for left channel sound, the other for right channel sound. Some receivers, such as the one shown in Fig. 6, are equipped with a pair. Others require an add-on component.

The audio demodulators are equipped with filters so as to select the correct audio subcarrier. The frequency range of the audio is from 15 Hz to 15 kHz, comparable to that of terrestrial FM broadcasts. Some satellite transponders supply audio information only and that is always stereo.

**Remodulation**

The demodulators recover the original video and audio baseband signals, and these are then remodulated in the proper NTSC format onto either VHF channel 3 (60 MHz–66 MHz) or VHF channel 4 (66 MHz–72 MHz). The output of the remodulator is connected to the antenna input terminals of a television receiver. In some instances, the satellite receiver and the remodulator are integrated, forming a single unit. However, there are some satellite receivers not equipped with a remodulator. The integrated type is obviously more convenient.

**Features**

You cannot say that satellite receivers are all alike any more than you can say that all hi-fi receivers are alike. Let’s look at some of the differences in the features of satellite receivers, starting with tuning.

Various tuning methods are used in satellite receivers. Continuously tuned dials are available as are detent or click-stop types. The dial can simply be a rotary type with channel numbers around the knob. It could also be a linear, illuminated slide-rule type marked with channel numbers. (To avoid crowding, only even or odd-numbered channels from 1 to 24 may be indicated, but that does not mean all the channels cannot be received.)

Some receivers will offer a digital readout of the channel number. And some offer a tuning meter that indicates signal strength. The tuning meter is helpful in several ways. If the satellite receiver uses continuous tuning (as opposed to detent tuning), it can aid in tuning accuracy indicating when maximum signals are being received. It can also be used to help peak the signal when making azimuth and elevation adjustments of the dish. If the receiver isn’t equipped with a tuning meter, the picture, as seen on the television screen, can be used instead, but the tuning meter is a much better approach. The tuning meter also supplies an indication of the comparative signal strengths of the various transponders.

A Surface Acoustic Wave (SAW) filter is used in modulators, receivers, demodulators, converters, decoders, and signal processors. The advantage of a SAW filter is that it is capable of delivering an almost ideally shaped IF bandpass waveform (see Fig. 7) to the input of the video demodulator, without the need for special alignment. At all operating frequencies and bandwidths, SAW filters can have a very flat response over the passband region, with a variation of less than ± 0.5 dB. The problem in using a SAW filter is that it has a high insertion loss, usually around 30 dB, but that can be overcome through the use of additional IF amplifier stages. The use of a SAW filter, plus the need for extra stages of IF amplification, adds to the cost of the receiver, but the result is pictures that are less noisy and have greater freedom from interference. Unlike other filter types, SAW filters do not require fine tuning or adjustments.

SAW filters are made on various piezoelectric substrates, the two most common being lithium niobate (LiNbO3) and ST-quartz. A major advantage SAW filters over LC filters with comparable shape factors is that SAW filters fit easily on a printed-circuit board because they are small and are packaged in sealed containers.

There are two major types of SAW filters. The first is a SAW transversal filter. Those filters can be designed over a wide range of center frequency, bandwidth and temperature requirements, have excellent passband behavior and stopband rejection. They can be used in a wide range of signal-processing applications. The second type is a SAW resonator filter. They are used for narrow-band circuits in the 30-MHz to 1-GHz (or higher) range.

Video-output terminals are often included in the satellite...
receiver. That's important if you plan to use the baseband audio and video signals for your VCR, for example. The output impedance is usually 75 ohms and can be handled by coaxial cable such as RG-59U. From that terminal, the signals can be fed into an external modulator, or, as an alternative, supplied to a video cassette recorder. Since these units are equipped with a modulator section, the use of a separate modulator will not be required.

The receiver may be equipped with a baseband-signal-level control. The signal level should be 1.25 volts, peak-to-peak. A simple way of adjusting that control is to display a picture on the TV set and then set the control for the best results. If the picture tears or skewers, the signal level is too high. If the picture seems to be weak, the video signal level is inadequate. In either case, variation of the control should improve the picture.

The channel-calibration control is often mounted on the rear apron of the receiver. It is used to make sure tuning is correct, regardless of the quality of the picture. When making adjustments, the channel-calibration control takes precedence. It is the first one adjusted. Once tuning accuracy is established, make signal level adjustments if required.

Remote control is a feature that some satellite receivers come equipped with. Being able to select any one of 24 transponders from your chair is certainly a convenience. It isn't necessary, of course, but...

The line tuning control is used for producing a peak picture. However, it is difficult to adjust the tuning control and get observable results unless you have a test pattern to look at. Motion in the picture makes peaking very difficult.

A video-inversion switch can be useful. Some satellites use signal scrambling in an effort to make sure that only paying subscribers of cable TV can watch their programs. One way of doing that is to invert the video signal. Some satellite receivers are equipped with a decoder which is, in effect, a video inverter. The video inverter is useful only if signal inversion is the type of scrambling used.

Speed scanning is a method in which satellite channels are tuned in automatically. Scanning can be single-speed or two-speed. With single-speed scanning all the channels are displayed, successively at a constant rate. The problem with this type of scanning is that there may not be enough time to view a picture and make a decision to watch or to manually override the scanning action. As a solution to this problem some satellite receivers have two speed scan, a technique in which the scanning action becomes much slower when tuning across an active channel, supplying the opportunity for a longer look at the picture. Scanning is much more rapid between channels.

Audio selection is desirable because there are four basic formats used by satellite transponders for the transmission of audio signals. Those include mono (single channel) sound, matrix stereo, discrete stereo, and multiplex stereo. However, the sound, whether mono or stereo is ultimately delivered to a television receiver, but that receiver most likely has only single-channel capability. Further, television sound is not only mono but, with most TV's, it has exceptionally poor quality. However, there are several ways of overcoming the sound limitations of the TV set. The decision to transmit mono or stereo audio is not determined by the transponder, but is decided upon at the time of transmission of the uplink signal.

Stereo synthesizer

Even if a satellite's transponder transmits only mono, it is possible to change it into a synthetic form of stereo by using an add-on stereo synthesizer. However, stereo sound isn't automatically hi-fi sound, but is a step on the way to achieving more realistic sound. Used along with a hi-fi system, the synthesizer can yield good results.

Stereo processor

A stereo processor is another TVRO add-on component. Unlike the stereo synthesizer, it is capable of supplying true stereophonic sound (as long as the satellite is transmitting stereo information). A stereo processor may also be equipped with one or more headphone jacks, permitting listening privacy.

The tuning range of the processor is from 5.5 MHz to 8.0 MHz, permitting the selection of any of the audio subcarriers of the downlink signal. In some stereo processors, the IF bandwidth is selectable and can be either 150 kHz or 500 kHz. With a narrow bandwidth, gain is increased—that's desirable under conditions of low-signal strength. At the same time, the narrow bandwidth reduces the noise level. Some musical information can be lost. Conversely, a wider bandwidth means gain is lowered, the noise level may be higher, but all of the music will be heard.

Tunable audio

Since, with terrestrial TV, sound is an automatic accompaniment of the picture, the concept of tunable audio may initially appear to be somewhat strange. With a satellite receiver equipped with a tunable audio feature it is possible to listen to a musical program without watching a picture. The audio-tune control on the front panel of the satellite receiver can be used to optimize sound pickup or for the selection of a sound-only program available on some transponders.

Remote control

If you have a fixed-mount dish, you don't have to worry about adjustment—once you have the azimuth and elevation set and the dish is focused correctly on a desired satellite. With the polar mount, the dish can be aimed either at the dish site or from the home. Dish position control from the home is the more desirable..
not only for convenience, but also for quick and accurate adjustment from one satellite to another.

The remote control unit is a memory device. Once the position of the dish has been entered into the memory, the dish can always be made to return to a specified position.

Since more satellites are being lofted (See Table I for a list), the remote control memory should have a capacity exceeding that of the present satellite population. It is possible to get a remote dish-control console that can program and recall up to 50 satellite positions. The component may also have a digital selection and readout panel to keep the viewer advised of the dishes position during programming, recall, or manual control. Other features could include single-knob polarity control and full east-west manual control with travel readout.

Switching

TV receivers are now being used as display devices for a variety of video products including terrestrial TV broadcasting, satellite TV, videocassette recorders, videodisc players, and videogames. Switching from one of these program sources to the other can be bothersome because of the tangle of wires that is sure to result when you start switching cables from one unit to another. An alternative method, and an easier one, is to use a video switcher. The simplest is an A/B switcher, but that has only a two program source capability (for switching between cable TV and your satellite receiver, for example). A better add-on component would be a switcher that can handle four, five, or even more different signals.

Video switchers are passive devices and all of them have a certain amount of insertion loss, that is, they will produce some small decrease in signal strength. For the average signal source that has adequate level that’s not a problem. But for marginal signals it may mean the difference between a viewable and a non-viewable picture. There may also be the possibility of signal leakage from one program channel to another, so good channel isolation is essential.

The television receiver

For a TVRO system, the television receiver is the final step in a long line of components, starting with the dish, the feed, the LNA, the downconverter, the satellite receiver, plus the possible inclusion of some add-on devices. The total cost of a TVRO setup depends on a number of variables, beginning with the type and size of the dish, but can easily be several thousand dollars or more.

Although it isn’t generally regarded as such, the television receiver is an integral part of every TVRO arrangement. Possibly because of the cost of a TVRO installation, the usual tendency is to “make do” with the existing TV set. Whether such a decision is a wise one or not depends directly on the TV receiver. A satellite system can deliver superb pictures with a quality comparable to that of a studio monitor. The TV set should have good field interface and good horizontal and vertical resolution. Connecting a TVRO system to a television receiver having poor or just average picture quality just doesn’t make economic sense.

<table>
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Note: Satellites are identified as follows:
A = ANIK (Telesat Canada), D = COMSTAR (Comsat),
F = SATCOM (RCA American), G = GALAXY (Hughes),
GS = GSTAR (GTE), S = SPACENET (GTE Spacenet), T = TELSTAR (AT&T), W = WESTAR (Western Union).

TVRO can also be used with a projection unit or a monitor.

Multiple-set operation

The output of the remodulator in the satellite receiver is the equivalent of a VHF channel 3 or 4 signal. That signal can be fed into one or more television receivers with the help of a signal splitter, a type of balun, a balanced-to-unbalanced transformer.

If the output of the satellite is to drive a number of TV sets, it may be necessary to use a line amplifier inserted between the satellite receiver and the input to the television sets. The output of the line amplifier is brought into the splitter and from the splitter to each of the TV receivers. (See Fig. 8)

One of the problems in connecting the satellite receiver to one or more television sets is that while the output of the receiver is 75 ohms, the input to the VHF terminals of a television receiver can be either 75 ohms or 300 ohms. For 75-ohm inputs coaxial cable is used; for 300 ohm inputs twinlead is required.

Unfortunately, there is no standardization and so the input at the VHF antenna terminals can be either 75 or 300 ohms. Therefore, the input to the signal splitter will be 75 ohms but its output may present a problem. You will need an output for every television set to be used. But not all the outputs will be the same, it depends on the input impedance requirements of each television set.

**TABLE 1—VIDEO SATELLITES**

![TABLE 1—VIDEO SATELLITES](image)
There are several different feedhorn arrangements. The most popular and widely used is the prime-focus feedhorn, so-called since the feedhorn is placed directly at the focal point of the dish. That is an easy, economical arrangement, but it does mean that the positioning of the feedhorn with respect to the dish is critical. Misalignment degrades the signal-to-noise ratio.

The entrance to the feedhorn may be equipped with a series of concentric rings. Such a prime-focus feedhorn is known as a scalar feedhorn (see Fig. 1) and the rings are used to help direct the microwave signals that are in the general area of the feedhorn into the opening of the waveguide. Most of the energy reflected by the dish comes from the inner three-fourths of the surface area, thus the area of the dish nearest its perimeter is the least effective in terms of signal reflecting. That doesn’t mean that that area of the dish is wasted, for it does work as a shield against the pickup of thermal noise. The advantage of the scalar feedhorn is that it gathers more signals from near the perimeter of the dish.

Another type of feedhorn arrangement is known as a Cassegrain system (see Fig. 2). It uses two reflectors. One of those is the dish itself, with another, secondary reflector positioned at the focal point. That second reflector has a surface in the shape of a hyperbola and because of its shape it is called a hyperboloidal subreflector. The subreflector, positioned at the focal point of the dish, reflects the signals it receives from the dish through an opening in the center of the dish, to the LNA, which is mounted at the rear of the dish. A Cassegrain system has a higher ratio of dish gain to temperature and in that respect is superior to the prime-focus feedhorn, but the system costs more and is more difficult to adjust. However, a prime-focus feedhorn does supply better side-lobe performance. Since the secondary reflector is in the path of incident signals from a satellite there is a certain amount of signal loss, which is known as aperture blockage.

**From Feedhorn To Receiver**

Getting the satellite-TV signals from the dish to the receiver is not a simple matter. In this article, we’ll look at the components between the dish and the receiver, including the feedhorn, waveguide, LNA, and downconverter, and the important roles they play in a TVRO system.

**Feedhorns**

The relationship between the dish and the feedhorn is very straightforward. The dish must collect as much signal energy as possible and focus as much of it as possible onto the feedhorn. In turn, the feedhorn must “see” the maximum surface area of the dish—not too much or too little.
There are various ways of overcoming the design faults of the Cassegrain system. One technique is to use a larger dish to compensate for aperture-blockage losses. The Cassegrain system is used in commercial applications, but rarely in home TVRO's.

Waveguides

Just as the signals picked up by a TV antenna need to be delivered to the input of the TV receiver, so must the signals concentrated at the feed be delivered to an antenna (remember, the dish itself is just a reflector, not an antenna). That is the opposite of TV broadcasting in which the signal is picked up by the antenna and then delivered to a receiver. In satellite TV, the signal is first delivered to the transmission line, here a waveguide, and it is the waveguide that supplies the signal to the antenna.

A waveguide is used instead of coaxial cable or twin lead since it performs more efficiently at microwave frequencies. Thus, it has a lower dielectric loss than coaxial cable. In coax, the dielectric is a plastic material; in waveguide it is air and air has a very low amount of signal loss in the GHz region.

As the frequency of a current is increased, it tends to flow closer to the surface of its conductor. That is known as skin effect, and because of it the current behaves as though the volume of the conductor had been reduced. A waveguide is quite like a solid conductor, except that the unused inner portion of the conductor has been removed. In appearance it resembles a rectangular or circular pipe as shown in Fig. 3. The waveguide not only confines the signal but protects it from external electrical disturbances.

Technically, the entire length of waveguide used to conduct the signals to the antenna probe is the feedhorn, but through common usage the word feedhorn is often used to indicate the entrance area of the waveguide, or the signal focal point.

Impedance

Just as it is for coaxial cable, twin lead, and all other types of transmission line, the impedance of a waveguide is a function of its construction. The impedance at the entrance to the waveguide, the feedhorn, is referred to as the open air impedance of the waveguide. For maximum transfer of signal energy, the open air impedance of the waveguide should match the impedance of free space. That can be done by flaring the waveguide at its end, an arrangement that is sometimes called a horn antenna, or more simply (and more correctly) a horn. Actually, the horn is a transformer or impedance-matching device. Horns are available in various shapes, but most often they are cones or pyramids.

The antenna

The antenna (see Fig. 4) is inside the waveguide at the end farthest from the focal point. Because of the extremely short wavelengths involved, the antenna, sometimes called an antenna probe or simply a probe, is quite small, measuring about 1-inch. The antenna is connected to a small section of coaxial cable for input to the LNA. The coaxial cable used is an unbalanced type whose center or "hot" lead is connected to one end of the antenna, while its "cold" or ground lead is attached to the metal frame of the waveguide.

The antenna probe is cut so that it is broadly resonant at the downlink C-band frequencies. Its length and shape are critical since it must favor satellite signals over the wide-band noise that's at a much higher level.

Signal polarization

The process of signal selection begins with the antenna probe. If a particular satellite is equipped with 24 transponders and each of those is functioning simultaneously, 24 different channels of programming will be delivered to the antenna.

If 24 channels are delivered to the antenna, 12 of those channels will be horizontally polarized, 12 will be vertically polarized. There are various techniques that can be used for separating vertically or horizontally polarized signals.

One simple method is to rotate the antenna probe so it is positioned either vertically or horizontally, which can be easily done using a servo motor that's controllable from indoors. A dual-polarization antenna feed can also be used. That type of feed uses the principle of Faraday rotation in which an axially magnetic field is applied to a waveguide containing ferrite material. The ferrites, made of zinc oxide, manganese oxide, ferric oxide, and nickel are used in a circular waveguide, with a current-carrying coil wound around the ferrite. The magnetic field around the coil can change the polarization of the signal.

Of course a pair of antenna probes can be used—one for horizontally polarized signals, the other for vertically polarized ones—with the probes mounted at right angles. Switching from one probe to the other is a simple matter.

Another method for the selection of polarized signals is to use a dual-section LNA, with one section for vertically polarized signals, the other for horizontally polarized signals.

The LNA

The signal from the antenna probe is delivered via coaxial cable to the low-noise amplifier (LNA), a solid-state amplifier. The LNA is mounted in some sort of waterproof housing since it is located outdoors, usually as part of the feed system. A broadband, non-tunable amplifier, an LNA has an overall amplification factor of about 100,000.

The LNA not only amplifies the signal but any noise delivered to its input. In addition, the LNA generates some noise of its own. LNA's are rated in Kelvins (formerly called degrees Kelvin), and the lower the rating, the lower the noise supplied by it.

Another important LNA specification is the ratio of signal level to noise level, G/T, and is known as its figure of merit. The noise developed by an LNA can be expressed either in Kelvins or decibels.
LNA noise figure

If an LNA has a noise figure of 1.5 dB, that means that it will add that amount of electrical noise to what's present at the input. However, noise level and LNA gain are independent; the noise level does not affect the gain, which is more dependent on frequency. Thus, an LNA having a noise figure of 1.5 dB could have a gain variation of as much as 5 to 6 dB at different frequencies. Specification sheets that indicate a single gain figure usually supply the optimum one. In some, the gain is indicated as a range, possibly from 47 to 53 dB. When the gain is indicated as a number, such as 100,000, that is a power ratio and is 100,000 to 1, which is equivalent to 50 dB.

Noise factor

The noise factor of an LNA, \( f \), is the ratio of the signal-to-noise at the input compared to the signal-to-noise at the output.

Other LNAs

LNA's ordinarily use two different types of transistors—GaAs FET's and bipolar transistors. There are two other types of LNA's, but those are not used in home TVRO's. One is the uncooled parametric amplifier. It is more expensive, but capable of producing less noise than an ordinary LNA. That amplifier, also known as an electronically cooled preamp or a noncryogenically cooled preamp, is essential in areas where the signal level is too low to satisfactorily drive a GaAs FET preamp.

The most expensive of the LNA's is the cryogenically cooled parametric amplifier, ordinarily used in military or industrial installations. The name of the amplifier is derived from the fact that it is cooled almost to absolute zero. A complex amplifier, it requires constant maintenance.

The need for downconversion

The only change made by an LNA is in signal amplitude. The frequencies presented to the input of the LNA are the same frequencies that are delivered at the output. Those signals could be delivered via coaxial cable to a satellite receiver in the home, for subsequent input to a television set.

At one time that was indeed the procedure that was followed. However, because of the fact that the frequencies involved were so high, ordinary coaxial cable could not be used because of excessive signal loss. Instead, an expensive cable, called heliaz, was used.

These days, to reduce costs, the downlink signals are supplied to a downconverter that, like the LNA, is mounted on the dish structure. Thus, like the LNA, the downconverter must be waterproofed or housed in some waterproof enclosure to protect it against the elements.

Note that some receivers include an integral downconverter. That approach, however, is of limited usefulness as ordinary coax cable cannot be used to link the dish-mounted LNA with the downconverter/receiver combination.

The downconverter

Basically, the downconverter is the equivalent to the front end of a superheterodyne receiver, consisting of a mixer and a local oscillator. The output of that mixer/local oscillator arrangement is an intermediate frequency (IF) and, for TVRO systems, is generally 70 MHz (see Fig. 5).

In a superheterodyne receiver, the mixer and local oscillator circuits are tuned simultaneously so that the IF is always constant. The downconverter is also tuned, but since it is located outdoors, close to the LNA, tuning is done remotely. The downconverter oscillator/mixer circuits are tuned by a VCO—a Voltage Controlled Oscillator. The voltage required for tuning is furnished by the satellite receiver and is about 8 volts DC. The satellite receiver may have a tuning dial permitting selection of a transponder of a satellite.

Note that the tuning dial of the in-home satellite receiver does not select the satellite. Satellite selection is usually done by moving the dish, either manually or by a remotely controlled motor, so that the dish "sees" the selected satellite. If a pair of satellites, possibly adjacent, have 24 transponders, all of those transponders use the same C-band frequencies. Signal selection, then, is a two-step process: first, by narrowing the number of channels from 24 to 12 by choosing either horizontally or vertically polarized signals, and then narrowing the choice to a single transponder's signals by using a mixer/local oscillator circuit in the downconverter.

The LNC

The low-noise amplifier and the downconverter are separate components, but they can be integrated into a single unit that performs both functions and is known as a low-noise converter (LNC). There are several advantages to using an LNC. The need for a cable link between the LNA and the downconverter is eliminated. The two components are mounted on a common chassis and are put into a single waterproof enclosure. As a result, installation is simplified and manufacturing costs are lowered. The use of an LNC also reduces mounting time since just one component requires installation instead of two.
course, there are some disadvantages as well. With a separate LNA and downconverter, it is possible to replace either one of these units if it fails or the system is upgraded. Also, troubleshooting is often simplified with separate components.

**Line amplifier**

The output frequency of the downconverter is commonly 70 MHz, a frequency that can be readily handled by standard coaxial cable. But coax, just like any other type of cable, does cause a certain amount of signal attenuation per unit length.

The output of the downconverter supplies the signal that is to be fed into the input of the satellite receiver. But the downconverter is outdoors; the satellite receiver indoors. The distance between the two can be as much as 100 feet or more. Whether such lengths of connecting cable are tolerable or not depends on the initial signal strength. If signal losses are too great and result in a weak picture, a line amplifier (see Fig. 6) can be used. A line amplifier is a broadband, fixed tuned, solid-state amplifier. It can be positioned in the home, contains its own power supply, receives its input signal from the downconverter, and supplies its output to the satellite receiver.

Technically, it would be desirable to connect the line amplifier as close to the output of the downconverter as possible, but that presents practical difficulties. The amplifier would need to be waterproofed and it would need to be supplied with DC operating voltages from the satellite receiver, or else contain its own AC power supply.

Even if the signal strength is adequate for one TV, a line amplifier may be required if more than one receiver is to be operated.

**Block downconversion**

The downconverter, as indicated earlier, is used to supply the signals of a single transponder—that is, a single video channel—to the in-home satellite receiver. However, there is an alternative approach called block downconversion in which all the channels presented at the input of the downconverter are handled simultaneously. That technique is favored by hotels, motels, and high-rise apartment houses as a way of permitting individual channel selection. The advantage is that such an arrangement requires just a single dish and a single LNA.

With block downconversion, the entire downlink band from 3.7 GHz to 4.2 GHz is converted to an intermediate frequency. There is no standardization or even a consensus as to what that IF should be; it could be 500 MHz, 1,000 MHz, etc.

In block downconversion, as in single-channel downconversion, the input is 12 channels only, assuming that all 12 channels are operating simultaneously. The difference is that the block downconverter works on all of the channels input; the single downconverter only one channel at a time.

With block downconversion, the signal can be delivered to a group of satellite receivers, with each having its own mixer/oscillator circuit for the selection of a wanted channel.

**The downconverter output signal**

The output of the single-channel downconverter consists of the composite-video signal modulated onto a 70-MHz carrier. The only effect of downconversion is to change the very-high-frequency C-band carrier to one having a lower frequency. Not only do those two signals, video and audio, remain unchanged, but the method of modulation originally used, frequency modulation for both video and audio, remains the same. Essentially what we have then going into the receiver is a 70-MHz RF carrier that is frequency modulated for both video and audio. The receiver must demodulate the signal and remodulate it so that it is compatible with your TV (AM video, FM audio).

**Cables**

Generally, the coaxial cable used to carry the IF signals from the output of the outdoor downconverter to the in-home satellite receiver will be RG-59/U, which has a characteristic impedance of 75 ohms. That impedance is based on the physical structure of the cable and is independent of its length. For distances greater than 300 feet, RG-11/U cable should be used.

The wires used to deliver DC power to the LNA and the downconverter should be 20-gauge for distances up to 300 feet, 18-gauge for distances of 300 to 500 feet, and 16-gauge for distances between 500 and 1,000 feet.

Instead of running separate DC lines and coaxial cable between the satellite receiver and dish-mounted components, all of the conductors can be housed within one covering, an arrangement known as a siamese cable.

The connecting coax cable should be long enough to join the components but without sharp bends. Any excess length of cable should be cut away. Use a drip loop at the point where the cable enters the home. A drip loop is formed by bending the cable into a "U" shape and then having the cable enter the home at a slight upward angle. Using a drip loop will prevent rain water, etc. from entering the house by following the cable.

There are some types of coaxial cable designed to be run underground, but standard coax needs to be encased in PVC pipe for that type of installation. A pipe having an inside diameter of about ½ inch should be satisfactory. Such pipe is available in 10-foot lengths, and the lengths can be joined by threaded sleeves. Put the coaxial cable and the DC power lines through the pipe sections before joining them, and then make sure each of the sleeves is tight. As an added precaution against water infiltration, coat the ends of each sleeve with a sealant. And, after connecting the coaxial cable at both ends, cover the entry areas of the cable into the pipe with sealant.
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Direct Broadcast Satellites

If you've ever wanted to watch satellite-broadcast television—but were put off by the high price of receiver systems and the large antenna dish required—then DBS is for you!

Many people watch television signals that are broadcast from satellites—either through a cable TV system or by using their own TVRO. But there are many more people who don't watch any TV received from a satellite, even though they want to. For those people, the new DBS (Direct Broadcast Satellite) service might be the answer. But before we talk about DBS, let's take a look at some of the problems associated with C-band satellite reception now—the problems that DBS may solve.

Cable TV is the most popular method for watching satellite transmissions. But cable-TV services aren't uniformly distributed throughout the nation. That's because, in order to be profitable, a cable system must be located in an area of sufficient population density. So for many people, a TVRO installation is the only alternative.

With almost 20 North American satellites now in geosynchronous orbit and more planned, and with each of those having 12 to 24 transponders, the number of possible viewing choices with a TVRO is larger than VHF and UHF terrestrial television programs combined. But while a TVRO installation presents an interesting and exciting possibility, and while the number of TVRO users is growing, there are a few problems that are keeping many people away. The first of those is the cost—which can easily reach several thousand dollars or more. The second is the size of the dish. While there are some dishes that have an aperture of just 6 feet, there is no question that a larger dish supplies more gain. (A six-foot dish will not work well enough in most areas—it depends on the strength of the signal available at the proposed site.) But even a six-foot dish is too large to install in many cases.

The DBS system

So if you are not serviced by cable TV and if the number of broadcast TV stations that you can receive is limited to one or two (that includes several million homes in the U.S.), then you should look into the new DBS (Direct-Broadcast Satellite) services—they will increase your viewing variety. Let's see how DBS works and what it has to offer.

The DBS service will not use the C band. Instead, direct-broadcasting satellites will use the higher-frequency Ku band (11.7-12.7 GHz). Like the satellites that supply video services in the C band, satellites for the Ku band (sometimes also called the K band) will be geostationary with one, or possibly two, orbital slots per time zone. Each direct-broadcasting satellite will have transponders with a three- or four-program capability.

While the DC input power for C-band transponders is 5 watts, power for Ku-band satellites will be higher, possibly ranging as much as 160 watts, with a minimum a suggested 40 watts. (But as we'll discuss shortly, the only existing direct-broadcasting service uses less than that.) Because of the higher power, there will be fewer transponders per satellite. The energy for the transponders is obtained from large photovoltaic panels (sunlight-to-electricity transducers) spread out from the satellite.

Size of the dish

The size of the dish required for DBS reception is smaller than that used for C-band signals. The dish size ranges from about 2 feet to 4 feet. The smaller size is not due to the higher frequency of the K band—it is solely because of the increased transponder power. (The antenna probe, which measures about \( \frac{1}{4} \) inch, is slightly smaller than one for the C band.) Because of the smaller dish size, the gain of K-band dishes will be much less than that of the larger sized C-band dishes. But, again, the higher transponder power will compensate for that.

There are many arguments that can be put forth in favor of small dishes. They are certainly less noticeable and are easier to install, so they're not as likely to upset your neighbors. They are easier to pack and ship, so instead of being transported in palletized form (sections), as many C-band dishes are, K-band
THE MAIN ADVANTAGE OF DBS is that smaller dishes can be used because of the high power of the satellite transponders. That means that you can receive DBS programming even in a city.

The DBS market

What is the market for DBS TV—who will watch the new service? To answer that question, we'll have to look at the television services that are now available. Those services include broadcast TV, cable TV, and SMATV (Satellite Master Antenna Television). Let's see how each of those compare to DBS.

Broadcast television is the most popular system available—and it will continue to be so. That doesn't mean that it doesn't have its problems. For example, the number of channels is limited. But in most areas, the problem isn't the lack of available channels—it's the number of stations that is limited. Another important shortcoming of broadcast terrestrial TV is that the quality of reception in both sparsely populated rural areas and congested city areas can be rather poor. Those problems are, of course, what brought about the growth of cable TV and other alternatives such as MDS (Multipoint Distribution Service) and broadcast subscription TV.

Cable TV will be more of a competitor against DBS services than will broadcast TV. Presently, about 60-million homes are wired for cable. Would DBS give those homes enough of an incentive to switch? Most people would base their decision on two main factors: Which is a better bargain? Which service gives better programming or a greater variety of programming?

The answers to those questions are not easy—especially since there is now only one DBS service (which we'll get to shortly) in operation. (Of course, many people with C-band TVRO systems will insist that they are watching DBS right now—but we mean Ku-band signals that are meant specifically for direct-to-home broadcasts.) Most cable systems offer more than 30 channels, and those that don't are being upgraded. It is unlikely that DBS will offer that many. Also, the backbone of most cable systems is standard broadcast TV and local programming—something that DBS is also unlikely to offer. Of course, the price of the system has to be considered. Cable subscribers usually have only a nominal installation fee to pay to start up. DBS will have a much higher cost, approaching that of a C-band setup. And in most cases there will also be a monthly fee to pay.

From what we have said so far, it seems that DBS will have a
The following companies have expressed an interest in direct broadcasting by satellite and have applied to the FCC.

Advance Incorporated
1835 K Street, NW
Suite 404 Washington, DC 20006

CBS
51 West 52 Street
New York, NY 10019

Direct Broadcast Satellite Corporation (DBSC)
Suite 500E
7315 Wisconsin Ave,
Washington, DC 20014

Focus Broadcast Satellite Company
Suite 625
One Commerce Plaza
Nashville, TN 37238

Graphic Scanning
99 West Sheffield Ave.
Englewood, NJ 07631

RCA
David Sarnoff Research Center
Princeton, NJ 08540

Satellite Television Corporation (STC)
1301 Pennsylvania Ave, NW
Washington, DC 20004

United Satellite Communications, Inc. (USCI)
1345 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10105

United States Satellite Broadcasting Company (USSB)
3415 University Ave.
St. Paul, Minnesota 55114

Video Satellite Systems
29201 Telegraph Road, Suite L-8
Southfield, MI 48034

Western Union
1628 L Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036

It was less than four years ago that the first company (STC) filed with the FCC for a DBS system and the FCC proposed interim DBS rules. Those interim rules were approved about a year later, after the Regional Administrative Radio Conference in Geneva (RARC-83) in June, 1983. One advantage of the latest happenings is that DBS will be able to apply advanced technology and learn from experience acquired with C-band TVRO systems. We should note that existing dishes for the C band will be usable for the K band, but all other components will need to be modified or replaced. For joint C-band and K-band operation it is possible that integrated LNA’s, downconverters and satellite receivers may be made available.

Recent developments

The first direct-to-home satellite service is now broadcasting to homes in the eastern half of the U.S. (not including the area of Georgia, Alabama, and Florida). The system, owned by United Satellite Communications Inc. or USCI (1345 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10105) expects to expand by the end of this year to cover the entire west coast (in addition to the 26 states east of the Rocky Mountains from Maine to Tennessee that it now serves). That will happen when USCI switches its service (from the ANIK C2 satellite that it is now using, which has a transponder power of 15 watts) to the GSTAR A2 satellite, which has a transponder power of 20 watts. After the switch, 82% of all homes with television would have the service available. The dish that’s required ranges in size from 2½ to 4 feet, depending on the location.

In January of this year, an agreement was reached that made Radio Shack the exclusive retail sales agent for USCI. RCA Service Company will install and service the receiving equipment. The cost for the service includes a installation fee of $300 and a monthly fee of $39.95 that covers programming, rental, and maintenance. However, you can buy the receiving equipment for $995. (That includes installation and one year of service and programming.)

Satellite Television Corporation (STC), who filed the first application to build a DBS system, expects to be broadcasting later this year (in the fall). They plan to offer a five-channel pay-TV system to the northeastern U.S. (from Norfolk, VA to Burlington, VT) and from the coast west to Pittsburgh, PA.

STC plans to expand their service in 1986 with a 6-channel pay-TV system to the eastern half of the U.S. They plan to use 200-watt travelling-wave tubes (a special vacuum tube for amplifying microwave signals).
Part 3  As we promised last time, we'll start this month with a look at the byte-wide I/O port.

The 8-bit parallel I/O port is the easiest to design. All that is required for inputs is to enable 8 buffers onto the data bus for each port. That job is done by IC2 and IC3, which are 74LS541 buffers. For outputs, all we have to do is to latch the status of the data bus, for which we use IC6 and IC7, 74LS373 D-type flip-flops.

While the byte-wide port is best suited to data transfer, it is possible to use it for bit-wise control as well—but it's not always easy to isolate the single bit that's of interest. In the case of input testing, it involves a mathematical process called bit masking. If the output port is used for single-bit control, a record of the state of the port must be maintained in the program so that the proper output word can be formed, that will toggle the desired bit but leave all of the other bits unchanged.

The same simple software commands used for the bit addressable ports are used to control the 8-bit parallel ports. For example, "OUT(16,0): OUT(16,255)" will set all 8 outputs first to zero then to 1.

The command "LET A = INP(16)" will assign a value to A in the range of 0 to 255 depending on the status of the 8 inputs.

Analog Inputs

Most natural processes appear to us as analog or continuous-time functions. The temperature, pressure, humidity, sound levels, and light levels surrounding you are analog quantities. But the measuring process can convert the analog function into a discrete digital function. For example, we know that the temperature does not change in steps. But if your thermometer is only accurate to one-half degree, then the temperature will appear to change in 1/2-degree steps. If you used a thermometer with higher resolution, you could extend the number of digits used to express the temperature. But no matter how accurate the thermometer, you cannot express the temperature exactly.

In order for the computer to be able to "understand" analog quantities, they have to be converted into digital quantities. That's the purpose of the analog-to-digital (A/D) converter.

The first parameter used to describe our A/D converter is the number of bits the result will be—the resolution of the measurement. The smallest increment or change of the result is always one least-significant-bit (LSB). An 8-bit conversion resolves to one part in 256. The next parameter is the span of the conversion. That is the physical range that is represented by the zero and full-scale values of the A/D output. Thus, if our 8-bit converter had a span from 0° to 255°, each bit of output would represent one degree. If the span were reduced to 125°, each bit would represent 1/2°. The number of bits of the conversion determines the resolution of the converter. The span of the conversion determines the resolution of the physical quantity. Increasing the number of bits or decreasing the span will increase the resolution of the result.

The accuracy of the A/D conversion takes into account not only repeatability, but the absolute accuracy of the output compared to the input. That is really a measure of the accuracy of the standard used during the conversion process. If a reference diode defines full-scale as 2.55 volts, and if that reference should drift to 2.56 volts, then 2.56 volts will be required at the A/D input to produce a result at the output of 255. That potential source of inaccuracy can be eliminated by using a technique called ratiometric measurement. Ratiometric measurements are made using the same source for both the reference and the transistor. Thus any variations will be present in both and will cancel out.

The last parameter we should consider is the number of channels—the number of inputs that can be connected to the A/D converter. Obviously with 2 A/D converters, we can measure 2 different points.
However, by equipping a single A/D converter with an analog input multiplexer we can also measure several points (but not simultaneously).

There are two common methods of performing the conversion. The first is called integration. The input voltage causes a proportional input current to charge a capacitor to a specific voltage level. The time required to charge the capacitor is inversely proportional to the input voltage. The second method is called successive approximation (SAR). In that method, the analog input is compared to the output of a digital-to-analog (D/A) converter. The D/A converter is adjusted until its output matches the unknown analog input. The input to the D/A converter that produces the match becomes the output of the A/D converter.

The number of tries before a match is made is never more than the number of bits of resolution. Thus an 8-bit A/D will find a match in no more than 8 tries.

Integrating A/D's are very accurate but slow. Twelve- and 14-bit conversions take tens of milliseconds. Successive approximation (SAR) A/D's are fast, but are not as accurate. Eight-bit conversions may take only a few microseconds.

The A/D converter selected for our computer is ICl, the ADC0805 from National Semiconductor. That 8-bit SAR converter can span input voltages as low as 2.5 volts. Provision has been made for ratiometric or absolute conversion. The converter has true differential inputs and zero-offset adjustment. An analog multiplexer is included in the circuit that accommodates up to 8 input channels.

The ADC0805 is designed to be used with microprocessors, so all we have to do is to connect it to the data and control buses.

A conversion is initiated by writing (anything) to the A/D converter. The result will be available by the time BASIC interprets the next program statement. The channel-select controls of the input multiplexer (IC5 pins 9, 10, and 11) are connected to three outputs of the 8-bit port at SO2. That doesn't mean that you have to use the port, only the A/D converter—it can be used for data transfer. The only requirement is that the multiplexer's control inputs be stable when the A/D converter is making a measurement.

Using the A/D converter is a simple 1-2-3 procedure. First, select the channel (using the 8-bit output port). Second, write to the A/D to start the conversion. Third, read the result. In BASIC, we could write:

10 OUT(6,0)
20 OUT(32,0)
30 PRINT INP(32)

Line 10 selects channel 0, line 20 writes a zero to the A/D to start conversion, line 30 prints the result.

**Digital-to-analog conversion**

Most of the same parameters that we noted for A/D conversion also apply in D/A conversion. Although the control computer doesn't have D/A capabilities, they can be added with very little effort. As shown in Fig. 13-a, a simple resistor-capacitor network is the only hardware required. Remember the description of the SAR A/D converter? We can implement a D/A converter in a similar manner with the components we have on the board and some software.

One of the bit-addressable outputs and one input of the A/D converter must be dedicated to each D/A channel. The digital output is used to charge a capacitor through a resistor, and the A/D input measures the voltage on the capacitor. That measured voltage is compared to the desired value (which is stored in the program). If the voltage is too low, the output is turned on. If the voltage is too high, the output is turned off. The selection of the R-C time constant, and the frequency that the output is corrected by the program, determine the accuracy of that simple approach.

The major limitation of that approach is that the ripple and response time of the circuit are directly related. If minimum ripple is required, a long response time is the result. That can be avoided with a slightly more sophisticated circuit, such as the one shown in Fig. 13-b.

That circuit uses one bit-addressable output to charge the capacitor and another to discharge it. When the voltage is correct, the capacitor is neither being charged nor discharged. Thus, the only contribution to ripple is the discharge current imposed by the load. The response...
A BASIC interpreter for the control computer is available (see Ordering Information). BASIC I can operate on 26 variables, and includes commands such as:

LST LET RUN
IF GOTO PRINT STOP
XMIT POKE OUT

The BASIC II operating system includes all that is contained in BASIC I. In addition, it can operate on 52 variables and 1 array, and contains about twice as many commands. These extra commands include PRINT, READ, INP, DUMP, EPROM (which programs an EPROM with the current program) MOD, ON ERROR, and many others.

Analog Devices' AD590, which has a current output that is also a linear function of temperature. Both of those devices can be connected directly to one of the A/D converter's input channels, and the result can be scaled to read degrees. But suppose you just reach into the junk box and come out with an unmarked, unknown thermistor. You can connect it to the input of the A/D converter with a pull-up resistor to +5VDC. Using IF statements, your program can find the correct temperature:

```plaintext
100 LET A = R/A
110 LET A = A/D:
120 LET A = 3*I
130 LET A = A/S
140 LET A = A*E
150 PRINT "A = " + A
```

Although that program will make any professional programmer shudder, it works, it's simple, and it doesn't require hours of debugging. One of the features that makes this computer so powerful is that it can be up-and-running in a minimum of development time.

Now, suppose we wanted the output of our digital thermometer to go to a DVM instead. The simple D/A plus the pull-up resistor for the thermistor are all that is required. The software to drive that circuit is just as simple:

```plaintext
700 OUT(16,0): REM A/D CHANNEL 1
710 OUT(20,0): REM START CONVERS ION
720 LET B = INP(32): REM D/A DISPLAY VOLTAGE IS STORED IN B
730 LET C = INP(32): REM D/A DISPLAY VOLTAGE IS STORED IN C
740 REM VARIOUS C CONTAINS DESIRED OUTPUT
750 REM RC IS CONNECTED TO BIT ADDRESSABLE OUTPUT
760 IF B > C OUT(0,0): REM CHARGE UP CAPACITOR
770 IF B > C OUT(0,0): REM DISCHARGE CAPACITOR
780 REM RC IS CONNECTED TO BIT ADDRESSABLE OUTPUT
790 REM RC IS CONNECTED TO BIT ADDRESSABLE OUTPUT
```

That illustrates the advantages of smart control over a traditional thermometer/meter approach. Although more complex initially, the control system is unlimited in its adaptability.

Of course, now that you have the temperature information inside the computer, you can use this data to control any of the outputs. Those can control your home heating system etc.
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Build this useful automotive test instrument and stop guessing about your car's emissions.

PHILIP M. VAN PRAAG

Part 2 LAST TIME WE INTRODUCED you to a device for analyzing your car's exhaust emissions. This month, we'll show you how to build and use the unit.

Figure 11 is the parts-placement diagram for the display board; Fig. 12 is the parts-placement diagram for the TCC board. Note that the four-conductor cable on the TCC board (Fig. 12) is installed on the foil side. Be careful to orient all IC's, diodes, and polarized capacitors as shown. Use a 25-watt iron with a fine point-ed tip, and .030-inch solder.

One point should be made here about the resistors. Note that the majority are precision 1% units. Such resistors are now available from a number of sources, including Digi-Key (Highway 32 South, PO Box 677, Thief River Falls, MN 56701). A less expensive alternative for those who have no stock of junkboxes is to test more common 5% resistors with a DMM until ones with the precise value called for are found.

Study Figs. 11 and 12 before starting construction of the boards, and decide upon a method of attack for inserting the components. Although individual styles differ, the following sequence should work well. The idea here is that by sequencing the parts installation according to the height of the components, several similar components can be inserted on the board before the board is inverted and the parts soldered in place. That should speed things up a bit.

First, install the horizontal-mount fixed 1/4-watt resistors, slightly bending the leads after insertion to avoid mispositioning when the board is inverted for soldering. (To help in troubleshooting, should it become necessary, orient the resistors so that all the first bands point in the same direction. That also makes the project look a lot neater.) After soldering the resistors in place, trim the leads flush with the solder mounds.

Next, install the IC sockets, making sure that the notch or dot, on one end of the socket is aligned with pin 1. Note that the IC's themselves, with the exception of IC1, are not to be installed now. As IC1 is a voltage regulator, it is not socketed. Instead, solder that device directly to the board at this time. Then mount the diodes, making sure that they are oriented properly. Next, install the capacitors beginning with the physically smaller types. Next, mount the trimmer potentiometers: R24, R26, and R32. Then mount transistors Q1-Q5.

The function switch (S2) shaft must be trimmed to a 3/8-inch length. When that has been done, mount it on the PC board, but only after the cabinet top has been drilled and can be used to check switch alignment. That is important since the switch cannot be moved once it is soldered in place. If it is crooked when installed, it will not allow the top to be attached properly. Set the switch into the board (noting the rotational alignment shown by the tab position in Fig. 6-b). It may be necessary to straighten some of the contacts before it can be smoothly inserted. The switch should be inserted in the board to a depth such that about 3/8-inch of the solder contacts protrude out beyond the bottom of the board. Then lightly solder one or two contacts and temporarily install the PC board in the cabinet bottom. Check to see that the top cover will fit without binding at the switch shaft clearance hole. When satisfied, remove the PC board and complete the contact soldering.

The four-conductor cable interface between the display unit and the conversion box is made using a modular telephone-extension cable with plug and receptacle assembly. Cut a 9-inch section of the cable at the plug end, and use that to connect the
When construction of the display board is complete, clean off all solder-flux residue with isopropyl alcohol or commercial spray flux-remover. If using a commercial flux remover be sure to read the directions as some of those are harmful to plastics.

Conversion box preparation

Figure 13-a shows the conversion-box preparation details for the board available from the supplier mentioned in the parts list. Also shown is the probe and tubing assembly (Fig. 13-b). The probe is built using ¼-inch outside diameter (O.D.) copper tubing, with an alligator clip added to make sure that the probe remains in the auto-exhaust pipe when it is placed there. A 48-inch length of ¼-inch I.D. (Inside Diameter), ½-inch O.D., vinyl tubing connects the probe to the conversion box. (Note that if you purchase the complete kit from the source mentioned in the parts list, all cutting and drilling will already have been done.)

A 2-inch copper tube stub (see Fig. 13-c) is needed to attach the vinyl tubing to the conversion box. Crimp a ¼-inch length of one end in a vise to obtain the flattened dimensions indicated. Then drill a ⅜-inch hole where shown. Insert a No. 6 flat washer (⅜-inch O.D.; ⅜-inch thick) into the flattened portion when assembling as discussed below. Flattening of the stub and inserting the washer creates a controlled inlet aperture. That aperture limits the exhaust-gas flow rate into the conversion box, ensuring adequate gas cooling before exposure to the TCC.

Velero strips can be used to allow attachment of the conversion box to the automobile. First, glue the "fabric" portion of the strip to the back of the conversion box. Then, double-sided carpet tape can be applied to the mating Velero strip for attachment to the bumper. (Never stick the tape onto a painted portion of the car, as the paint is likely to come off when removing the strip later on.)

Figure 14 shows the component and board placement within the conversion box. As shown, the sensors should be mounted ¼-inch above the PC board. Plastic spray-bottle caps (with approximate dimensions as shown) should then be glued to the board over the sensor assemblies. Try to center the caps around the sensor fixtures. Silicone glue may be used, although 3M windshied adhesive (available at automotive-parts stores) is even more effective. Apply the glue to the mating surfaces only. When the caps are in place, coat them and the board surfaces with additional glue to be certain of a good seal. Once the glue is firm, melt a hole into the test-sensor cap where shown in Figure 14. (The hole should face the side of the conversion box that contains the strain-relief/cable assembly.) Holding a ⅛-inch diameter screw with a pair of pliers, heat the screw with a candle flame and use it to melt a hole through the plastic. The cap/board assembly should then be silicone glued to the side and bottom of the conversion box. Be sure to use ample amounts of silicone glue around the control sensor, as it is vital that exhaust gas be allowed to reach it.

Assemble the tube stub as shown in Fig. 14 using four 6-32 nuts to space the stub from the side edge. Don't forget to place a No. 6 washer inside the flattened tube end before tightening the outside 6-32 nut. When the four "spacer" nuts are snug, tighten the outside nut with a small wrench or pliers until the tube end is compressed against the washer inside the tube. Thus, gas will be allowed into the box only at the top and bottom of the washer, and to a small degree through the outer sides.

Battery operation

Two self-contained batteries are used by the unit. One is a heating-aid type 1.5-volt cell. The other is a common 9-volt transistor-radio-type battery. The 1.5-volt cell is used in the timer module and its life expectancy is over one year.

The 9-volt battery powers all of the remaining circuitry. Current drain is rather high due to the required thermistor heating. Therefore, the unit should only be turned on when exhaust measurements are needed. Also, when replacing the bat-
FIG. 13—DETAILS for preparing the conversion box (a), the probe tubing assembly (b), and a tube stud (c).

All resistors 1%, 1/2-watt unless otherwise noted
R1—100,000 ohms. 5%
R2, R12—4,700 ohms. 5%
R3, R4, R13—10,000 ohms. 5%
R5, R6, R8, R22—4,700 ohms
R7—8,450 ohms
R9—47,500 ohms
R10—4,640 ohms
R11, R23—50,900 ohms
R17, R18—20,500 ohms
R19, R20—100,000 ohms
R21—46,400 ohms
R24—60,000 ohms, miniature potentiometer, linear taper, vertical PC-board mount
R25—4,350 ohms
R26—10,000 ohms, miniature potentiometer, linear taper, vertical PC-board mount
R27—14,300 ohms
R28—6,810 ohms
R29—11,800 ohms
R31—1,000 ohms, miniature potentiometer, linear taper, panel mount, with SPST switch (S4)
R32—300 ohms miniature potentiometer, linear taper, vertical PC-board mount
R33—221 ohms
R34, R35—105 ohms
R36, R37—22,100 ohms
R38, R40—228,000 ohms
R39—152,000 ohms
R41—143,000 ohms

PARTS LIST

R42, R43—210,000 ohms
Capacitors
C1—C5, C7—C9, C13—0.1µF, ceramic disc
C6, C11, C12—100 µF, ceramic disc
C10—0.001 µF, mylar
C14—0.05 µF, ceramic disc
Semiconductors
IC1—LM340T-5 or 78L05 + 5 volt regulator
IC2, IC6—74C00 CMOS quad NAND gate
IC3—LM324 quad operational amplifier
IC4—TL567C 4.7V to 15V voltage regulator
IC5—ICL7651 DCA dual operational amplifier
Q1—Q5—2N3904 NPN silicon transistors
D1—1N914 or 1N4148 general purpose diode
SR1, SR2—G126 precision matched thermistor pair
TM1—timer module, model U02 sport stopwatch
S1, S3—SPST momentary normally open pushbutton (C & K #831 or equivalent)
S2—4 PDT rotary, panel mount
S4—SPST potentiometer, switch, part of R31
B1—9 volt battery

Miscellaneous: PC boards, display and conversion-box cabinets, IC sockets, 9-volt battery terminal clip, modular telephone extension cord, 25 feet with plug and receptacle (MCJ TAE05 or equivalent), vinyl thin-wall tubing (3/16-inch I.D., 1/8-inch O.D., 48-inch length); copper tubing (1/4-inch O.D. 5/16-inch wall thickness, 7 inches length); spray bottle caps (see text), alligator clip, cable strain-relief (1/4-inch mounting hole), silicone glue, velcro strip (1/4 inches wide by 3 inches long), double-sided carpet tape, 30 gauge wire, 8-conductor ribbon cable, knobs, hardware, etc.

The following are available from PVP Industries, P.O. Box 35667, Tucson, AZ 85740; Etched and drilled epoxy-glass PC boards for display boxes, conversion box for $14.95; SR1, SR2 sensor pair for $22.95; PC board set, both cabinets (not drilled), timer module, front panel decal for display cabinet, and modular extension cord for $49.95; complete kit of all parts (except glue and battery), including pre-drilled cabinets for $99.95; completely assembled, calibrated, and tested unit for $129.95. The above prices are postpaid in the continental U.S. Arizona residents add 5% sales tax. Readers of Radio-Electronics are invited to send a SASE to the above address to receive free updates on this project along with user tips as they become available.

JUNE 1984

www.americanradiohistory.com
well, remove power, connect the conversion-box cable, and install the remaining IC's. Then set the BALANCE control (R31) and trimmer potentiometers R24, R26, and R32 to their midpoint positions, and set the function to the CO position.

If the timer had been in the normal clock mode, you must change it to timer mode by holding S3 depressed for a few seconds until the display changes to all zeros. Now re-apply power. After several seconds, the display should begin to respond to the initiation of tests about every two seconds.

If the word LAP appears on the display (below the two smaller digits on the right), that means the count/reset sequence is out of step. That may occasionally happen after power up. Simply depress the mode switch one time. That should clear the counting abnormality within two or three test cycles.

Now proceed with the calibration process, as follows. Again, be certain that there is no exhaust gas near the conversion box, and that its temperature is stable. Also, orient the conversion box as shown in Fig. 14. (That is the orientation that will be used during actual exhaust testing.)

1. **Connect a DVM** between the display-board pads for the green and yellow leads to the TCC board. Adjust R32 for a reading of exactly 0 volts. There will be some settling time required, so leave the DVM connected for about 30 seconds.

2. **Adjust R26** for a display of 4.0%.
   Take your time in doing that step as it is rather critical. Make the adjustment in small increments until the reading changes with each test cycle. If movement in one direction doesn't produce a display change, go back to midrange and try the other direction. When you do start seeing a change, continue to adjust, but in even smaller increments, until the display reads 4.0 consistently on several subsequent tests.

3. **Switch to the A/F mode** and adjust R24 for a 13.1 display. Follow the procedure outlined in the previous step.
   That completes the checkout and calibration process. The settings of R24, R26, and R32 should not require readjustment under normal circumstances. The BALANCE control should give you enough of an adjustment range to compensate for any subtle variations due to component aging or imbalances at particular ambient temperatures.

**WARNING:** Exhaust gas is poisonous! Do NOT ever perform any exhaust-gas tests in an enclosed or poorly ventilated area! Even being inside a car with the windows rolled up is no assurance of safety. While the system itself is designed so that gas is sampled and converted to an electrical signal outside the car, exhaust gas can seep into the car in many other ways. Do NOT take chances!

**Setup**

The first step is to attach the conversion box to the rear-bumper area. Choose a position that allows the tubing and probe to reach the exhaust tailpipe without stretching or sharply bending the tubing. Also, observe the mounting direction as outlined earlier. Velcro strips may be used to attach the box, but they may not be suitable for all applications. Other alternatives may be necessary, such as masking tape. An especially sturdy mounting is not needed unless the unit is to be used while driving, in which case adequate means must be provided to prevent a change of position or the device even falling off the car. Do not attach the probe until after the balance operation described below has been performed.

Before the unit can be used, two things must be allowed to happen: One is that the engine must be allowed to reach its normal operating temperature (about 10 minutes in mild weather), and the other is that the test unit must be allowed to stabilize (about 1 minute). If you warm up the car while allowing the unit to stabilize, be sure that no exhaust gas is allowed to reach the conversion box until after the balance operation is performed. Also, never start the engine while the probe is inserted in the tailpipe, as the initial surge of exhaust is extremely "dirty," and could coat the TCC, altering the unit's accuracy.

A small piece of tape may be placed over the conversion-box gas-inlet stub and drain hole during warmup to ensure that exhaust gas will not enter at that time.

In use, all functions are displayed when the timer is in the stopwatch mode. If the timer is in the clock mode, depress the mode switch for a few seconds until the display reads all zeros. That can be done whether or not power has been applied. In fact, if power is not applied, the unit can be used as an ordinary stopwatch. Once power is applied and the unit is placed in the stopwatch mode, the display should begin to change in response to each test cycle.

The unit uses the three rightmost display digits for readout, with an assumed decimal point between the rightmost two digits. Thus, a 13.4 display in the A/F mode indicates a 13.4 air/fuel ratio while a 036 display in the CO mode indicates a CO content of 3.6%.

To activate the unit, rotate the BALANCE control from its off position to about midrange. As explained above, allow a brief warmup period. That allows time for preheating the TCC sensors, and generally allows the system to become acclimated to ambient conditions in the test environ-
ment. Once the display stabilizes, adjust the BALANCE control for a reading of 4.0 in the CO mode or 13.1 in the A/F mode.

When the engine is running at normal operating temperature, insert the probe into the tailpipe, and attach the tubing to the conversion box. There will be a very brief response lag-time encountered as the display changes to reflect the thermal conductivity of the gas sample. (Note that a new sample test is performed about every two seconds.) It is normal for some fluctuation "drift" in adjacent readings, particularly if the engine is idling rough, or if the engine system routinely changes idle speed, timing, or carburetor mixture in response to engine temperature.

If your automobile has a catalytic converter, accurate readings can best be obtained by sensing the exhaust gas before the converter. While some autos have a port available for this testing, it will probably be necessary to remove the exhaust-gas recirculation (EGR) valve and insert the probe at that point in the system. (It will then be necessary to close off the EGR line to the intake manifold to ensure accurate readings.) The catalytic converter changes much of the hydrocarbons and CO into water and carbon dioxide. That "new" gas/vapor mixture presents a different composite thermal conductivity to the TCC, thus affecting accuracy.

Adjustments

When making adjustments, be sure to allow time for the display to respond. It takes time for the engine system to stabilize on the new setting(s), and then it takes a short time for the unit to respond to the different exhaust-gas content. If the unit is to be used on more than one vehicle during a session, allow several minutes for remaining exhaust to clear the conversion box before connecting it to the next vehicle. When making adjustments that typically have a broad range, it is best to make small incremental changes, pausing after each and then noting the display. That method makes it easy to "zero-in" on the optimum setting without losing control; that is, getting things so far out of adjustment that the engine dies, or that it is difficult to return to the original setting.

The following emission-related component topics are intended for general information only. Specific adjustments for your auto should be made in accordance with the auto makers' prescribed methods. Occasionally, emissions tuneup procedures and data will be included on decals in the engine compartment. Otherwise, consult an appropriate service manual for details. It is a good idea to take a CO reading before making any repairs or adjustments so that you can later measure your progress by "before/after" comparison.

It is wise to begin by checking the igni-

tion components: replace, clean, or re-
gap spark plugs as needed; set point dwell and ignition timing to manufacturer specifications; check spark plug wires; and clean/inspect distributor cap.

Equipment added to modern automobiles to reduce emissions include (in part) the following items. They should be inspected, cleaned, replaced, or adjusted as recommended by the auto maker:

1. Air-inlet temperature damper (routes preheated air to carburetor during engine warmup).
2. Air pump (pumps air into exhaust manifold area to improve combustion efficiency).
3. Charcoal vapor-evaporator (routes stored fuel vapor to carburetor).
4. EGR (routes portion of exhaust back to carburetor).
5. PCV (Positive Crankcase Ventilation system—routes "blow-by" gases back to carburetor, and allows fresh air to enter crankcase).
7. Thermostatic engine coolant (higher temperature [thermostat being used]).

Proper carburetor operation is vital to minimizing exhaust pollutants. All passages and internal/external components must be clean, and gaskets must be secure to prevent air or fuel leaks. Once that has been accomplished, the various adjustments must be set to the manufacturer's instructions. Those adjustments typically include float, choke, throttle, and airfuel mixture, but may include other things, such as multi-carburetor synchronization. While "in the old days" simple cookbook adjustment procedures could be given (for example: "tighten down mixture screw, then back off 3 turns..."), today that is just not possible. The importance of using a CO meter and strictly following the auto makers' adjustment instructions is no better exemplified than with the carburetor setup.

Readings

As mentioned earlier, auto makers typically provide emission-related information in the engine compartment. That information often includes CO and A/F readings that should be attainable if all systems are functioning properly. Tune-up manuals will also provide that information. Of course, it is also important to know your state's prescribed maximum CO limits for your make, engine, and year auto. Those limits vary considerably.

In Arizona, for example, a 1972 Ford Pinto with a 4-cylinder engine is allowed 6% CO maximum. A 1981 Dodge Aries, also with a 4-cylinder engine, is only allowed 1.5% CO maximum. A 1973 12-cylinder Jaguar XKE is allowed 5.5% CO. Some auto types seem to be rather amenable to achieving even very stringent requirements, while others (like the Jaguar mentioned above) just barely squeak by relaxed requirements, and then only after considerable effort. In general, however, 10- or 15-year-old cars should be able to deliver about 3%-4% CO, while the very latest cars should be down to about 1%.

Air fuel ratio measurements are especially meaningful when making carburetor adjustments. Once again, it is important to consult the manufacturer's data for recommended procedures and readings. It can be injurious to the engine valve system, for example, to set the mixture too lean. The few pennies saved in fuel will be more than offset by subsequently having to repair burned valves, due to excessive combustion temperatures. Airfuel readings above about 14.0 indicate a lean mixture (i.e., more air, less fuel) while readings below about 12.0 indicate a rich mixture.

The advantage of using the unit while driving is to verify A/F carburetor settings and general carburetor/accelerator pump response under actual operating conditions. At cruising speeds, with a light engine load, the A/F reading will initially be a little leaner (by about .3 or .4) then when the auto is stationary. After sudden, brief acceleration the reading should diminish considerably, then gradually rise back to nominal. Service data for your auto should provide specific load readings.

Suspicious readings

Sooner or later, you will probably encounter readings that just don't seem to make sense. There can be many sources of inaccuracy, but first it is important to determine the general cause. There are three general causes to consider: the automobile, the setup, or the unit itself. Once the general cause is found, the specific problem is much easier to track down.

One common auto symptom is the carburetor-mixture control not having any effect on CO readings. That is a "normal" occurrence if the carburetor needs overhauling. What has happened is that blockages or leaks in the carburetor have disrupted normal operation enough to make the relatively minor mixture-screw changes ineffective. It is also possible that the air filter is clogged. To verify, note the A/F reading, then remove the air-cleaner element, re-attach the air-cleaner cover, and reset. If A/F ratio is now more than .2 or .3 higher than before, the filter probably needs replacing.

Another source of potential trouble from the automobile, as mentioned earlier, is "swamping out" of the TCC due to an unusually dirty exhaust blast, such as that which would occur if the engine is started with the probe attached. Swamp...
Finding replacement parts

EARL "DOC" SAVAGE, HOBBY EDITOR

TWENTY OR SO YEARS AGO, WHEN COMMERCIALLY AVAILABLE AMATEUR-RADIO SETUPS began to appear in large quantities, the number of ham operators who simply bought transmitter/receiver units and turned them on began to increase at an enormous rate. Prior to that time most hams built their own installations, or at least knew enough about them to repair and modify them whenever the need arose. So they, the old timers, made disparaging references to the "new breed of hams"—they were called "appliance operators." Not so long ago, the computer hobby went through a similar change. Not only is it no longer necessary to build a computer to have one, but most computerists have no interest in knowing how their machines work. In fact, the vast majority of computer owners today are essentially "appliance operators."

The purpose of reviewing that bit of history is not to start an argument—either side is any better than the other. However, those and other similar changes have created a problem that many electronics enthusiasts encounter frequently. That is, we start to build or modify some device and discover that the parts we need are hard, if not impossible, to find. That's partially because many parts distributors carry more sub-assemblies than discrete components. The reason behind that is that these days the repairman usually replaces a complete sub-assembly (or board) rather than the parts themselves. It's quicker and cheaper to do things that way—at least they say it's cheaper!

You really can't blame the stores and mail-order houses for the change; simple economics was the deciding factor in making that adjustment. There is more profit in selling manufactured sub-assemblies than there is in selling parts unless the volume purchased is quite large. And therein lies the root of the problem, but knowing the cause doesn't affect a cure—it's still hard to find the parts. That's true whether you do business with the very large parts dealers or the "mom-and-pop"-type operations, which have low overhead. We know it's difficult, not only from personal experience but because a week doesn't go by without receiving a letter from someone saying that he can't find a source for a certain coil, transformer, or whatever. So, for David Barger (NY), Jerome Roach (CA), D. C. Hoffman (PA), Chris Miller (Ontario), Chauncey Albright (NY), and the rest of you out there who have had difficulty in locating the needed parts, here are some old methods and a new one that has proven quite valuable.

Helpful hints

If you're building a device from a construction article, first check to see if the author has made arrangements to offer a parts kit. Often a source of partial or complete kits is listed in the article. That may be the best way to go when you need all or almost all of the parts. The second approach to the parts problem is to check the local Radio Shack store or their catalog. If they carry the necessary parts, then you've saved yourself a lot of time. But if that turns out to be dead end, the next step is to check the back-page ads and the classified section of current and past issues of Radio Electronics for suppliers. Most suppliers will send along a current catalog when you order something, and continue to do so once you are on their mailing lists. Still others will send their catalogs to you just for the asking. (I don't know about you, but I never throw out a catalog until a replacement comes along.) Assuming the worst case, it's then time to start writing letters of inquiry to supply houses (a task that's all too familiar to me). In the past that has been like shooting in the dark, but now some light has been shed on the subject.

A fellow by the name of Edward A. Hall has written a 125-page book—The Buyers' Guide to Radio and Electronic Parts. That guide goes a long way in letting you know which distributors carry what items. The book contains listings for hundreds of parts, ranging from actuator-to-yoke and It also lists over 85 companies that carry each item. A special section in the back of the book gives supplier mailing addresses, telephone numbers, catalog costs, and minimum order amounts. (I've found it to be quite helpful!) If you feel that the guide would be of benefit to you, it's available for $6.95 postage paid from Hayward Products, 39 Sunset Court, St. Louis, MO 63121. (And I don't own a bit of stock in the company!) How times have changed!

AN INVITATION

To better meet your needs, "Hobby Corner" has undergone a change in direction. It has been changed to a question-and-answer form. You are invited to send us questions about general electronics and its applications. We'll do what we can to come up with an answer or, at least, suggest where you might find one.

If you need a basic circuit for some purpose, or want to know how or why one works, let us know. We'll print those of greatest interest here in "Hobby Corner." Please keep in mind that we cannot become a circuit-design service for esoteric applications: circuits must be as general and as simple as possible. Please address your correspondence to:

Hobby Corner
Radio-Electronics
250 Park Ave. South
New York, NY 10003

Speaking of changing times, you may be interested in a little conversation piece in my workroom. It is nothing more than a small wooden base holding a tube, a transistor, and an IC. The sketch in Fig. 1 gives you an idea of what it looks like. My non-technical friends are amazed when I answer their questions about it, and I'm sometimes tempted to cheat a bit by replacing the puny 68L7 with an old transmitting tube! Of course, you could have a series of such eye-openers: How about a 5R4 and a solid state rectifier, or an OA3 and a Zener diode? There are all kinds of interesting possibilities.

Inquiries

Whenever I have the occasion to thumb through my Radio Electronics magazine
I am impressed anew with the variety and scope of the subjects that have been covered (or uncovered) over the years. A back-issue file is a valuable resource of circuits, ideas, and construction data. When you are looking for information, check through your back-issue file. You'll almost always find that the time was well spent.

For instance, one reader—James Lewis (NJ)—is looking for a voltage/spike suppressor for his equipment. Well, James, take a peek at page 57 of the September 1983 issue. There you'll find a great construction article entitled “Powerline Transient Suppressor” by Herb Friedman. That suppressor takes care of four line problems: RF interference, line transients, surges, and interruptions of service. (Well, it doesn't prevent interruptions but it does keep down troubles when service is resumed.) Another reader, S. M. Harmon (PA), will have to look back a bit farther to find an answer to his question. That reader is a teacher who wishes to add some tunes to his math games. He says the mini-player piano of a few months ago is overkill for his needs. You’re in luck, Mr. Harmon. You can find just such a monophonic “tune maker” circuit in the “Hobby Corner” columns of the January and February 1979 issues of Radio Electronics.

Those of you who have written about sequential turn-signals for your cars and other uses of “chase” circuits, may wish to check the March, 1978 installment of “Hobby Corner.” To operate that circuit with high-current devices (tail lights, 110-volt lights, etc.) just hang one or two TTL relays, or transistor switches on the outputs in place of the LED’s.

Antenna measurements

Antennas can make or break any kind of radio installation. That is especially true of transmitting antennas. What is especially exasperating about them is that they can look great but perform like a willow twig, or worse.

It is axiomatic that the more you know about antennas, the more you realize you don’t know! To make matters more complicated, the usual DC and AC test instruments are of little value in making antenna measurements. Typically, AC instruments function adequately only up to about a few hundred Hertz, at best. They are all but worthless when dealing with devices in the kHz and MHz ranges.

Andrew Mazzella has asked how he can test his antenna without lowering it or climbing up a long ladder. Well, the first thing we have to tell you is that there are many things you need to know about a given antenna that can’t be learned by bringing it down or going up to it, unless you have special Instruments.

The primary question about an antenna is: What is its resonant frequency? Fortunately, that can be determined from the ground, just with any of three instruments. Two are quite reliable but the third will mislead you, given half a chance.

The one which you must use with great care is the grid dip meter. The method and degree of coupling to the antenna is quite critical to getting useful and accurate readings. In spite of that, the grid dip meter is used often because it does not require an external source of RF energy. The other two instruments that will give you the needed information on your antenna are an SWR bridge and an RF impedance bridge.

RE
ANYONE WHO GETS INTERESTED IN ELECTRONICS AND GETS REALLY HOOKED ON IT WILL PROGRESS THROUGH A NUMBER OF CLEARLY RECOGNIZABLE STEPS. IN THE BEGINNING, YOU BUY LIGHT-DIMMER KITS AND BURN YOUR EYES OUT TRYING TO READ OBSCURE DIRECTIONS WRITTEN IN MUDDY PRINT. THE NEXT STEP IS TO BUY COMPONENTS AND, ARMED WITH A CHART THAT LISTS THE RESISTOR COLOR CODE AND A SOLDERING IRON, BURN YOUR COMPONENTS UP TRYING TO BUILD A LIGHT DIMMER OF YOUR OWN DESIGN. SOMEWHERE AROUND HERE YOU BEGIN TO UNDERSTAND THAT THERE'S MORE TO ELECTRONICS THAN OHM'S LAW, AND YOU BEGIN TO READ.

NOW, WE'RE ALL FAMILIAR WITH THE TRUTH OF GROSSBLATT'S 12TH LAW. HE WHO DOESN'T HAVE HIS HEAD IN A BOOK HAS HIS HEAD IN SOMETHING ELSE. BUT THE MORE GENERAL THE RULE, THE MORE EXCEPTIONS THERE ARE TO IT, AND THAT APPLIES HERE AS WELL. AFTER YOU'VE PLOWED THROUGH ENOUGH ABSTRACTS AND JOURNALS, YOU'LL LEARN HOW TO APPLY GROSSBLATT'S 27TH LAW: WHAT IS WRITTEN ON PAPER IS NOT CARVED IN STONE.

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN BRAIN DAMAGE AND COMMON SENSE. THE DIFFICULT TASK OF PLOWING THROUGH COUNTLESS ROUNDS OF PAPERWORK FILLED WITH OBSCURE EQUATIONS CAN OFTEN BE ELIMINATED BY TAKING A LOOK AT THE ORIGINAL PROBLEM ON A DIFFERENT-COLOR PAPER OR WALKING AWAY AND LETTING YOUR SUBCONSCIOUS TAKE OVER.

THE PERFECT EXAMPLE OF THAT IS THE PROBLEM FACING US AT THE MOMENT—FINDING THE RESISTOR VALUES FOR OUR DIGITAL SINEWAVE GENERATOR. THERE ARE THREE WAYS TO GO ABOUT FINDING THE ANSWER: 1) TRIAL AND ERROR, 2) MIND-WARPING MATH, 3) COMMON SENSE. THE FIRST ONE IS OK, BUT ONLY GIVES ANSWERS FOR A PARTICULAR APPLICATION. THE SECOND IS OK FOR PEOPLE WHO WEAR A BATHING SUIT WITH SHOES AND SOCKS. THAT LEAVES US WITH THE THIRD.

BELIEVE ME WHEN I TELL YOU THAT THE STANDARD METHOD FOR CALCULATING THE RESISTOR VALUES INVOLVES MATH SO HAIRY... WELL, EVEN WITH A LOT OF EQUIPMENT IT WOULD BE DIFFICULT. THE FOURIER TRANSFORMS AND FIBONACCI NUMBERS ARE THE EASY PART. THE HARD PARTS CAN ONLY BE SOLVED USING A VARIABLE INTERESTER. (DO ANY OF YOU REMEMBER WHAT THAT IS OR KNOW HOW TO SPELL IT?)

GETTING AROUND THE MATH

BUT SERIOUSLY, PEOPLE, THE MATH IS BOTH COMPLICATED AND UNNECESSARY. WE CAN GET WITHIN SEVERAL DECIMAL PLACES OF THE CALCULATED VALUES BY USING COMMON SENSE AND A BIT OF ELEMENTARY ARITHMETIC. LET'S TAKE A GOOD LOOK AT THE PROBLEM. FIGURE 1 SHOWS THE CIRCUIT WE'RE GOING TO USE; FIG. 2 SHOWS 180 DEGREES OF THE WAVEFORM THAT WE WANT, AND A COUPLE OF HELPFUL HINTS. YOU'LL REMEMBER THAT WE'RE NOT USING THE Q5 OUTPUT OF THE 4018 BECAUSE IT'S A QUICK AND DIRTY WAY TO MAKE THE WAVEFORM CONFORM MORE CLOSELY TO A SINEWAVE. THE RESISTORS ON THE REMAINING OUTPUTS WILL DETERMINE THE SHAPE OF THE WAVE WE GENERATE BUT—AND THIS IS IMPORTANT—WE STILL HAVE TO ALLOW FOR THE TIME USED BY THE Q5 OUTPUT. IN OTHER WORDS, NO MATTER HOW MANY 4018 OUTPUTS WE DECIDE TO USE, IT'S STILL GOING TO TAKE 5 INCOMING CLOCK PULSES TO MAKE THE 4018 REPEAT ITSELF. THAT MEANS ANY CALCULATIONS THAT WE DO HAVE TO TAKE INTO ACCOUNT THE FACT THAT THERE WILL BE 5 DISCRETE 4018 OUTPUT STATES FOR EACH 180 DEGREES OF THE SINEWAVE.

IN PRACTICAL TERMS, EACH INCOMING CLOCK PULSE WILL CONTROL 36 DEGREES (180/5) OF THE SINEWAVE. Q3 WILL DETERMINE THE AMPLITUDE OF THE SINEWAVE 36° INTO THE CYCLE, Q2 WILL DETERMINE THE AMPLITUDE OF THE SINEWAVE AT 72°, AND SO ON UNTIL WE GET TO...
PC Jr VS NEW TRANSPORTABLE...
A brand new IBM computer that you can carry with you wherever you go. Here's a comparison between the new transportable and the PC Jr.

CP/M FOR BEGINNERS...
Don't be afraid of using CP/M. It's a terrific operating system once you understand how to use it.

GRAPHICS SOFTWARE...
From painting pictures to drawing pie-charts on your terminal's screen or dot matrix printer.
IBM PC
- Flight Simulator by Microsoft... List $49.95. Our price $43.00. Highly accurate simulation of flight in a single-engine aircraft. Working instruments. Out the window graphics. Real-time flight conditions. (IBM P C, 64k, color graphics, disc)
- EasyWriter II by Information Unlimited... List $350.00. Our price $300.00. Turns your computer into a word processor. You see everything on the screen. There are no imbedded commands. (IBM P C, disc)
- Deadline by Infopac... List $49.95. Our price $43.00. A locked door. A dead man. You have 12 hours to solve the mystery. One false move, and the killer strikes again. (IBM P C, 48k, disc)
- Aldus, Vol. I by Eduware... List $39.95. Our price $34.00. A first year algebra tutorial covering definitions, number line operations, sets, etc. (IBM P C, 48k, color graphics, disc)
- Micro Terminal by Microcom... List $54.95. Our price $63.00. Allows access to remote mainframes and minis, information data banks, and other personal computers. (IBM P C, disc)
- P.C. Tutor by Comprehensive Software... List $79.95. Our price $69.00. Interactive program teaches you how to use your IBM Personal Computer, including hardware and software. (IBM P C, 64k, disc)

APPLE
- Prisoner 2 by Interactive Fantasies... List $32.95. Our price $28.90. Escape is hardly possible. The island keeps you under surveillance. Just try and get out! (Apple II, 48k, disc)
- Deadline by Interactive Fantasies... List $39.95. Our price $34.00. (Atari disc)
- MasterType by Lighting Software... List $39.95. Our price $34.00. A typing instructor in a system in an exciting Hieroglyphic environment. Learn to type while battling waves of attacking enemy words. (Apple II, 48k, 64k, disc)
- Renegade by Eduware... List $39.95. Our price $34.00. In four phases, simulates an actual space shuttle flight from Earth to Apollo. Renegade and Approach to Alignment Docking with a space station. High graphics (Apple II, disc)
- SAT Word Attack Skills by Eduware... List $49.00. Our price $43.00. A tutorial for mastering vocabulary, decrypting new or unfamiliar words and taxing tests. (Apple II, disc)

COMMODORE VIC-20
- Pipes by Creative Software... List $39.95. Our price $34.00. Connect a pipeline from the water supply tank to every house. Watch out for leaks. Use as little pipe as possible. 5 skill levels. (Commodore VIC-20 cartridge)
- House of the Mad Reign by Interactive Software... List $34.00. Only you can stop the Shadown's mad reign of terror. Two levels with 20 rooms each. A joystick challenge. (Commodore VIC-20 cartridge)
- Home Office by Creative Software... List $29.95. Our price $25.00. Combines VICPRO, a flexible and efficient word processor with VICDATA, a powerful and sophisticated information storage and retrieval system. (Commodore VIC-20 cartridge)
- Desktop by Creative Software... List $29.95. Our price $25.00. Combines VICPRO, a flexible and efficient word processor with VICDATA, a powerful and sophisticated information storage and retrieval system. (Commodore VIC-20 cartridge)

ATARI
- Submarine Commander by Thorn EMI... List $49.95. Our price $43.00. A submarine paint simulator to hunt and destroy enemies in 9 skill levels. Plug-in cartridge. (Atari Cartridge 400/800)

APPLE
- Miner 2049 by MicroLab... List $39.95. Our price $34.00. Chase into a Uranium mine thru 10 levels of traps and obstacles. Vinyl Scale ladders, jump from moving platforms, and win—if you can. (Apple II, 48k, disc)
COMING NEXT MONTH

First there was the ZX80, the machine that set the computer industry on its ear. Now Clive Sinclair is at it again with his latest entry, the QL. Find out how it stacks up against the competition in next month's issue.

Computer telecommunications has received a lot of attention in the last year or so, but what exactly is it, and where does the average hobbyist fit in? Those are just some of the topics our look at telecommunications will cover.

Handling large amounts of data, or writing long reports or papers, is done much faster when done on a computer. Getting a printout of your work, however, is an entirely different matter. Losing use of your computer for minutes, or sometimes hours, while reams of paper are fed through even the fastest printers is unproductive, frustrating, and annoying. Next time, we'll find out all about how you can put an end to all of that by adding a printer buffer to your computer system.

ON THE COVER

Add a solid graphics software package to a computer and it becomes easy to prove the cliche "a picture is worth a thousand words." Learn all about some popular graphics software, and how they can make your computer "speak volumes," beginning on page 14.

The illustration on our cover was created on a Heath/Zenith Z100 computer using a graphics software package called Autocad.

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CAVEAT EMPTOR!

Money is tight. Nobody had to tell you that. All you have to do is to open your wallet or look at the balance in your checkbook. The things you want are harder and harder to come by. So you have to decide which things are necessities and which are luxuries. But it goes beyond that. Your purchases have to be exact and correct. There is no room for mistakes.

That’s why a magazine like Computer Digest becomes increasingly important to you. Not only do you learn what new products are available to you, but you’ll also learn how well they perform, and whether or not they will be precisely what you want and need for your own computer system. In a tight-money situation, there’s no room to buy, try, and discard. Your purchase must work for you the way you want it to, or you’ve lost your money.

The other thing that happens in that sort of situation, is that a lot of manufacturers compete for the buck you’ve got to spend. Now competition is good for everybody. It keeps prices within reason, provides innovative products, and the industry continues to move forward. Yes, that’s all to the good. Unfortunately, not all of the manufacturers can hold out in a highly-competitive market, and there’s always a dropping by the wayside. If you buy a product and that manufacturer fails, you might wind up with a totally worthless guarantee.

What does it all mean? You’ve simply got to be a careful consumer! Before you make any purchase, you must be certain that you want and need the product that you’re contemplating. Having made the decision to buy, you’ve got to use a careful process of elimination to select the manufacturer you want to deal with, and then pick that specific product of that specific manufacturer. When you’ve nailed down the manufacturer and model number; you go out shopping for price, and we hope, you’ll deal with a local distributor who has an untainted reputation in addition to fair prices.

When you finally do make a purchase, we recommend that you stop shopping. Too many people waste time after a purchase, trying to verify that they made the right buy, after it’s too late!

We started out by saying Caveat Emptor. It’s Latin for “Let the Buyer Beware.”

We at Computer Digest are trying to help. We’re working your side of the street. We’d like to hear from you, too. Got any specific problems or questions? If we don’t have the answers, we’ll know where to get them; and while all mail will be answered, we’ll publish the letters that we think are most interesting. So do let us hear from you.

And hey... THANKS!

BYRON G. WELS
EDITOR
COMPUTER PRODUCTS

For more details use the free information card inside the back cover

DUSTCOVER, the Copy Cover, is a combination dust-cover and copy holder Manufactured from clear lucite, when down, it protects keyboards from dust and dirt; when it is flipped up (see photo) it becomes a copyholder that accommodates documents and computer printouts that measure up to 11 x 16 inches.

There is an array of tie-point blocks from which each pin of the computer's bus system (I/O channel) is clearly labelled and is easily accessible. A four-position DIP switch is mounted on the board. Each switch position connects to a set of tie-block sockets on either side, to aid in the development and analysis of experimental circuits. A flat ribbon cable connects the board to the computer's bus expansion slot.

Versions are available for IBM, Apple, and Commodore machines, as well as for hardware compatible models. The entire system, including cable and connectors, is priced at $574.95 each, plus $5.00 for shipping. — Sabadie Export Corporation, 3990 E. Coronado Street, Suite 206, Anaheim, CA 92807.

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Optional quarterly update diskettes that will be available reprice the collection per current market values. IBM PC XT jr, Apple II/II +/III, and TRS-80 models III/B versions, including a 44-page manual and program diskette with latest value file are available at $95.00. (Previews Packs—manual only—are available for $10.) Add $2.50 for shipping and handling. MC/VISA order are acceptable; California residents are asked to please add 6% sales tax. — CompuQuote, 6914 Berquist Avenue, Canoga Park, CA 91307.

CIRCLE 113 ON FREE INFORMATION CARD
IBM PCjr VERSUS
THE PORTABLE

MARC STERN

Here we'll look at IBM's Portable PC and the PCjr to see if there are any similarities.

When IBM made its decision to enter the microcomputer market in 1981 with its Personal Computer (PC), it was generally considered a way of getting its foot in the door. The giant computer maker was dipping its toe—so to speak—into the waters of this market to see if it was right for the corporation.

The fact that this entry was rather cautious was hardly surprising because this area of the computer market was a giant unknown for IBM. Look at the original offering and you'll see what we mean.

It used an 8088 microprocessor—a proven device—which had a 16-bit internal architecture, but an 8-bit data bus. The computer used 16K static RAM IC's to provide a total of 64K of RAM on the motherboard; a cassette recorder interface, and a detachable 83-key keyboard. That combination is hardly what one would call revolutionary.

To upgrade this system, you had to buy special-purpose accessory boards that plugged into the motherboard (system board of the computer) and you had to buy a separate display device to see the system's output and that device needed a special plug-in card so it would work, too.

This, again, was hardly a new trend in the microcomputer world. Apple had been doing it successfully for years before IBM jumped into it.

Like Apple, though, IBM used a cagery marketing strategy, one which was totally out of character with the company's traditional policy of in-house development, it made its system and bus architecture public, publishing a detailed "Technical Reference Manual." This manual allowed developers of non-IBM-developed accessory boards, peripherals and software to have a look at the memory and input/output (I/O) structure of the system and to develop products for it. IBM even went so far as making most of its Basic Input/Output System (BIOS) software public, with the exception of some proprietary Read-Only Memory (ROM) cells, so that anything developed for the IBM PC was compatible not only with the basic system, but other accessory devices and with IBM-developed products.

For IBM it was quite a daring maneuver on the face of it. But, think about it for a moment. With its original minimal PC, it had very little at stake. If the market for the IBM PC failed to develop, the company was out the development costs of the basic system and for some tooling. Since the corporation relied so heavily on outside vendors, though, much of the development cost would be borne by third parties and they would be the ones who would have had to absorb any failure.

However, as we all know, the IBM-PC hardly failed at all. Almost at once, the market for this system began to skyrocket—even with the minimal level of hardware and software that was originally out there—and soon the IBM-PC became an industry standard. Almost immediately, a widespread network of hardware and software suppliers jumped on the bandwagon, providing IBM users with a wide array of accessory devices and software. Even IBM joined its own bandwagon by providing more and more IBM-packaged material for the PC.

Yet, IBM remained cautious, even though its market share in the microcomputer world soon approached and surpassed 80 percent. Some said this was due to IBM's fear of an anti-trust action if it came to dominate too much of the market. However, it is probably truer to say that it was a result of IBM's native business conservatism. It wanted to be sure the PC phenomenon was more than just a flash in the pan. And, while it took more than a year-and-a-half for it to be convinced of
the success of the PC, the corporation eventually began turning out upgrades and additions to the PC line.

First came the PC-XT, an upgraded IBM Personal Computer that used 64K RAM ICs to provide a maximum of 256K on the motherboard and a 10-megabyte hard disk. Then came other upgrades to this system, the PC-XT/3270, IX and more. Each of these systems had more power and functionality. Some could be tied into a network of terminals, while others could support the UNIX operating system.

Eventually, as it had done in the mainframe computer world, IBM offered a full lineup of business-oriented systems, ranging from the basic PC—now called the PC1—to the full-blown PC-XT/IX. It is now even beginning to offer a small computer system for the scientific and engineering world, based on its $9000 MC-68000 microcomputer called the S2.

However, if you look at all of the additions to the line, you will see there were still two crucial areas in which IBM had no entries, the home computer and portable computer realms. The first of these gaps was filled in November, 1983 with the introduction of the IBM PCjr shown in Fig. 1. (see March Radio Electronics for a description of PCjr). The second obvious gap was filled in February, 1984 with the introduction of the IBM Portable Personal Computer (see Fig. 2). This now makes IBM competitive in all areas of the microcomputer market, with the exception of the lap or kneetop computer area and it is more than likely that this gap will be filled before long.

Compatibility Across Board

Perhaps one of IBM's shrewdest moves with all of its entries in the small computer world is the use of a common microprocessor and system architecture across the line. This assures compatibility from the low end to the high end and it further means that users will be able to migrate from one system to a higher-powered system as their needs change.

More important for the user, though, is the fact that the software base won't become obsolete simply by changing to a different IBM computer. Because the system architecture and disk format is the same, a program that runs on the PCjr will run on the PC and will run on the PC-XT and so on, provided, of course, that you use DOS 2.1.

This type of compatibility solves one of the long-time complaints in the microcomputer world— incompatibility of operating environments.

Since IBM has become so powerful in the microcomputer world, there are now many PC-compatible systems on the market that will emulate the IBM product and can use some of the same software. Some of them are so compatible that they will act the same as a PC and will run even IBM's proprietary software. This means compatibility across a great number of machines. However, there are varying levels of compatibility and you do have to check to find out just how compatible an IBM-compatible computer is.

For IBM, though, the compatibility between its systems means it can keep users "in-house" as they upgrade in their microcomputer needs.

With all of this background set out, let's take a detailed look at the Portable PC and PCjr.

Portable PC

Like all the IBM Personal Computers, the Portable PC uses an Intel-designed 8088 microprocessor that runs at 4.7 MHz. This microprocessor has a 16-bit internal architecture—16 registers for storage and data and it handles data internally in 16-bit chunks—two 8-bit digital words at a time.

However, to get its data from the rest of the system, it must make two 8-bit data fetches. The reason is the 8088 microprocessor only has an 8-bit data path (bus). This means that before it can take any action on a digital instruction, it must send for 8 bits of data, store them temporarily, and then ask for the remaining 8 bits of the instruction. This does slow response time somewhat.

The PCjr'sentry level model is packaged with software that's especially designed for users with little or no computer experience.

Included with the Portable PC, is a standard 256K of user memory (RAM). This means this portable will be able to run even the most memory-hungry programs. (Many 16-bit programs written now rely on a minimum system configuration of 128K of RAM and some even require 256K. The reasoning behind them is that memory is cheap and it is far better for program response to load the entire program in RAM, rather than relying on constant disk access every time something new is needed by the program.) This level of RAM is expandable to a maximum of 512K.

Interestingly, this is only half of the amount of RAM that a 16-bit microprocessor such as the 8088 can address. In reality, it can address up to megabyte of RAM. However, because of system constraints, at the moment, this is limited to 640K on the PC.

The Portable PC weighs about 30 pounds and folds...
into a 20 x 17 x 8-inch package. It features the same type of 83-key, firm-touch keyboard that is used by the larger members of the IBM Personal Computer family.

Unlike the other members of the PC family, this system comes with a built-in 9-inch, high-resolution amber monitor that is capable of displaying graphics. It is capable of displaying the industry standard 80-columns by 25-lines and this makes this system ideal for professional use.

This system also offers a standard color-graphics monitor adapter card so this system can be used for color-graphics work and is compatible with the latest version of the IBM disk operating system—2.1. Since it is compatible with DOS 2.1, it indicates this system comes equipped with a disk drive—you don’t need DOS if you don’t have a disk drive and it does.

The standard disk drive is a slimline (half-height) double-sided, double-density unit that is capable of 360K of storage. A second drive is available as an option.

There are also five expansion slots on the motherboard, which, again, shows the heritage of the Portable PC—an open system architecture that you can fill in yourself. It does add to the initial $2,795 price for the one-drive system. An additional drive is $495, while a serial communications port is about $100, and a parallel printer port so you can use your Portable PC with a printer, is about another $150. The 256K memory addition option costs anywhere between $400 and $900, depending on where you get the 64K 250 ns RAM IC’s required.

It also boosts the cost of this system to about what you’d expect to pay retail for a similarly equipped two-drive IBM-PC1 desktop model. However, you do get the advantage of portability.

Portables versus PCjr

As we noted earlier, the portable plugs one of the holes in IBM’s small computer lineup, while PCjr plugs the other hole at the low end of the line.

Like the Portable, PCjr uses an 8088 microprocessor and, like the Portable, that processor runs at 4.7 MHz.

However, it’s where that the similarities stop and the contrasts begin.

Perhaps the first and biggest contrast is the price of the respective units. Where the Portable costs nearly $3,000, the PCjr is available in its base form for $669. This system includes 64K of RAM, a connector with a built-in RF modulator for a television set; a detachable 83-key keyboard; a connector for a cassette player so you can store data and load programs from tape, and Cartridge BASIC.

A more fully configured version—$1,889—includes the basic PCjr and 128K of RAM—the maximum allowed, versus the 512K possible with the Portable; the keyboard and a 360K slimline drive; the TV connector; the disk operating system; VisiCalc; Cartridge BASIC, and a word-processing program.

A fully configured system—$3,252—adds a high-resolution color display; connector for the display; internal modem; parallel printer adapter; graphics printer; Cartridge BASIC; the disk operating system, and a spreadsheet program.

As you can see, both systems are comparable in price when fully configured and both have about the same capability at that level. However, the Portable is a much more expensive machine in its basic form than the $1,889 PCjr and the Portable weighs much more, 30 pounds versus 11 pounds. However, it must be remembered that the Portable has much more metal in its construction than the nearly all-plastic PCjr.

Junior also has some standard features that are extra-cost options on the Portable or any other PC in the IBM product line. For instance, it features the built-in video adapter; a serial port, and a joystick adapter. It also features ROM software cartridge slots, another feature the larger PC lacks.

Where PCjr differs markedly is in its keyboard; system architecture and audio.

For starters, rather than employing the much more expensive, full-travel 83-key PC keyboard, Junior sports a 62-key cordless keyboard. It does support all of the same key functions as the bigger keyboard, but relies on dual-function keys to achieve them. Further, it lacks
any function keys and has no numeric keypad.

The lightweight keyboard should be a long-lived, fairly indestructible unit because of its construction. When you look at it, the first thing you notice are the calculator-type keys IBM used. The rationale for this is that since this is primarily aimed at the home market and everyone in the family will be using it, it doesn’t have to have a full, professional-style keyboard.

Underneath those keys is a rubber liner, that not only protects the inner workings of the keyboard from spills and other household disasters, but also provides them with the ability to return after being pushed. Each key has a corresponding dome impressed on the rubber liner and beneath this dome is a little circle of carbon that presses a contact and completes the key signal.

That signal travels through the keyboard’s circuits to an infrared emitter/transmitter, the other highlight of this keyboard. It is this transmitter that links the keyboard with the system unit. The system box contains an infrared detection circuit that reads the keyboard codes sent to it and they are translated into the proper system codes so they can be displayed on the display tube.

IBM says this keyboard can be used up to 20 feet away from the system box, but provides an optional cable (at extra cost) to tie the keyboard to the system box, should there be other infrared-emitting devices in the area. If there are, it is possible the keyboard codes will be scrambled. PCjr is the first home computer on the market to use this technology.

Another important area of difference between the keyboards of the Portable and the PCjr is direct memory access (DMA). The Portable has it, while Junior doesn’t. Because there is no direct memory access from the keyboard, the microprocessor must stop whatever it is doing whenever it needs more data or when it must write data to a disk or tape. This means there can be no keyboard input while Junior is handling a read or write-to-disk operation because the micro is totally absorbed with that operation. The keyboard is disabled, in fact, during information transfers.

This contrasts markedly with the Portable which uses DMA. This means you can continue to use the keyboard when a disk drive is accessed and you will not lose any keystrokes because they remain resident in the keyboard’s memory-buffer area in RAM. It also means the processor can run at full speed in all actions because it doesn’t have to devote its full attention to just one task.

System-Level Differences

There are also key differences at the system level that make the Portable and Junior stand apart. For starters, Junior can’t use an 8087 co-processor chip for number crunching, as the Portable can. This immediately eliminates some software from the PCjr’s repertoire.

Another difference is the level of RAM expandability. Where the Portable can be expanded up to 512K, Junior can only be expanded to 128K. This immediately limits the number of programs that can be used on the portable. (To better illustrate this, let’s say you have a PCjr with 128K of RAM. This RAM must set apart 16K for the video memory—the color display requires this—and 24K for the operating system—we’re assuming a disk drive is being used. This means you’ve used up 40K of RAM before you load your program. Now assume you load a 64K program into memory. This leaves only 24K of user memory for actual work, which isn’t much. So, you are limited in the range of programs you can use.)

Another key difference is the amount of Read-Only Memory (ROM) and what the system does with it. In Junior, there is 64K of ROM. This is taken up by a minimal level of BASIC called Cassette BASIC, the BIOS and built-in diagnostics. In the Portable, the BIOS takes up 8K of ROM and the same level of BASIC takes up about another 32K of ROM. That’s all there is. In Junior, the other 24K is taken up by disk operating routines that are handled from a program disk by the Portable.

Finally, the PCjr is capable of generating a three-voice sound, compared with the single-channel sound capability of the rest of the PC line. This is thanks to the Texas Instruments large-scale integration audio function IC that is used in Junior.

Compatibility

Since it uses the same disk format—the way a disk is set up to handle data—and the same disk size, it is theoretically possible to use any IBM-compatible program with Junior. However, as we noted earlier, its memory limits dictate which ones can be used. Further, since there is only one disk drive available, it must act in place of two drives with some programs that can also rule it out, unless you can reconfigure the program to work with one drive.

Yet, it should be possible to use many programs with Junior, provided they meet these criteria.

Overall, the IBM Portable PC and Junior are about as different as day is from night. The Portable is aimed at the more serious professional user or student, while the Junior is aimed at the home environment. However, in their own ways each system is as powerful as the other and, since they are nearly totally compatible, you can easily move from one to the other, allowing for easy migration as your needs change. Both systems should do well in their markets.
CP/M FOR BEGINNERS

HERB FRIEDMAN

NOTE

To avoid computer commands and statements which confuse the user, punctuation will be shown outside the quotation marks even when convention calls for them to be inside the marks. Also, capitalized words within the "<" and ">" symbols mean a specific key: i.e. <ENTER> is the key marked ENTER or RETURN (carriage return), while <CONTROL> means the key or keys on your computer which function as a single CONTROL key. While CP/M commands can be either in upper or lower case or a combination of case, for uniformity they will be shown in upper case only. For example, the command LOAD=load=LoAd=Load, etc.

PART 2

Even if you learn nothing else about CP/M, you should learn how to use the PIP and STAT utilities.

The point is open to debate, but for the applications-oriented user of the modern personal computer, the very keystone of CP/M is a utility program supplied with CP/M called PIP—an acronym for Peripheral Interchange Program.

In plain terms, PIP is the equivalent of the function "COPY TO". When we say PIP a program, we are in effect saying that we have loaded a program into the computer's memory that permits us to copy a program, data, or just a single character from one piece of hardware to another.

PIP came about because the kind of computer for which CP/M was originally intended could accommodate many different user-selectable I/O (input/output) devices generically called "peripherals", and PIP provided the means whereby data could be exchanged among the various devices.

To digress for a moment, keep in mind that each peripheral accommodated by CP/M is identified for I/O by a "colon". For example, the control terminal is CON; the printer is LST; the disk drives are A:, B:, C:, etc.

Except for one specific case, without the colon CP/M has no idea what device is to be used. (We'll get to the exception later.) Many newcomers to CP/M have difficulty with CP/M because they forget about the colon, or inadvertently substitute ";" or ";" because of the keyboard layout. Without the colon, PIP will not work.

PIP works this way: Let's assume for a moment that after years of effort you have written a program called FUTURE.COM which foretells the future. It is located on a disk in drive A:. You are ready to have the computer tell you what horses will win tomorrow at Hialeah, but you're afraid to run the program for fear it will crash and years of effort will be wiped out, so you want to make a backup copy in disk drive B:. You do it with PIP. The command line "PIP B:=A:FUTURE.COM" will cause the program PIP to load into the computer's memory, auto-run and copy to disk drive B: the FUTURE.COM program from drive A:, then return you to the CP/M command prompt: "A>".

By now you should have guessed that under PIP the "=" character means "from". You should also recognize that copies have the same filename as the original, unless specifically changed. For example, the command "PIP B:=MAKEMONI.COM=A:FUTURE.COM" will result in disk B: having the file MAKEMONI.COM, which is a mirror image of FUTURE.COM except for the filename.

At this point some of you old hands at CP/M are probably ready to take pen in hand to write in that there is no need to identify the control (default) disk drive, that the proper entry when A: is the control (default) drive is "PIP B:=FUTURE.COM" rather than "PIP B:COM=A:FUTURE.COM".

You are correct, of course. The control drive is the exception we mentioned earlier if no device is specified CP/M assumes you mean the default drive, which is drive A:, or whatever you select as the control drive. Unfortunately, many newcomers to CP/M get
confused as to when to specify the control device. The fewest difficulties arise if the control drive is always entered where it would normally be assumed. It does no harm to enter the control drive.

Another example of PIP will serve to clarify its power and then we can move on. If we enter the command "PIP LST: = CON: " we are saying copy to the line printer (LST:) from the control console (CON:). What we type on the keyboard will go to the printer and will be printed on a sheet of paper. Logically this "connection" will last to the end of time, so how do we free the printer from the keyboard? With a <CONTROL> - Z, PIP's command for "bail out". When PIP receives a <CONTROL> - Z it terminates a copy function.

Multiple file operations

When we use a single command line for PIP, such as "PIP B: = A: FUTURE.COM", we are returned to the CP/M command prompt (the "A:"*) when the copy is completed. However, if we have several disk files to transfer it's possible to "lock" the computer in the PIP mode and simply issue a series of "copy" commands.

To enter a "locked" PIP mode type "PIP <ENTER>". The screen will return the asterisk symbol ("*"), which we call a "star" when talking in CP/Mese. (CP/Mese being a foreign language slightly more difficult to understand than Chinese.) When the star is on the screen we can transfer data by simply typing the desired copy command, such as "B: = A: FUTURE.COM". When the copy is completed the star reappears on the screen and you can enter another direct copy command, such as "LST: = CON:" which causes the lineprinter to print whatever is entered on the keyboard. A. <CONTROL> - Z returns control to PIP and the star appears.

When all the copies have been completed, a keyboard <CONTROL> - C terminates PIP and returns the computer to the CP/M command prompt ("A:"*).

The entire sequence for three file copies might appear on the screen as:

A: > PIP <ENTER>
* B: = A: FUTURE.COM (ENTER>
* C: = WORDSTAR.DOC = B: TEXTFILE. TXT <ENTER>
* LST: = CON; (ENTER>
Your typed text appears here and goes to the printer:
<CONTROL> - Z
* <CONTROL> - C <ENTER>
A: >

Notice that while the <ENTER> key must be depressed to enter each copy command which is self-completing, a <CONTROL> - Z is required to terminate/complain the keyboard entry mode.

When you want all the user files on a disk PIP'd to another disk, you can avoid entering a command line for each file by using PIP's universal "copy everything" command called "STAR-DOT-STAR", meaning "*.*.*". The command "PIP B: = A:.*.*." will result in every user file on disk B being copied to disk A.

Let's take a break and try to work out a few unusual applications of PIP. For a refresh, remember we said PIP will always assume the control drive. Figure this one out: "PIP LST: = FUTURE.DAT" if you said a disk text data file on the command drive will be copied on the printer you've got a decent grasp of PIP (If FUTURE.DAT was a binary rather than a text file, the print would consist of "garbage").

Here's a more difficult one. "PIP B: DOCUMENT.TXT = CON:"
This PIP command will produce a text disk file called DOCUMENT.TXT on drive B: as you type on the control console's keyboard. You would enter a <CONTROL> - Z to indicate the text is completed and you wanted to terminate PIP and return to the "A:"* CP/M prompt (for whatever you're using for the command drive).

PIP options

PIP has a whole slew of options which are appended within bracket symbols to the end of the PIP command. (Remember, you must use brackets: "[]" and "[]", not parenthesis.) Some are useful for the average user; others are intended primarily for programmers and other computer science types. We shall cover only the most important applications-oriented options. First off, there is the V-option, which checks a destination disk file against the original. It takes somewhat longer for the PIPing to finish, but you can be certain you have a glitch-free copy. The V-option is entered thusly: "PIP B: = A: FUTURE.COM[V]".

CP/M has things called "hidden" files, which you don't normally see displayed when you call for a directory listing. To copy a hidden file you must use the R-option, which you can simply tack on to any other option within the brackets. For example, a PIP command might be: "PIP C: = B: HIDDENFIL.COM[VR]", meaning, copy the hidden file BHIDENFIL.COM on drive C: and also verify the copy. Other useful options are listed in your CP/M manual, but one of the most useful, the G-option, is often understood by newcomers to CP/M.

The G-option means "get"—get a file from a user area from 1 to 15. In the last installment of this article, we showed how user files are used to avoid directory clutter, that related disk files could be assigned with a software "tag" to specific user areas. It is the G-option that permits you to copy tagged disk files. For example, assume you have concealed your spreadsheet data in B: drive USER 5 under the filename MULTPLN.DAT, but you now need to integrate some of its data into a report you're preparing with your word processor in drive A: USER 0. This is where the G-option comes in.

If you enter the command "PIP A: = B: MULTPLN.DAT[GS]" CP/M will have no idea what you're talking about because all drives operate in the same user area as the control drive, and there is no spreadsheet datafile in the USER 0 area of drive B: But if your command is "PIP A: = B: MULTPLN.DAT[GS] you will copy the datafile to A: because "[GS] tells PIP to get the disk file from USER 5. Sneaky, no? Problem is, the author of CP/M did not include a function that works the other way. You cannot use PIP to move a disk file to another user area. For example, assume you have your crystal ball program FUTURE.COM on disk A: USER 0, the default user area, and you want to conceal it from general view in USER 8. It can't be done with a straight PIP command because, except for special versions of PIP used for hard disk computers, PIP will not copy to a user area. If you enter the USER 8 area you still can't copy because
PIP does not exist in USER 8. This is called "...being caught between a rock, a hard place, and a somewhat sloppy disk operating system". What you must do is create a copy of PIP in USER 8. (If you say the disk will now have two PIP programs, one tagged USER 8 and the other USER 8 you have a solid grasp of CP/M.) Creating a copy of PIP in USER 8 is a simple enough procedure that you don't have to understand. It's like using a housekey. The key opens the lock but you don't have to understand how the lock works to be able to get into your home.

It can be done this way: Place the disk with the program FUTURE.COM and PIP in drive A; Place a disk with the CP/M utility DDT.COM in drive B; In response to the A: CP/M prompt enter "B:DDT PIPCOM", which tells the computer to load DDT from drive B and process PIP from drive A; The screen will show:

DDT VERS 2.2
NEXT PC
xxxx xxxx (xxxx is a Hex number)

The "." is your prompt. Type "GO"
<ENTER>. Then type "USER 8"
<ENTER>. Then type "SAVE 99 PIPCOM"
<ENTER>. The entire sequence will appear on the screen as:

A=DDT PIPCOM
DDT VERS 2.2
Next PC
xxxx xxxx
-G0
A=USER 8
A=SAVE 99 PIPCOM

If you have any problem running PIP in USER 8 substitute the command "SAVE 30 PIPCOM". You will be left in USER 8. A DIR command will show PIPCOM in the directory, which you can now use to move FUTURE.COM from USER 8. But remember, you will need the "get" tag for PIP. To copy the program you will use the command "PAP: = A: FUTURE.COM [GO]. (If you can understand this the first time around you are going to be a whiz at CP/M.) To help those of you having some difficulty understanding what is being done, the command line means: "Copy to the USER 8 area of A: the program FUTURE.COM from the USER 0 area of the same disk (A:).

Your disk will now contain two copies of PIPCOM and two of FUTURE.COM. You can erase PIPCOM from USER 8 and FUTURE.COM from USER 0.

If you plan on extensive use of the user areas, life will be much easier in general if you prepare a sygnessed (system) disk having PIPCOM utility in all the planned user areas, perhaps 0 through 6, or 8. In this way, if you're in a user area and you want to copy or move a program you can pop your PIP disk into drive B; or C; or whatever, and instantly use PIP from any user area without having to go through the DDT routine each time. In my own case I have a disk with PIP, STAT, and XDIF (a public domain extended directory) in each user area.

The STAT command

The CP/M utility "STAT" serves two purposes. In the first instance it means "statistics", and will provide information on individual files or the disk itself. It tells you how many records are used for each disk file, the file size (in increments of 2K), how much storage is available on the entire disk itself, and how much is left. The problem with STAT is it provides information on only one file or drive at a time. On the other hand, a public domain program called XDIF (get a copy from a friend) serves as both a directory and universal STAT command, simultaneously providing statistics on all the files and the entire disk itself.

Figures 1, 2 and 3 illustrates the difference. Figure 1 is a standard directory listing of a disk. Figure 2 is the display when a STAT is taken on the POWER.COM file. Note the display shows how many bytes remain on the disk. Figure 3 is the display using XDIF (extended directory); it presents a directory, all the important statistics on each user file, and a lot of meaningful statistics on the disk itself.

FIG. 1—A STANDARD CP/M DIRECTORY listing will produce a display similar to this one.

FIG. 2—THE STAT COMMAND of a file listed in the directory displays the statistics of the particular program and the available disk storage space.

FIG. 3—XDIF, a public domain CP/M utility combines the DIR and STAT commands and produces an alphabetized listing that also contains the file and disk statistics.
You found an error! The files only add up to 90K but the disk statistics shows 94K used! The "missing" 4K are the invisible system files, the ones not listed by the directory.

Figure 4 is an unusual kind of extended directory: the "STAT" screen display produced by the D.COM file used by Kaypro. It also shows the length of each file and the disk statistics, but notice it subtracts the system files from the total disk capacity. It displays the available capacity as 160K rather than 170K. The numbers are slightly different but the end result is the same.

STAT also works as an "assign" function. Among other things STAT can assign a file or a disk to be read only, or read/write. For many newcomers to CP/M, the most intriguing function is STAT's ability to assign different peripherals as I/O devices.

As we mentioned earlier, CP/M was intended to work with many peripherals. In actual fact, CP/M recognizes only the disk drives and four "logical" devices: LST: (list device for output, i.e., a printer); PUN: (punch device for data input); RDR: (reader for data input); and CON: (control terminal). In order to get the data in and out of the disk statistics show 94K used! The "missing" 4K are with many peripherals. In actual fact, CP/M recognizes only the disk drives and four "logical" devices: LST: (list device for output, i.e., a printer); PUN: (punch device for data input); RDR: (reader for data input); and CON: (control terminal). In order to get the data in and out of the disk statistics, but notice it subtracts the system files, the ones not listed by the directory, the peripheral itself must be assigned to function as one of the four recognized devices, what CP/M calls the "logical" device.

CP/M supports twelve physical devices, though the modern personal computer might support only four to eight of them. The physical devices include the CRT: (video display terminal), UC1: (user defined console), a TTY: (teletype terminal or printer), and assorted user-installed I/O devices such as PTR: (paper tape reader), PTP: (paper tape punch), URI: (user defined tape reader), UPI: (user defined punch), ULI: (user defined list device).

Each manufacturer more or less decides for himself what physical devices will be allowed and whether they will be serial or parallel input, or both, or IEEE 488. Often, a manufacturer will assign several "physical" devices to the same I/O port. For example, TTY: URI: and CRT: might all reference the same serial port. Regardless which you selected you would end up on the serial I/O. It is the logical relationship that selects the logical-physical relationship. For example, one popular computer allows the user to select one of four physical devices as a logical device. They are:

CON: = TTY: CRT: BAT: UC1:
LST: = TTY: CRT: LPT: URI:
RDR: = TTY: PTR: URI: UR2:
PUN: = TTY: PTR: URI: LPI:

What this chart shows are the four possible peripherals that can be assigned to each logical function. To keep things simple, the manufacturer will probably have CP/M recognize TTY: BAT: UC1: PTR: and URI: as the serial RS-232C I/O, LPT: the line printer, as either serial or parallel, and URI: as parallel. Actually, he can allow whatever assignments he wants to permit. (The user will not have 12 individual I/O ports to worry about.)

Every desktop computer has default device assignments which can be changed by the user through the STAT command. For example, "STAT CON: = TTY:" will cause a connected teletypewriter to function as the control terminal, while a "STAT CON: = LPT:" will permit any terminal connected to the serial I/O to function as the control terminal because the manufacturer decided UC1: will represent the RS-232C port on his computers.

Similarly, "STAT LST: = LPT:" will use the parallel printer as the printer, while "STAT LST: = URI:" uses a serial printer connected to the serial port as the listing device.

For each computer, the "STAT VAL:" command results in a listing of all the possible device assignments for a particular computer, while "STAT DEV:" lists the current device assignments, as illustrated in Figs. 5 and 6.

While many of the PIP and STAT functions appear formidable the first few times you try to understand or use them—you actually can use them without understanding anything about them, their mystery tends to vanish when you spend an evening or so experimenting "hands on". You can't break anything if

**FIG. 4—KAYPO'S D.COM combined DIR and STAT utility provides almost the same information as XDIR. The major difference being the way the disk statistics are presented.**

**FIG. 5—AMONG OTHER TIDBITS of information about the disk, the command STAT VAL: shows the possible physical device assignments for CP/M's four logical devices. For example, the CON: (control terminal) cannot be assigned to LPT: (the printer), or whatever is considered URI: or UC1: or only be TTY: or LPT: or URI:**

**FIG. 6—THE STAT COMMAND displays the actual logical/physical assignments in use.**

you make a mistake, all you can do is erase disk files, so just make certain you don't have your only copy of FUTURE.COM in the disk drive when you give PIP and STAT that "Old Hand's-On Try".
COMPUTER
GRAPHICS

The best way to convey a lot of information quickly is through computer graphics.

HERB FRIEDMAN

Among the most eye catching computer screen displays is anything having to do with graphics. Whether it's row after row of three-dimensional bars that look more like skyscraper buildings, multi-colored pies with a slice cut out, or just irregular lines that rise and fall as they interface with other lines, graphic displays are unusual, attractive, and do catch our attention; so much so that personal computers and their software are often touted or sold on the basis of their graphics capabilities.

For example, ask your local computer store salesperson to demonstrate Lotus 1-2-3 and they will probably bring up some form of spreadsheet display, then exclaim "Watch this!" as they touch a few keys, and suddenly the screen transforms into a bar graph representation of the data. A most impressive demonstration because it proves the old cliche that "A picture is worth a thousand words."

Or maybe you're shopping for a printer. It's a safe bet that somewhere along the line the graphics capabilities of various dot-matrix printers will be prominently mentioned, and in most—if not all—instances the graphics will be discussed in terms of bar and pie charts, not computer art.

Unfortunately, what you see is often not what you get when it comes to graphics and the less-expensive computer systems, those we call the home-and-family or small business systems. There are inherent limitations in both the computers and printers which restrict what, or how much data can be graphically displayed, or the manner in which it's displayed. Then again, there is also the cost of the software itself. Decent graphics—other than conventional bar charts—require some rather sophisticated programming, and even not-so-good graphics software doesn't come cheap. Depending on how much performance is being offered for the money, a low-cost software package can range from "not bad" to "downright rotten", with "not bad" the more common level of performance.

Bar charts

Take, for example, the bar charts mentioned earlier. Bar charts are relatively easy to program in BASIC, so even budget software can accommodate some form of automatic data-to-graphics conversion. The EASY FINANCE I software for the Commodore 64 computer is a good illustration of low-cost bar-charting. The program itself is primarily intended to resolve typical home-and-family financial situations, such as the difference in monthly payments depending on the size and interest rate of a mortgage, the size of monthly payments on financed shop test equipment, the actual interest charged by the bank on a family or business loan; how much interest your money earns depending on the interest rate, frequency of compounding, etc.

While all the information displayed on the screen can be printed, EASY FINANCE I will permit the user to convert charted data such as the screen display shown in Fig. 1 into bar graphs. Considering that the program sells for less than $20, that's a lot of performance for the price.

Most inexpensive computers such as the Commodore 64 and the Radio Shack Color Computer support graphics. Unfortunately, the same cannot usually be done with a somewhat more expensive computer because, unless retrofitted with hardware, they usually will not support a meaningful graphics display. Typical CP/M computers, at best, support limited graphics: a bar this way, a line that way, a triangle, a rectangle—altogether, not enough for a precise or meaningful graphics-screen display. Oh, there will be something on the screen, but a meaningful display must be printed using a matrix printer.

Many programmers recognize the limitation of computers not having specific graphics capability and don't even try for a screen display, even for those computers having limited screen-graphics capability. Instead, the effort goes into providing notably good printer output from standard printers. The DATA PLOT software (Lark Software, 7 Cedars Rd., Caldwell, NJ 07006) is a good example of low-cost software giving noteworthy performance by limiting itself to doing a particular job well. DATA PLOT is specifically intended only for the printing of line, multi-line and scatter charts. To this end it will read data directly from values entered into disk file via a word processor, or directly from a spreadsheet or other datafile. After the titles, headings, etc. are prepared, all output shifts directly to the printer where a chart is printed that is precisely the specified size (in inches), with the titles also precisely positioned because their positions are also specified in inches, rather than estimated by the cursor position. For extreme title-positioning accuracy—the equal of

FIG. 1—EVEN A SIMPLE BAR GRAPH makes data easy to comprehend.
FIG. 2—OUTPUT FROM DATA PLOT shows how much you can convey with just a simple line chart.

FIG. 3—A MIXED GRAPH of lines and unconnected points produced by DATA PLOT. It's almost impossible to convey the meaning of the data with just words.

typesetting—the user can make a print, measure dimensions on the print, and then go back to the program and specify precisely where the titles are to be located within a tenth of an inch.

Another extra feature of DATA PLOT is that the "points" for each line can have a different size, shape or shading, making it easy to follow which line goes where. This kind of detail is possible only on moderately expensive computers (such as the IBM) or through a printout when using a low-cost computer.

Examples of the DATA PLOT output are shown in Figs. 2 and 3.

An unusual example of sophisticated graphics for budget computers is Radio Shack's "GRAPHICS PAK" for their Color Computer. GRAPHICS PAK provides line, bar and even pie charts. It can stack several charts on a single bar, group bars, create multi-color pie charts, and even create a pie chart with a displaced wedge.

FIG. 4—TYPICAL OF GRAPHICS PAK. this Color Computer display can be edited and re-edited until the desired graph is obtained. GRAPHICS PAK is considered by many to be the best low-cost graphics instructional aid.

The screen displays can be in moderately high definition 2-color or low definition 4-color. While the graphics can be printed out, at the time this article was prepared it was possible only using two specific Radio Shack printers, one a monochrome (one color) matrix "line printer", the other a color "pen plotter" using a "print head" holding four (including black) colored pens. Unfortunately, the color printer utilizes a narrow width paper which must be pasted on a larger sheet if incorporated into reports.

Naturally, one doesn't expect gold-plated performance from a budget priced computer. While you can save the "charts" on cassette tape, each must be initially created by directly entering the data on the keyboard. GRAPHICS PAK does not read data from a file without automatically extracting data from spreadsheets, word-processed tables, etc.

Storage and printer limitations aside, however, if you need a decent screen display for your own viewing, for photography, or for demonstration in a classroom, a showcase, or whatever, the GRAPHICS PAK Color Computer package does the job well. Figure 4 shows the kind of photo record you can get from GRAPHICS PAK using a low-cost Polaroid camera.

Graphics and CP/M

The same kind of multi-chart capability as GRAPHICS PAK—but with printing and automatic calculations—is available for CP/M computers through several programs, one of the best known being GRAFIK 2.0. (Robronics, 936 Hermosa Ave., Hermosa Beach, CA 90254). GRAFIKS 2.0 creates multi-bar, line and pie charts. It will accept input directly from the keyboard or it will read data from files, such as a SuperCalc data file, and it even permits overlays of one chart on another. Typical of the better graphics software, GRAFIKS 2.0 will do automatic scaling. Even if you make an error in data entry, such as entering percentages that do not add up to the whole of a pie, GRAFIKS will attempt to correct the user's "errors" by converting percents to a whole, providing decimal values if necessary. It will also solve algebraic equations and plot the results (such as a sinewave).
Because of the graphics limitations of unenhanced CP/M, the GRAFIKS 2.0 screen display only serves as a reference for making rough evaluations of the graphics display and for the positioning of labels and titles. Unlike the precise title positioning of DATA PLOT, the GRAFIKS 2.0 labels are positioned on the screen with guesstimates; final positioning can be corrected after the first print is made. Figures 5 and 6 show some of the flexibility of a full-featured graphics program such as GRAFIKS 2.0.

Because graphics printout is highly dependent on the printer being used, it's important that you are certain the software will work with your printer. As a general rule, graphics software will be available in several versions to accommodate the popular printers, or will be provided with several user-selected "drivers" for a broad selection of printers. Even then you must be careful. For example, much of the graphics software is intended for printout on an Epson MX-80 printer or one of its clones. There are, however, at least three versions of the MX-80: the original model, the Grafix model (which provides backspacing), and the Graflex Plus model (backspacing and a bagful of bells and whistles). As a general rule, a printer must backspace or it cannot create graphics with most of the lower priced software. Radio Shack, as mentioned earlier, is in a whole different ballpark with its graphics software and they are limited to their own printers, one of which does not use standard paper, for printouts from GRAPHICS PAK.

DATA PLOT can use several printers and either Epson Grafix model. GRAFIKS 2.0, however, which will utilize both Grafix Epson printers, works differently. A Grafix model repositions (homes) the print head full left before every tick (mark) on the paper; the wear on the positioning motor for a single printout is severe, and one can actually sense that the motor is slowing. The Grafix-Plus printers, on the other hand, allow the head to track directly across the paper; printing each tick in sequence without homing the print head. In addition to saving wear on the positioning motor, Grafix-Plus printers take minutes to create a graph that would take almost an hour on the non-Grafix-Plus MX-80.

Admittedly, it's hard to determine how your printer will function with a particular graphics program before you buy the program. Since rarely, if ever, is software returnable if not originally defective, it's worth the extra effort to find out if the software will deliver optimum performance with your printer before you buy.

If you need a high definition graphics screen display from a home/business computer in addition to, or in place of, a printout, there's really not much you can do. While the Atari and Commodore computers have the capability for acceptable screen display, the software selection doesn't exist (not much demand to start with). If you have a Radio Shack Model III computer you have lucked out. Radio Shack has a high definition retrofit, for which there is presently a limited selection of stand-alone software; it's really intended for use from within a BASIC program. If you need stand-alone software the GRAFYX SOLUTION retrofit (Micro-Labs, Inc. 902 Pinecrest, Richardson, TX 75080) is probably what you need. That aftermarket device consists of a small board that plugs into the Model III; it provides a 512 x 192 dot display.

The GRAFYX can be utilized directly from a BASIC program (either commercial or user-written), or through pre-written software from Micro-Labs that is specifically written for use with GRAFYX. Among the Micro-Labs software is BIZGRAPH, which creates three dimensional bar graphs, and line and shaded area charts and charts integrating both presentations, and pie charts.

We have touched briefly on some of the highlights of graphics software for the lower cost computers. If there is one general rule we can apply to graphics software it's that the most important feature, the one you are spending the money for, probably isn't in the package you're preparing to buy. Either it won't create a desired type of screen display, or you don't have the right printer; or the chart you want is too large for your purpose, or one of a hundred other things. If a particular graphics function is important to you, do not trust to the opinions of the computer store's sales force (who haven't the vaguest idea how most of the software they sell works). If they can't or won't give you a demonstration of the precise functions you need using exactly the peripherals you have, then check, double-check and finally triple-check with the software's publisher.
Q. Even though we're not using it, we still have to allow for the time it takes for the 4018 to cycle through it.

Make sure you understand that!

Translating that bit of common sense to actual resistor values is really simple. We look up the sine of the angles we're interested in and generate a table like that shown in Fig. 3. We already know the angles we want—they're listed together in the appropriate column in the table. The last column translates that data into something that's easier for us human beings to use. All that we've done is to make the relative proportions a bit more evident by dividing all the sine values into 951.

So, you may well ask, what do we have to do next?

Well, believe it or not, that's all we have to do! All our work is done and the only arithmetic (as opposed to mathematics) we have left is some multiplication. What the last column in the table is telling us is that in order to generate a sinewave using 4 of the outputs from 5 daisy-chained flip-flops, the resistor values have to be in the proportions indicated. Pick a convenient value for $R_2$ and $R_3$, do the arithmetic, and you've got your resistor values! Of course, you might have a hard time finding standard-value resistors in the right ratios, but that's a common problem— and, naturally enough, it has a common solution. You can use precision resistors if you're rich enough, or trimmers if you're not. In any event, we've got it made!

I know you haven't seen the math we managed to avoid doing, so you can't appreciate the kind of work we saved. What we've done is a classic example of how a common-sense approach to a problem can eliminate a lot of effort and keep the men in the white coats from your door. Let's go through the reasoning behind all that and make sure we understand it.

If the data is recirculated in the 4018, 5 incoming clock cycles have to pass before the output states start to repeat. One complete cycle of the 4018's outputs will be needed for each half of the sinewave we want to generate, regardless of how many of the outputs we actually use. That means that each incoming clock pulse will come when the sinewave we want to generate has advanced one fifth of its full cycle or 36 degrees (180/5).

The amplitude of the sinewave at any point on the curve can be found by looking up the sine of the angle. Once we've listed all the things we need, we can find the ratios of the resistors we need to generate the wave. See that? It is simple!

If you decide you want to use more flip-flops in the sinewave generator that you build, you'll have to recalculate the resistor values. Just go through the same reasoning we outlined and you won't have any problems.

From a practical point of view, I would recommend that you standardize the lowest value resistor at 10K or so and use trimmers to get the other values that you'll need. Just measure the 10K resistors to get the exact value, and do the arithmetic to find out what to set the trimmers. Set them out of the circuit and use a bit of nail polish to lock them in place before you put them on the board.

There are other parts to this sinewave generator we're slowly designing: the input clock, frequency selector, and the output filter. The most interesting one is the input clock. With a little bit of thought, we can make it variable so that the frequency selector can be something as simple as a potentiometer. That was one of our original design criteria.

Since we've already seen that the input clock has to run ten times faster than the maximum sinewave frequency we want to produce (remember—the 4018 is set up to divide by ten), we need a clock that can be tuned over a 1000:1 range with a twist of the wrist. There are a couple of things that come to mind that will fill the bill, but we ought to think about refinements such as crystal control of the frequency, stability, low-power requirements, and all those other good things.

And that brings us to next month, when we'll start on all that and see if we can put the whole circuit together in the real world.

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THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF NICKEL-Cadmium or NiCd batteries for use as power sources, has caused them to begin showing up in many electronic parts catalogs and advertisements. Because they're still relatively expensive when compared with alkaline cells, the advertisers in the back of this and other electronics publications offer them at a considerable discount; usually at least 30% off the regular price. And though nickel-cadmium batteries don't have the staying power of alkaline cells, being able to recharge them several times makes them extremely attractive for use in battery-powered devices. Also, they provide a constant voltage over the life of the charge, are relatively trouble free, and the charging circuitry for them is easy to design. All in all, if you take good care of them, they'll take good care of you.

However, one constant source of irritation in using NiCd cells has, paradoxically, nothing to do with the batteries. The problem that we're referring to has to do with the charger, or more specifically the charging indicator. The irritation comes from the fact that the indicators are often misleading—they show that the charger is plugged in, but tell you nothing as to whether or not the batteries are actually taking a charge. And that's not all: There's a second source of trouble as well. Let's assume that your charging circuitry doesn't include some sort of automatic changeover to trickle charge after the batteries have reached a certain charge level. If you keep pumping current into them at the same rate, you stand a good chance of blowing them up. Though NiCd cells may be available at discount prices, they're not exactly cheap enough to destroy.

This month's circuit, shown in Fig. 1, is deceptively simple—it only calls for a handful of parts. But believe me when I say that it can save you a whole bunch of time, trouble, and, most important, money. It gives you a way to make sure that the batteries are really charging and also tells you when they're fully charged.

How it works

In the schematic shown in Fig. 1, transistor Q1 has its base-emitter junction connected across the sensing resistor (RSENSE) on the line carrying the charging current. (Note that RCURRENT LIMIT is a part of the charger itself.) When the batteries are put on charge, current flows through the sensing resistor causing a voltage drop to be developed across it, and the resulting voltage turns on the transistor. With the transistor turned on, current flow through it causes the LED to turn on. However, the LED won't light unless the batteries are taking a charge! Sounds simple doesn't it?

Another feature of the circuit is that if the right value is chosen for the sensing resistor, the LED will extinguish when the batteries are fully charged, because of a change in current flow through the circuit. Now, if the LED were part of some opto-isolator arrangement, you could automatically increase the charger's current limiting resistor and cut the charge down to a trickle. Not bad for a handful of parts—and cheap ones at that! We can't give you a value for the sensing resistor, because that depends on the amount of current needed to charge the batteries. However, calculating the resistance value needed is a piece of cake. Because we're using a silicon PNP transistor, it's going to take a voltage drop of about .65 volt to turn it on. The next thing you'll need to know is the charge rate of your unit. (Many chargers have their charge current and voltage printed on the wall transformer.) Once you have that information, the arithmetic is simple. The correct value for the sensing resistor can be found through the simple application of Ohms' law:

$$E = IR$$

$$R_{SENSE} = \frac{.65V}{I_{CHARGE}}$$

The value needed will typically be between 60 and 200 ohms.

Since the current-limiting resistor is usually much larger than 200 ohms, you can ignore the current limiting that the sensing resistor does. But try to keep that value as close to the calculated value as possible, because you want the transistor to turn off when the charging current starts to drop. If you're only interested in making sure that the batteries are really charging, you can forget the sensing resistor and put the transistor right across the current-limiting resistor. The parts for the circuit should cost you less than 50 cents and considering the price of NiCd batteries, that's really a cheap insurance policy!
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MENTION VOLTAGE REGULATORS WHEN talking to a group of knowledgeable electronics buffs and you're sure to be met with "So what," "What's new?" or some other similar remark indicating uninterest. After all, most electronics technicians and experimenters consider the voltage regulator to be a simple 3-terminal device that outputs a specified voltage that's lower than its supply voltage. Your "know-it-all" friends wouldn't be so smug had they read Motorola's data sheet on the TL431 adjustable-shunt regulator (introduced by Texas Instruments and now second-sourced by Motorola).

The TL431 is a precision adjustable-
continued on page 97
you'll be working with some dangerous chemicals. Of course that's true whenever you make a PC board, but there are more of them in Pro-Kit I. The only chemicals that don't have to be mixed are the resist ink and block-out. The etchant (ammonium persulfate), ink stripper (trisodium phosphate), and developer (chemical name not given) must be mixed with water.

The developer for the photosensitive film comes as two packages of powder which must be mixed together with one gallon of distilled water. Unfortunately, you must discard the solution at the end of the day. (If stored, it forms a powerful gas.) But the manual gives instructions for making 2 cups of developer at a time.

**What you get**

Let's see what is contained in Pro-Kit I: a workboard and a screen (15 x 15 inches), a 12 x 12-inch contact printer (a felt-covered wood base with a glass cover); photosensitive film material (8 x 42 inches); a squeegee for ink pulls; a spreader for block-out; an 8 x 12 inch plastic tray for developing and etching, stencil developer (two packages of powder that are mixed with water), two single-sided copper clad boards (4 x 12 and 6 x 12 inches), and two double-sided copper-clad boards (4 x 12 and 6 x 12 inches).

The instruction manual is 16 pages and is—as its introduction states—written with the hobbyist in mind. The manual isn't perfect, but it's much better than most. It's amply illustrated and laid out in a logical and organized manner. What is missing from the manual is a brief overview of the process before the step-by-step instructions. If you're unfamiliar with silk-screening, you have to read through the manual a few times to get the idea of it. We did like to see the following note at the beginning: "Practice makes perfect...the more you use your kit, the better your results will be."

With Pro-Kit I, you can make near-professional-quality PC boards. It's not suited for the casual hobbyist, but if you're a serious hobbyist and make a lot of PC boards, then Pro-Kit I might be a good way to go—especially if you have a few boards of the same pattern. If you don't make a lot of boards, then the $99.95 cost is probably too expensive.

Beta Electronics offers a copper-plating and solder-plating service at 5.05 per square inch ($3 minimum). They will also drill your board for $0.04 per hole and can produce your photography ($5 for 5 x 7 inch artwork), and they can do the complete fabrication of your PC board ($75 minimum).
I contend that we can fix computers! Half of one anyway! The half that I'm talking about is the display section. All computers have two main sections: the computing circuits to do the actual work, and the readout so that we can see what the computer has done. Most display units are nothing more than a CRT in a box, along with DC supplies and video amplifiers—sound familiar? It should, since it's nothing more than the back half of a TV set. Still, many computer manufacturers are a little secretive about them. For instance, I recently called up one of the largest video-monitor manufacturers and all I got was shuffled around from phone to phone, and finally wound up in Publications. And when I asked the young lady if I could borrow a service manual for the display unit, I was informed (in very snooty tones) that they didn't want any "ham-handed" service technician, using a pair of glass pliers and a blowtorch, fooling around inside their delicate machinery. I didn't tell her that I worked with delicate circuits every day; I just quietly hung up and went away. However, we did get a lead and our guide from another, more obliging source.

There are two basic types of computer monitor: the raster-scan type and the X-Y or vector monitor. Let's look at the raster-scan monitor first.

**Raster-scan monitor**

The raster-scan monitor is more or less a modified TV set. It gets the same symptoms as a TV: no raster, no vertical scan, etc. So simply check the same things in the monitor that you would normally check if you were working on a TV set. The display's input (video) signal comes from the computer's output, and is easily traced with a scope. The display unit will contain at least one video-amplifier stage; or three, (for the RGB signals) if it's a color monitor. All the associated DC power supplies, including the high-voltage (about 14,000 volts) and the low-voltage DC supplies, are derived from the flyback. A crosshatch pattern from a dot/bar generator can be used for troubleshooting. The setup adjustments on raster-scan monitors and all of the controls are exactly the same, so we'll say no more about that.

**Vector monitor**

The vector type monitor may seem new to some of you, but it really isn't! The reason that it isn't new is that all scopes are X-Y monitors! Figure 1-a shows what X-Y means: as shown, the X dimension means horizontal axis and Y is the vertical axis. The X-Y monitor differs from the raster-scan type in that it draws its output on the screen in a different way. Instead of the scan starting in the upper left corner, it starts in the middle of the screen, with the screen remaining dark until a signal is received.

Another important difference in the X-Y monitor is that the signal is not fed into the CRT grid, as in the raster-scan type. That signal has nothing to do with the flyback. Instead, the signal (a deflection signal) is fed to the yoke so that it moves the spot as needed to produce the "vectors." The screen is divided into four quadrants, as shown in Fig. 1-b: spot movement in a lateral direction is called X and vertical movement is called Y. Each quadrant is the vector sum of the X and Y voltages; the sum draws the pattern. Also shown here, is how the different quadrants are identified. For instance, the upper half of the screen is the positive Y axis and the lower half is the negative Y. Right of the center line is the positive X axis and the opposite for the left. Once again, look at Fig. 1-b: The upper right quadrant is called +X/+Y and the lower left is called -X/-Y. The other two quadrants are identified in the same way with their respective positive and negative X/Y axes. There are three separate amplifiers for the vector section, consisting of the X and Y amplifiers, which drive their respective X/Y yoke windings. The third amplifier is the Z or video amplifier, which provides and brightness for the picture. The X and Y video amplifiers are generally powered by plus and minus 25-volt supplies and the video stages by a +90-volt supply.

When a positive voltage is applied to the Y axis, the spot (vector) moves up as the voltage is increased, and down as the negative voltage on that axis is increased. In the same manner, when a positive voltage is applied to the X axis, the spot moves right and the reverse is true for a negative voltage. If the voltage on both the X axis and Y axis is negative, spot movement is in the direction of the dotted line (see Fig 1-a). Now that we've seen how those two monitors differ, let's look at some failure symptoms associated with the vector type.

**Failure symptoms**

Figure 2 shows some possible symptoms of failure in the different sections of
a vector-type monitor. The patterns shown here also suggest the probable cause of the problem. For example, Fig. 2-a shows a blank screen with a vertical line down the center; here the most likely cause would be the X amplifier (horizontal) or the power supply to it. What the figure shows is that, for some reason, there is no positive or negative voltage applied to the X axis. Patterns on the lower half of the screen only (see Fig. 2-b) indicate a malfunction in the Y amplifier or its power supply.

The next one, Fig. 2-c, with a pattern showing in the upper right corner is a bit more tricky. Here, what you need to know is what voltages would cause the picture to move in that direction and which are missing to cause the imbalance. In this case, either the X or Y amplifiers, or the -25-volt supply could be the cause of the problem. A proper blend of all voltages should pull the picture to the center of the screen. The final pattern (Fig. 2-d) shows a screen with a pattern in the upper left corner; can you figure out one out? (Hint: the problem could be in the X or Y amplifier, or the +25 volt supply.)

As you can see, the problems associated with this type monitor can be figured out with a bit of careful thought. Just as with all other raster-scan problems, look to see what is there and what isn't. A lot of the hassle can be taken out of troubleshooting with the oldest trick in the book—check the power supply first. Many times you may not have to go any further! Remember that the correct interpretation of the symptoms will cut down on your repair time.

Although the symptoms and diagrams used in our discussion are for a particular make monitor, they should be useful in the repair of other makes. They should at least help enough to get you headed in the right direction. Monitors were chosen for this month's discussion because they have the components that operate under the most stress; and are therefore, most likely to fail.

With all the personal computers in use today, someone's gotta fix 'em, and we can do the job better than anyone else. Happy computer-fixing!!

---

**SERVICE QUESTIONS**

**NO COLOR**

I have no color on a Quasar DT5979 chassis. I've replaced the color circuit, IC601, but that did no good. The voltages and waveforms on IC601 seem OK. Any ideas? —A.P., Swedesboro, NJ

If all voltages and all waveforms on IC601 were OK, you would have no problem. You had better double-check your measurements. Pin 1 of IC601 is your input. Pins 6, 8, and 10 are your outputs. In between, there are lots and lots of parts that need to be checked out, including capacitors, coils, resistors, and a crystal, X601. Don't overlook any of them!

**SHUTDOWN PROBLEMS**

I'm having a shutdown problem with a GE EC-C chassis—there's too much high voltage. With my variable transformer set at 60-volts AC, I get 28,000 volts. When I increase the line voltage to 70-volts AC, the high voltage rises to 30,000, and the set shuts down. I have replaced the sweep, high-voltage shutdown, and PSR modules — O.D. Sheridan, WY

The shutdown systems are apparently doing their job. The trick now is to bring down the high voltage. If the retrace capacitors—those connected between the collector and emitter of the output transistor—are open, it could cause the high voltage to go wild. You can use regular capacitors with a high-voltage rating to check it out, but as for a replacement, use only exact replacements because they are specially designed to do the job.  

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**EXHAUST ANALYZER**

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ing can also occur if an adjustment is made, while testing, that causes a very dirty exhaust. Swamping typically is manifested by a suspiciously low CO reading, or a suspiciously high A/F reading. (In extreme cases, the CO reading may "attempt" to reach zero. When that happens, the display will stop updating entirely. The display will remain "frozen" until the TCC clears—typically 10-15 minutes after the offending gas mixture is removed.) The best way to correct that is to shut off the engine and allow the TCC to "breathe" ambient air for 15 minutes or so. Another solution is to deliberately force a rich mixture situation (such as by temporarily blocking part of the air intake to the carburetor) until the CO percentage swings up a few percent (or the A/F reading is down considerably); then allow normal air flow and check the reading after about a minute. If it returns to the same super-low CO or super-lean A/F, then that’s most likely the real situation, unless one of the remaining two possible trouble areas is at fault.

If the setup is suspected, re-check the setup conditions mentioned earlier. It is important that all conditions be met, such as positioning of the conversion box and allowing sufficient time for the system to stabilize before balancing and then beginning the test. It is also possible that accuracy could be affected if a significant temperature change occurs in the conversion box area after balancing has been performed. An example of that might be if the sun came out from behind a cloud and significantly changed the ambient temperature conditions around the conversion box. Although immune to subtle changes in ambient temperature due to the "control" sensor presence, very large temperature changes can cause a shift in the balance point. To re-balance, the TCC needs to again "breathe" ambient air for several minutes; then reset the BALANCE control.

A particularly perplexing symptom is where the display is erratic: that is, where the unit is obviously performing tests, but with significantly different readings on each trial. Verify that swapping or improper setup is not influencing the readings by shutting off the engine and observing the readings over several minutes, making sure that the conversion box remains in the same position and ambient temperature. If the readings remain erratic, there is a problem with the unit’s electronics. But, if the readings stabilize, there is either something wrong with the setup or you have a very weird exhaust mixture.

The whole business of emissions testing is very tricky. Those of you who own "marginal" cars (remember that Jaguar we mentioned?) know what we mean. Each emission test can bring new surprises—sometimes good, sometimes bad. The same car, with the same tank of gas, with the same emission settings, can produce different readings at different times. There always are reasons, but sometimes they can be quite difficult to determine. In states such as Arizona that allow "conditioning mode" testing if the initial test fails, the auto is run at accelerated engine speeds, in gear on rollers, for about 30 seconds and is then restested—often with dramatically lower readings. Everything is exactly the same as before, except that some of the excess combustion byproducts (built up, perhaps, during the long wait in line to be tested) have been blown out.

The message here is: Don’t be alarmed if any particular readings appear to be somewhat different from the last readings taken. To best determine the state of exhaust emissions, you really need to average the readings. In particular, take note of subtle changes in test conditions that can affect the results. Paying attention to those details will improve the overall usefulness of the unit and rectify the emissions from your automobile, thus improving the quality of air we breathe—and that’s what it’s all about!
state of solid state
continued from page 92

shunt regulator, whose output is programmable from 2.5 to 30 volts, using only two external resistors. The current range of the device is from 1 mA to 100 mA, with a low dynamic-impedance of typically 0.22 ohms. Its internal temperature compensation ensures stable operation with a temperature coefficient of 55 ppm/°C. The TL431 is available in three temperature ranges: −55 to +125°C, −40 to +85°C, and 0 to 70°C. Two case styles are available: an 8-pin plastic or ceramic DIP, or the TO-92 case (see in Fig. 1).

Some typical applications for the TL431 are shown in Fig. 2. Figure 2-a shows a shunt regulator; 2-b is a high-current shunt regulator; 2-c shows a constant-current source, and 2-d shows a triac crowbar circuit. Figures 3 and 4 show two of the more unusual applications for this regulator IC. In Fig. 3, the TL431 is teamed up with an LM111 (precision low-drift op-amp) to form a linear chopper. The schematic in Fig. 4 shows an unusual phone amplifier using the TL431. The circuit shown there resembles a vacuum-tube cathode follower of a solid-state emitter follower with the unit’s reference electrode corresponding to the grid or base in triode devices. The output of the crystal phonocartridge (typically 2 volts) modulates the reference voltage. That, in turn, modulates the TL431 cathode-anode voltage (V(CE)) and the audio output is then coupled to the speaker through an output transformer. Prices for the TL431 start at $0.52 and can range up to 53.42 depending on the temperature range and case style. Complete specifications for the IC, along with numerous application diagrams, are available from Motorola Semiconductor Products, PO Box 20912, Phoenix, AZ 85036.

Designers’ guide

Designer’s Guide—Small-Signal, Low-Noise Transistors is a 126-page data and applications manual covering the TRW line of transistors for receiver and RF circuits. The manual includes a cross-reference listing nearly 100 competitive transistors and 22 TRW substitutes or equivalents. Also included in the manual are packaged outline drawings with dimensions, complete technical data on the 22 TRW transistors, and application notes including schematics and PC-board patterns. The manual is available from the Semiconductor Division, TRW Electronics Components Group, 14520 Aviation Blvd., Lawndale, CA 90260.

New semiconductor database

The new 588-page RCA CMOS-LSI Databook, No. SSD-260A, provides technical information on the company’s line of CMOS-LSI products. That databook includes information on such devices as the 1800-series and 6805-series of microprocessor products, a series of general-purpose CMOS memories. Also included are RCA alternate-source types for the industry.

The introduction is the “General Guide” to RCA CMOS-LSI products. It points out currently available package options and summarizes the basic features in each product category. In addition, the various IC’s are classified according to product type and function.

Five separate data sections provide ratings, electrical characteristics, significant features, and user information for: 1800-series microprocessors and microcomputers, 1800-series memories, 1800-series peripherals, general-purpose memories, and 6505-series LSIs products. The CMOS-LSI Databook is available from RCA distributors or RCA (Solid State Division, Box 3200, Somerville, NJ 08876) priced at $7.00.

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Signed: ___________________________

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Compact and reliable, designed to service a wide variety of equipment. Features include: multiplex back scale automatic decimal placement, automatic polarity, automatic range selection, multiplexing, automatic zero, automatic range selection, multiplexing. Features are: automatic range selection, multiplexing, automatic zero, automatic range selection, multiplexing. Features are: automatic range selection, multiplexing, automatic zero, automatic range selection, multiplexing. Features are: automatic range selection, multiplexing, automatic zero, automatic range selection, multiplexing. Features are: automatic range selection, multiplexing, automatic zero, automatic range selection, multiplexing.

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CT-70 7 DIGIT 525 MHz COUNTER

CT-90 9 DIGIT 600 MHz COUNTER

CT-125 9 DIGIT 1.2 GHz COUNTER

CT-50 8 DIGIT 600 MHz COUNTER

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UP: Down digital counter, four-digit display for satellite tracker. Easy plans, parts list. S3.00. SATELITE TRACKER, Route 9, Box 37, Hickory, NC 28601.


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- 16 VOLS @ 900 MA: $0.01
- 16 VOLS @ 1-AMP: $0.01
- 16 VOLS @ 1-AMP: $0.01
- 16 VOLS @ 1-AMP: $0.01
- 16 VOLS @ 1-AMP: $0.01

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No Mail Order Hassles!

Power Transformers
120VAC Primaries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Watts</th>
<th>Current</th>
<th>Cat. No.</th>
<th>Each</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mav</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>330 mA</td>
<td>273-1384</td>
<td>5.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mav</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>330 mA</td>
<td>273-1385</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mav</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>330 mA</td>
<td>273-1386</td>
<td>2.90</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mav</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>450 mA</td>
<td>273-1387</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mav</td>
<td>25.2 CT</td>
<td>450 mA</td>
<td>273-1388</td>
<td>5.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stc</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>1.2 A</td>
<td>273-1389</td>
<td>3.79</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stc</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>1.2 A</td>
<td>273-1390</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H-D</td>
<td>12.6 CT</td>
<td>3 A</td>
<td>273-1391</td>
<td>6.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H-D</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>2.6 A</td>
<td>273-1392</td>
<td>8.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H-D</td>
<td>16.0 CT</td>
<td>2.0 A</td>
<td>273-1393</td>
<td>6.99</td>
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Low-Profile DIP Sockets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Cat. No.</th>
<th>Price</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8-Pin</td>
<td>276-1995</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-Pin</td>
<td>276-1996</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-Pin</td>
<td>276-1997</td>
<td>4.99</td>
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<tr>
<td>20-Pin</td>
<td>276-1998</td>
<td>5.99</td>
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<tr>
<td>24-Pin</td>
<td>276-1999</td>
<td>7.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28-Pin</td>
<td>276-2000</td>
<td>8.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-Pin</td>
<td>276-2001</td>
<td>9.99</td>
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Replacement Transistors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Cat. No.</th>
<th>Each</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2N3904</td>
<td>MNP</td>
<td>276-2100</td>
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<tr>
<td>2N3907</td>
<td>MNP</td>
<td>276-2101</td>
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<td>2N3908</td>
<td>MNP</td>
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<td>2N3551</td>
<td>MNP</td>
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<td>2N3552</td>
<td>MNP</td>
<td>276-2104</td>
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<td>2N3660</td>
<td>MNP</td>
<td>276-2105</td>
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<tr>
<td>2N3665</td>
<td>MNP</td>
<td>276-2106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2N3666</td>
<td>MNP</td>
<td>276-2107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tantalum Capacitors

- 20% Tolerance
- Standard IC Pin Spacing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>VVDC</th>
<th>Cat No.</th>
<th>Each</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>272-1432</td>
<td>49</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>272-1433</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>272-1434</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>272-1435</td>
<td>59</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>272-1436</td>
<td>69</td>
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<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>272-1437</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Computer Connectors
Repair or make your own RS-232 cables and joystick extension cords and save!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Cat. No.</th>
<th>Each</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ID Card Edge</td>
<td>276-1554</td>
<td>5.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ID Card Edge</td>
<td>276-1555</td>
<td>4.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC Card for Section</td>
<td>276-1556</td>
<td>4.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solderless Sub-D Male</td>
<td>276-1557</td>
<td>4.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solderless Sub-D Female</td>
<td>276-1558</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solder Sub-D Male</td>
<td>276-1559</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solder Sub-D Female</td>
<td>276-1560</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hood For Above</td>
<td>276-1561</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solder Sub-D Male</td>
<td>276-1562</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solder Sub-D Female</td>
<td>276-1563</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hood For Above</td>
<td>276-1564</td>
<td>3.99</td>
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Communications ICs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Cat. No.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LM301</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
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<tr>
<td>LM302</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LM303</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LM304</td>
<td>...</td>
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<tr>
<td>LM305</td>
<td>...</td>
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<td>LM306</td>
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<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LM307</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LM308</td>
<td>...</td>
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</table>

4000-Series CMOS ICs

With Pin-Out and Specs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Cat. No.</th>
<th>Each</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4001</td>
<td>276-2401</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4011</td>
<td>276-2402</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4013</td>
<td>276-2403</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4017</td>
<td>276-2417</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4023</td>
<td>276-2423</td>
<td>99</td>
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<tr>
<td>4049</td>
<td>276-2449</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4066</td>
<td>276-2466</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4-Watt, 5% Resistors
39¢ Pkg. of 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ohms</th>
<th>Cat. No.</th>
<th>Each</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 k</td>
<td>271-1301</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 k</td>
<td>271-1301</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>220 k</td>
<td>271-1303</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>390 k</td>
<td>271-1305</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 k</td>
<td>271-1302</td>
<td>1.99</td>
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<tr>
<td>100 k</td>
<td>271-1302</td>
<td>1.99</td>
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<tr>
<td>220 k</td>
<td>271-1304</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>390 k</td>
<td>271-1306</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Semiconductor Reference Guide 349

1984 Edition. Cross-reference and substitution sections lists 80,000 Types and Low-cost Radio Shack replacements. Data on transistors, ICs, SCR's, LEDs, diodes, opto devices, illustrated, 232 pages: 276-4007: 3.49

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4-Position, fits 8-pin DIP socket, 275-1304: 1.49

Operational Amplifiers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Cat. No.</th>
<th>Each</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>741</td>
<td>(Single)</td>
<td>276-2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LM324 (Quad)</td>
<td>276-2171</td>
<td>2.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TL082 (Dual)</td>
<td>276-2174</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LM3090 (Quad)</td>
<td>276-2172</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LM339 (Quad)</td>
<td>276-2173</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Voltage Regulator ICs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Cat. No.</th>
<th>Each</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LM723</td>
<td>0.0 to 40 VDC</td>
<td>276-1740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LM317</td>
<td>1.2 to 37 VDC</td>
<td>276-1728</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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MD245 SOFT SECTOR $5/5D $45.00
MD110 80 SECTOR $5/5D $19.95
MD210 80 SECTOR $5/5D $30.75
8" WITHOUT HUB RING $24.75
FID1 SOFT SECTOR $5/5D $24.75
FID10 SOFT SECTOR $5/5D $30.00
FID20 SOFT SECTOR $5/5D $36.75

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