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November '85

Radio-Electronics
Electronics publishers since 1908

Vol. 56 No. 11

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The video titler shown on our cover is not just a standard video titler. This one lets you superimpose characters and graphics directly on a video image. Any other titler on the market will let you add characters—but at the expense of the video image. The screen shown on the Zenith CV2562 25-inch monitor is an actual photograph. The letters and the RE logo were superimposed onto the image from a Magnavox Lolite video camera.

If you want to add more than just titles to your videotapes, you can use your IBM PC, TRS-80 Color Computer, Apple II, or Commodore 64 to access the title's video-image generator. That will allow you to superimpose complex graphics or even real-time animation over an external signal. For more on this exciting build-it-yourself project, turn to page 45.

Next Month

The December Issue is on sale November 5

What's New in IC Technology
Two special articles look at the year's advances in both analog and digital IC's.

Build a Video Titler
We continue with details on the circuit and construction.

Build a Home Security System
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NEW! Bearcat® 800XL-K
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World's biggest laser is six stories high

Nova, the world's largest laser, was dedicated this past spring at the Lawrence Livermore Laboratory of the University of California. It will be used as a laboratory tool for studying weapons physics, and for experiments intended to help scientists in their long-term quest for practical nuclear fusion.

Housed in a four-room building—one room is more than 200 feet long and another is six stories high—it is not only the world's biggest laser, but also the world's largest optical instrument, with more than 300 square meters of optical surfaces.

Nova uses a fantastically powerful capacitor bank to store 40 million joules of electrical energy at 20,000 volts to operate almost 6,000 xenon flashlamps. When the laser is fired, it produces a pulse of infrared light that is divided into ten pulses that are passed through 150 laser amplifiers toward the target. Those amplifiers—neodymium glass rods and discs—release their energy as the laser pulses pass through them.

Large mirrors steer the ten pulses toward the target vacuum chamber, a 16-foot diameter hollow aluminum sphere containing a fuel pellet. When the combined pulse is focused on it, for 30 to 50 trillionths of a second the pellet is subjected to a force 200 times greater than the power produced by the entire electrical generating capacity of the United States.

The high intensity laser pulses heat the fuel pellet, causing its outer shell to boil off and rocket outward. The reaction drives the remaining pellet wall inward, compressing the center of the pellet to a density and temperature comparable to that of the center of the sun.

Nova will thus be able to produce conditions under which atomic fusion can take place. That can provide more light on the theories of what is called inertial confinement fusion, and may be a step toward a practical technology for producing power from nuclear fusion.

Ford and JBL unite to make auto sound

JBL Inc. and the Electrical and Electronics Division of Ford Motor Co. have launched a five-year program to develop high-performance automotive sound systems for Ford's cars and light trucks. Details of the program have been agreed upon and engineers are already at work on the first phases of the plan, said a Ford spokesman.

According to a recent survey by Billboard Magazine, JBL is the leading supplier of professional loudspeakers to North American recording studios and to international concert touring groups. R-E
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**VIDEO NEWS**

**DAVID LACHENBRUCH**
CONTRIBUTING EDITOR

- **RCA's Preview.** RCA gave the industry an advance peak at two of its "products of the future" recently at its laboratories in Princeton. The first product, to be introduced "as soon as possible," is a home satellite receiver component for the company's *Dimensia* audio-video system. The receiver can pick up both C- and Ku-band signals, and has a built-in descrambler designed for the M/A-Com encoding system adopted by HBO and Cinemax.

  The other "product of the future" is a digital TV set, built around three basic IC's, containing its own frame memory. The receiver converts the incoming standard interlaced signal, with 60 262.5-line fields per second, to a progressive-scan non-interlaced one with 60 complete 525-line frames per second. The resulting picture showed no line structure or jitter. RCA said that a consumer-priced frame memory would need to be developed before the set could be marketed, but that one wouldn't be available until about 1990.

- **"High Quality" VHS.** The VHS group has decided not to follow Beta's lead in developing "super VCR's" with high-band color—at least not at this time—because of compatibility problems. Instead, VHS manufacturers are introducing an improvement called "High Quality," which uses signal processing to enhance the picture without sacrificing compatibility. Among the picture enhancements are a system called "video-noise reduction," which uses recursive comb filtering, and an increase in white clip level, which results in sharper image edges. JVC, which is given credit for developing the improvements, probably will feature them first, but they're expected to be used eventually by all members of the VHS camp.

- **VCR's to be Made Here.** Matsushita, the world's largest manufacturer of VCR's, has become the first company to announce the establishment of a factory to manufacture videocassette recorders in the United States. Sanyo has since followed, saying that it would also set up a VCR plant here. Hitachi, Toshiba, Sharp, and Sony have also said that they are looking into setting up plants here. Matsushita's announcement came as the Japanese sought to relieve the top-heavy imbalance of trade with the United States. VCR's now constitute Japan's biggest electronics export to the U.S.—worth more than $3.3 billion last year. No consumer VCR's currently are made in this country; all are imported, largely from Japan, with Korea recently getting into the act. The new Japanese-owned VCR plants here are expected to be little more than assembly operations at first; more complete manufacturing operations will come later as U.S.-made parts and components become available.

  Meanwhile, Philips has announced that it is setting up a joint venture with a Korean firm to manufacture NTSC VCR's in Korea. They will be sold domestically in Korea and exported to countries that use the NTSC standard, including the U.S. Philips' U.S. affiliate, North American Philips, currently buys VCR's exclusively from Matsushita for its three brands—Magnavox, Sylvania, and Philco. The new Video Corporation of Korea, owned by Philips (70%) and Dongwon Electronics (30%) is scheduled to start up about a year from now and eventually supply VCR's for North American Philips' three U.S. brands.

- **Video Vignettes.** A portable projection TV system with built-in VHS recorder, audio cassette player, and PA system has been introduced by Display Sciences Inc., New York, at $3,995.

  Mitsubishi has now introduced the first model with a 35-inch direct-view picture tube (Radio-Electronics, March 1985) and priced it at a suggested list of $3,200.

  Videocassette players—that is, playback-only devices—seem like a good idea in view of the success of prerecorded software, and they're already being offered by such companies as Emerson, GE, Daewoo, Gold Star, Lloyd's, Magnavox, Quasar, and Panasonic. But few of those companies expect them to be very popular, except for the rental market. The reason: There's very little saving in eliminating the record function, thus the VCP's cost about the same as low-priced VCR's by the time they reach the marketplace.

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FROM THE WORLD LEADER IN DIGITAL MULTIMETERS.
NEW IDEAS

Commodore-64/VIC-20 cassette interface

THE CASSETTE RECORDERS THAT COMMODORE sells for use with the Commodore-64 and VIC-20 personal computers are expensive, even though they're not much different from standard audio recorders. Why are the Commodore Datasette recorders special? The Commodore Cassette Write Output is a squarewave whose duty cycle is varied to transmit data.

Unfortunately, when you try to record that squarewave on audio tape, what you end up with looks more like a sinewave than a squarewave. When you play the tape back and try to load programs or data, the computer doesn't recognize the signals. However, the circuit presented here will turn the recorded signal back into one that the Commodore computers can use. With it, you'll be able to use almost any recorder for data storage.

Circuit operation

As shown in Fig. 1, audio output from a cassette recorder is fed through the limiting network composed of resistor R2 and diode D1. The resistor limits the peak voltage fed to ICI-a, and the diode ensures that voltages less than zero are not fed to the IC. Inverters ICI-a and ICI-b, together with resistor R1, form what is called a Schmitt trigger, which "squares up" the analog signals from the recorder so that they're acceptable to the computer.

As shown, a 74LS04 was used for the inverters, but you could easily continued on page 111

NEW IDEAS

This column is devoted to new ideas, circuits, device applications, construction techniques, helpful hints, 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 $59.95. It features an eight-position indexing adjustment, indexing at 45-degree increments, and six positive lock positions in the vertical plane, giving you a full ten-inch height adjustment for comfortable working.

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TVRO ownership—present and future.

TWO THOUSAND TVRO OWNERS HAVE provided the home-satellite industry with its first in-depth profile of TVRO users. Many beliefs and assumptions fell by the wayside when the 150-page, 1985 TVRO Market Profile was completed. Here are some of the findings.

The majority of TVRO owners (72.5%) do not live in cities, but 26.5% do have access to cable service. Of those who can subscribe to cable, 23% do, but 49% have discontinued their cable service.

For the last six months animosity between TVRO and cable has been increasing. Several cable firms have begun large-scale advertising in which they advise potential purchasers not to buy a TVRO because of the possibility that, when satellite signals scramble, TVRO owners will be left with nothing to view.

Ownership of TVRO systems has been growing tremendously for the past few years: 30% of TVRO owners purchased their systems in 1983, and 59% purchased their systems in 1984. Approximately one-third of all TVRO buyers made their purchase after seeing a TVRO in operation at a friend's or neighbor's home; 25% bought after seeing a TVRO demonstrated by a dealer; and 22% bought because they wanted a greater choice of programming and felt that cable was too expensive, or simply unavailable.

When asked to give their reasons for buying a TVRO, 61% said their primary reason was to have access to a wider variety of programming. Significantly, 59% of those buying had access to as many as 4 off-air (terrestrial) television channels, indicating that they live in areas where regular TV programming is not high quality.

Eighty percent of TVRO owners also own more than one TV set, 39% own a VCR, and 21% own a personal computer. VCR ownership and personal-computer ownership is markedly higher than the national average, which indicates the "upscale demographics" of TVRO ownership.

Eighty-eight percent have a high school education or better, and 52% earn at least $30,000 per year.

Although the largest market segment (39%) is between 35 and 49 years of age and still has children at home, a large percentage (21%) are over 60 years of age, and are either retired or semi-retired.

Geographic distribution

As shown in Fig. 1, the study found that 47% of all system owners live in either the Pacific or the West-Central regions of the United States. New England has the lowest percentage of TVRO owners (3%), while the mid-Atlantic region claims little over 5%. Those numbers would seem to support the thesis that TVRO is largely a rural—or at least western—phenomenon. But other evidence indicates that where buyers live, as well as who they are, is changing rapidly.

TVRO owners tend to spend many hours watching TV. The national average is in the vicinity of 37 hours per week, but the study found that 54% of TVRO users watched their satellite systems more than 40 hours per week, and that 18.4% use their systems more than 59 hours per week—almost 8.5 hours per day!

It is interesting to note that there is a high degree of user satisfaction with TVRO: 62.6% said they were "very satisfied" with their system, and only 1.6% reported they were
I realize that what you are about to read may seem incredible. I can understand. But occasionally there are indeed bargains and opportunities that only come once in a lifetime. I'm convinced that this is one of them.

By Joseph Sugarman, President

The letter-quality printer you see above has a suggested wholesale retail price of $499. This printer, which advances the carriage by one line for every 40 characters per second, is a tremendous bargain at $1000—yes, you probably think that there was a catch. But guess again. As unusual a bargain as this may appear, and despite all of its quality features, this printer can be yours for the incredible low price of only $499—below wholesale, below dealer cost and without question, the lowest priced high-speed letter-quality printer sold today.

JS&A bought out an entire warehouse full of these printers, promised that we would not display the name of the unit on the wall, and in our ad we will not reveal the name of the manufacturer. And for that price, you get a 2K buffer memory.

There are also features that give you enormous printing flexibility. You can underscore words, double print each character which creates a bold look, or you can use shallow print which moves the print head 170 of an inch between strikes. With the proper Daisy wheel you can also select the printer for proportional printing, which gives your documents a professional—almost letter-quality look.

SELF-TEST MODE

There’s a self-test mode which lets you print out the characters on your Daisy wheel continually until you stop. And the system uses standard Diablo Daisy wheels and ribbons which you can get from JS&A or any computer store.

With the Picapitch, you can print up to 136 characters with the Elite pitch, up to 153. The 15.5” carriage will take a print area of 13.6 inches. For example, at 5 x 16 x 24”, comes with a 10-pitch Daisy wheel, one ribbon and complete instructions. The unit has provisions for a tractor feed and a sheet feeder which can be purchased separately or at a discount from JS&A.

We'll be happy to supply companies with several printers for their computer departments to upgrade their printing speed and quality. There is no limit to the number you can order, although we do have a few thousand available so we reserve the right to return your order should we run out.

ACT QUICKLY

There are bargains available that are indeed too good to be true and often up to be much less than you expected. But here’s an example that is not only too good to be true but that we guarantee you will find better than you expected. Order one at no obligation, today. Simply send your check or money order using the order numbers shown in parentheses. send your order to JS&A Special Printer Bargain offer at the address below:

**PRINTER**

**BARGAIN**

We guarantee that you'll never find a bargain as sensational as the letter-quality Daisy wheel printer you see in this advertisement.

We covered up the name of the printer so as not to embarrass the manufacturer.
"very satisfied" with their system, and only 1.6% reported they were "very dissatisfied" with it. A different attitude emerged from TVRO owners (26.5%) with access to cable TV service; 69.7% of them said they were "not pleased" with the quality of the local cable service.

The popularity of satellite reception was not surprising. Motorized dish movers are more often part of a system than not, these days, so most users buying systems now have the ability to scan the Clarke orbit belt and lock in on virtually any U.S. or Canadian satellite in operation. That gives TVRO owners a lot to choose from. More than 88% of our sample reported that they tuned in the Hughes Galaxy satellite, 83.8% in RCA's F3R, and 54.9% in RCA's F4, all at a rate of at least three times per week.

Network service, available on satellite in the form of intra-network feeds intended to be re-

**SATELLITE TV**

The First Five Years!

**THE MOST COMPLETE** report on the mushrooming home TVRO industry ever compiled, written as only the 'father of TVRO' could have prepared. More than 1000 pages (!) tracing the complete story of home TVRO, lavishly illustrated with equipment photos, schematic diagrams, equipment analysis reports. Bob Cooper, the first private individual to own and operate a TVRO (1976) has collected and polished hundreds of individual reports into a unique 'collection's edition' which clearly explains the TVRO phenomenon in North America. From Cooper's first 20 foot 'monster' dish to the present day 5 foot C-band TVROs, the fascinating growth of TVRO equipment and its legal status unfolds for you.

**THIS TWO VOLUME SET** totaling more than 1,000 pages is available for the first time to readers of Radio-Electronics at special discount pricing. Originally sold at $100 per two-volume set, a limited supply is now available ONLY through this advertisement. PLUS, you will also receive a special extraordinary bonus: the 200 page (+) October 1984 edition of CSD/Coop's Satellite Digest! This very special edition of CSD is a best-seller in the TVRO industry, with the most comprehensive collection of TVRO facts and figures ever compiled. Combined with the 1,000 page "CSD ANTHOLOGY" report, you have instant reference to everything you will ever need to know about the state of the home TVRO industry. It is MUST reading for every person in, or thinking about 'getting into', any segment of the home TVRO world.

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**TVRO dealer "Starter Kit" available**

Bob Cooper's CSD Magazine has arranged with a number of TVRO equipment suppliers to provide a single package of material that will help introduce you to the world of TVRO dealership. A short booklet written by Bob Cooper describes the startup pitfalls to be avoided by any would-be TVRO dealer. In addition, product data and pricing sheets from prominent suppliers in the field are included. That package of material is free of charge and is supplied to firms or individuals in the electronics service business as an introduction to the 1984/85 world of selling TVRO systems retail.

You may obtain your TVRO Dealer Starter Kit free of charge by writing on company letterhead, or by enclosing a business card with your request. Address your inquiries to: TVRO STARTER KIT, P.O. Box 100858, Fort Lauderdale, FL 33310. That kit not available to individuals not involved in some form of electronics sales and service.

broadcast by local stations, drew viewing percentages of about 30-35%, CBS satellite feeds being the most popular. Significantly, of the non-premium (non-pay) satellite services available, Ted Turner's WTBS outranked all others, and actually surpassed the popularity of satellite feeds from ABC and NBC.

**What's being watched**

Movies are clearly the most popular type of programming (66.2%), although people who have owned TVRO system for three years or more are less enchanted with movies than new owners are (dropping to 57% most popular).

Movies, of course, make up the overwhelming majority of the programming on such premium services as HBO and Showtime. In view of that, and in view of the above mentioned popularity of movies, care should be taken in drawing conclusions from the figures that follow.

HBO had been viewed during the 24 hours preceding our survey by 54.4% of all those responding to it, Cinemax by 49.2%, and Showtime by 46.3%.

Sports programming was the second most popular type of programming: all-sports ESPN pulled 28.9% of all viewers. However, sports programming is widely continued on page 111
You may not be able to solve the world's problems. But at least you can listen.

The Panasonic Command Series: With double superheterodyne tuning, you'll hear the world loud and clear.

Now it's easy to listen in on the world's hot spots. With the Panasonic RF-B600 Command Series FM/LW/MW/SW receiver.

Its advanced microcomputer-controlled tuner lets you preset up to nine different frequencies. And reach them at the touch of a button. Or, press the appropriate buttons and tune in any desired frequency with direct-access digital tuning. It'll lock right in to every signal with a PLL quartz-synthesized tuner. Once tuned in, the Panasonic double superheterodyne system helps deliver a clean, consistent signal.

There's even built-in auto-tuning to let you scan the shortwave band automatically, as well as manually. All this means you can tune in Berlin, pick up Paris, or locate London in an instant. Without dialing all over the band.

Both the RF-B600 and the RF-B300 are packed with features and built to go anywhere.

The Panasonic Command Series offers something for everyone. With equipment sophisticated enough to impress the most avid enthusiast, and automatic features that get you where you want to be. Fast. There's a whole world out there that's waiting to be heard. Tune in to it with the Panasonic Command Series.

Panasonic
just slightly ahead of our time™

CIRCLE 280 ON FREE INFORMATION CARD
Beckman Industrial 60MHz and 100 MHz oscilloscopes are advanced designed for greater performance and ease of use. They offer more control, more versatility and more features than other models. And they are backed by a nationwide network of factory authorized service centers. Compare and you'll agree. Nothing measures up to Beckman Industrial oscilloscopes.

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Check out Beckman Industrial Models 9060 and 9100 oscilloscopes. At your local Beckman Industrial distributor.

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FG2 Function Generator ............... $199.95*

Great features, performance and value are always as close as your local Beckman Industrial distributor.

*Suggested list price.
PC SERVICE

Your July 1985 article, "PC Service," was very interesting, especially since we make one of those kits you refer to: the ER-4 Photo Etch set. It's one that works. Its principle is patented. It's been sold to engineers and experimenters, and accepted in industry, for years.

But I'm writing for another reason. In your article, you recommend using the printed page as a poor man's film positive. That may work with some positive resists, but there are a few ways in which you can improve results.

1. You should publish the mirror image of the pattern that is to be reproduced. The pattern can then be placed directly against the sensitized board and exposed. If you continue to print a "right-reading" image, the blank paper side must be placed against the sensitized PC board. The printed image is separated from the foil board by the paper thickness, and your paper substrate will cause considerable light diffusion around and under the "black" areas. That causes thin circuit traces to break up or completely wash away.

2. You use a clay-coated paper in Radio-Electronics. Frequently, UV brighteners are added to the clay to make the paper look whiter. They absorb UV and retransmit the energy at longer wavelengths. What you now have seems to be OK. If you ever change paper, you'd better check things out again.

3. You should warn your readers that the system will work only with positive etch resist boards. It may seem obvious, but plenty of people will try it with negative resist—and waste a board.

4. Your comment about mineral oil is well-taken; yet, it's essential to transparentize the paper to minimize diffusion and to shorten exposure times. A good approach is to use a clear gloss acrylic spray. Here, it's best that the coating resins be all acrylic. Alkyds and nitrocellulose are often used as modifiers and they absorb some UV. I experimented with DATAKOAT gloss No. 04177 as a transparentizer and the results follow.

I coated both sides of page 67 from your July 1985 issue with two very wet coats of DATAKOAT. That was to ensure complete penetration of the paper by the clear acrylic resin. The page was hung on clothespins to dry.

I then taped the coated paper and an uncoated page with blank-paper areas to a north-facing window. I used a Glossen Pilot exposure meter held against the unprinted area of each sheet of paper to measure the comparative light transmission. With the ASA index set at 100, my results were: uncoated 1/250sec @ f/3.8; coated 1/250sec @ f/2.8.

Those values can be reduced to relative light-transmission ratios as follows:

The ratio of light intensity to corresponding to 1/ stop value varies as the inverse square of the f-value, or

\[ E = \frac{1}{f^2} \]

where \(k\) is a constant; so

\[ E_1 = \frac{1}{(3.8)^2} \quad \text{or} \quad k = E_1(3.8)^2 \tag{1} \]

and

\[ E_2 = \frac{1}{(2.8)^2} \quad \text{or} \quad k = E_2(2.8)^2 \tag{2} \]

Combining (1) and (2) and rearranging gives:

\[ E_2/E_1 = \frac{(3.8)^2}{(2.8)^2} = 1.84 \quad \text{or} \quad 84\% \text{ improvement in light transmission.} \]

DATAKOAT Gloss No. 04177 is available from many electronics parts distributors. Other 100% acrylic

(Continued on page 20)
Satellite Communications Training from NRI!

Move into commercial satellite communications and home satellite TV with NRI's latest training breakthrough!

Explore Every Aspect of Satellite Transmission and Reception As You Assemble, Install, and Train With the Complete TVRO System Included in Your Course

Back in 1964, great excitement surrounded the launching of Syncom 2, the true forerunner of today's satellites. But not even the most hopeful of scientists believed that in less than 25 years, communications satellites would have such a tremendous impact on the professional and personal lives of millions of people around the globe.

Today, thanks to the rapid development of satellite technology, a call to Paris is as clear and as easy to make as a call to your next door neighbor...executives from multi-national corporations and even small businesses use video conferencing to "meet" without leaving their offices...simultaneously a billion people witness a single event (a soccer game, an inauguration, a benefit rock concert)...global weather maps transmitted from satellites allow meteorologists to forecast weather trends weeks in advance...and scientists now explore and investigate the mysteries of outer space without leaving their labs.

And, not surprisingly, these amazing applications of satellite technology have opened up exciting new opportunities for the technician trained to install, maintain, troubleshoot and repair satellite communications equipment.

Home Satellite TV Is Just at the Start of Its Explosive Future

You've seen them in suburban backyards and alongside country farmhouses. Home satellite TV systems are springing up all across the country.

Already there are over a million TVRO (Television Receive-Only) systems in place in the U.S. alone, and experts predict that by 1990, a remarkable 60% of U.S. homes will have a satellite dish. Contributing to the field's phenomenal growth are the support of the FCC and Congress, steady improvement in product quality, the development of smaller dishes, and a growing consumer enthusiasm for satellite TV.
New Jobs, New Careers for the Trained Technician

Now you can take advantage of the exciting opportunities opening up in this service- and support-intensive industry. NRI's new breakthrough training prepares you to fill the increasing need for technicians to install, adjust, and repair earth station equipment, such as dishes, antennas, receivers, and amplifiers.

As an NRI-trained technician, you can concentrate your efforts on consumer-oriented TVRO equipment. Or you can use your NRI training to build a career servicing larger commercial or military equipment used both to transmit and receive voice, data, and video signals. You'll also find opportunities in sales and system consulting, a role some expect to increase tenfold within the next five years on both the corporate and consumer levels.

NRI Brings Satellite Technology Down to Earth

Only NRI has the resources and the skills necessary to transform today's most sophisticated technology into understandable, step-by-step training.

NRI's new course in Satellite Communications gets you in on the ground floor of this booming technology. You are thoroughly trained in the necessary basic electronics, fundamental communications principles, and television transmission and operation.

Using the remarkable NRI Discovery Lab, you demonstrate first-hand many important points covered in your lessons. You perform critical tests and measurements with your digital multimeter. And, using your NRI Antenna Applications and Design Lab, you assemble and test various types of antennas and matching sections.

Then you concentrate on both commercial and consumer satellite earth station equipment, putting theory to practice as you assemble and install the 5' parabolic dish antenna system included in your course.

Your Home Satellite TV System Brings Theory to Life!

The Wilson TVRO system included in your course comes complete with 5' parabolic dish antenna system, low-noise amplifier (LNA), down converter, receiver, low-loss coaxial cable, and even a permanent polar mount.

By training with an actual TVRO system, you'll come to understand the function and operation of a satellite earth station—knowledge that you can apply to both consumer and commercial equipment. And once you have completed your TVRO system, you'll have access to the best television entertainment available—direct from the satellite to your home.

At-Home Training the Uniquely Successful NRI Way

It's hands-on training, at home... designed around the latest state-of-the-art electronic equipment you work with as part of your training. You start from scratch and "discover by doing" all the way up to the level of a fully qualified professional. You conduct key experiments... perform vital tests... install your own system... and you do it at the pace that suits you best.

But, most important to your success, you don't do it alone. Built into your NRI training is the enormous experience of our development specialists and instructors, whose long-proven training skills and personal guidance come to you on a one-to-one basis. They are always available for consultation and help.

Make Your Move Into the Future Today! Send for Your FREE NRI Catalog

Only NRI can train you at home for an exciting and rewarding career as a satellite communications technician. The knowledge and know-how you gain from your NRI training provide you with the soundest possible foundation for further growth with the industry. But now is the time to act. Return the post-paid card to us today. You will receive your 100-page catalog free. It's filled with all the details you'll want to know about our training methods and materials and our more than 70 years of successful innovation in at-home, hands-on career training—the kind of experience that enables NRI to provide the most effective training possible to prepare you for today's, and tomorrow's, high-tech opportunities. (If the card is missing, write to us at the address below.)

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We'll give you tomorrow.
gloss sprays should give comparable results, but additional coats may be required.

BARRY DAVID BROWN, President, The Datak Corporation, Sparks, NE.

Thanks for your informative letter. We should point out one thing, though: The PC-board image printed on the page is not right reading one. The dimensions read right, but the pattern is flipped to minimize diffusion. We hope to hear from others on their experiences as well.—Editor

MANUAL NEEDED

I need a service manual for a Fisher, model 5434, 4-channel/ster­ eo receiver. I am willing to pay a reasonable sum for a schematic and parts list. That material is not available from the Fisher Radio Corp., or from Sams Photofact. Thank you very much.

CHARLES D. PRATER
Edna, KY 41419

ELECTRONIC TESTING OF AUTOS

I have been a reader of Radio-Electronics for the last eight years and have seen the radical changes that it has gone through. It is the last of a breed of consumer-exper­ menter-technical-amateur electronics magazines.

I would like to see some articles devoted to electronic testing of autos, such as special scopes for electronic-ignition type cars without points. I would also like to see some articles devoted to high­band video recording, such as is coming out in Beta machines, as well as editing machines with flying erase heads.

Keep up the good work, and don’t go the way of all the computer­based competition.

BERNARD H. WEISS
Edison, NJ

We have good news for you! An article, “Automotive Electronic Troubleshooting,” by Herbert Friedman, will appear in Issue Number 6 of our sister publica­

tion, Hands-On Electronics, which is due to go on sale October 15, 1985—Editor.

ELECTRICAL SAFETY

I just finished reading Earl “Doc” Savage’s “Hobby Corner,” in the May 1985 Radio-Electronics—and after reading the section about the Headphone Adapter, I was horrified. Shame on you, “Doc!” I know you know better—but you forgot something.

The circuits you show are perfectly OK, but you left out the most important part: electrical safety. I’m sure you’re aware that most new equipment—especially TV sets that have been built over the last three to four years—are hot chassi­es. Therefore, hooking any external wires or exposed equipment to anything in that set will create an extreme shock hazard, or even death under the right conditions.

Of course, the correct way to make those installations is first to wire a 1-to-1 isolation transformer between the set and the speaker. That will eliminate the shock hazard, as well as give some overload protection to the output circuits. Then the headphone jack can be hooked up in the manner that you show. Most manufacturers use that system.

AL LAMER, CET
Keizer, OR

THE e-Z BOARD

I am delighted at the review of our product, the e-Z Board, which appeared in the “Equipment Re­ports” section, July 1985 issue of Radio-Electronics.

A further item of possible interest to you is that we are using a mylar label with an excellent ad­hesive backing to identify the bus signals on the e-Z Board. For some reason, I probably appears that we have glued two strips of ordinary paper, as your review indi­cates. We realized that a cup of coffee is frequently at hand when someone is breadboarding, and we wanted the label to be stal­proof, as it were. So, in design­ing the label, we asked the manufacturer to make sure that the identification is printed onto a mylar backing, and an insulator is placed over the backing. That will also ensure that the identification is permanent and won’t fade away in time, or as a result of being ex­posed to the atmosphere.

RAHIM SABADIA
Yorba Linda, CA

COMMODORE MONITOR

In the “Letters” section of the June 1985 Radio-Electronics, Mr. Charles Matlin, Bell Gardens, CA, says that he is looking for a schematic and a block diagram of the Commodore 1702 color monitor.

In reviewing my copy of Sams Photofact Annual Index 1985 (Howard W. Sams & Co., Inc., PO Box 7092, Indianapolis, IN 46206), page 11, I find that there is available, as of January 1985, tentative computerfact schedule production of repair data for the Com­modore 1701 monitor.

Sams may be able to provide that data Mr. Matlin needs for his Commodore 1702. He should write or call Sams (800-428 SAMS) for information.

DENNIS DERRY
Niceville, FL

AGREES WITH ROBERT GROSSBLATT

I am writing this letter to express agreement with comments made by Robert Grossblatt in his article, “Understanding Memory IC’s” (Radio-Electronics, February 1985).

I have a 15-year-old son, Saul, who spends much of his free time glued to his TRS-80 computer. He listened to me as I began to read Mr. Grossblatt’s article, aloud. The obvious point being made in the introductory paragraph was how brainwashed we are that we all need computers. I quote the article: “People are buying them like umbrellas in a rainstorm, whether they need them or not. In what has to be a classic case of consumer brainwashing, the public has been convinced that the list of life’s basic necessities now includes a 64K memory. Well, it just ain’t so!”

At that point, my son asked: “Well, then, how much memory do we need?”

Consumer brainwashing? I must agree—how right you are!

BARRY KELNER
Manalapan, NJ
WE'RE TURNING THE COMPETITION GREEN WITH ENVY.

NTE is the red hot success story of the electronics industry and the big boys are green with envy. They don't like the fact that we've built our reputation on giving you more of what you're looking for in a replacement part. More quality. More reliability. And, more parts to choose from. That's why more and more technicians across the country are picking the package with the green NTE diamond on the front.

NTE parts are extensively tested on state-of-the-art equipment during every phase of production to ensure top performance — performance that's backed by the industry's only two year warranty.

What's more, NTE uses a special computer controlled inventory system, so when you replace or design with NTE, you can be sure that the part you need is on your distributor's shelf. Our new 1985/86 Technical Guide and Cross-Reference manual, which has over 3,100 NTE types cross-referenced to over 220,000 industry part numbers, is now available.

Why settle for our competitor's parts when you get more quality and service with NTE? Look for NTE's replacement parts in the bright green polybags and cartons at your distributor today. Don't forget to ask about our new Flameproof Resistors and Wire Ties, too!

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CIRCLE 289 ON FREE INFORMATION CARD

NOVEMBER 1985
**Canon Typestar 6**

This typewriter includes some of the most powerful features of both typewriters and computers.

**There's an interesting phenomenon going on in the portable typewriter market:** the traditional portable typewriter is merging with today's portable computer, and the combination frequently provides some of the best features of both. For example, the Canon Typestar 6 features a high-density dot-matrix printhead, a 28-character LCD (Liquid Crystal Display), and a full-travel keyboard, and has a set of operating commands that allow it to function like an expensive word-processor.

**Using the Typestar 6**

The Typestar 6 has several modes of operation, selected by use of the **Mode** key. In the **Character** mode, characters are printed one-by-one as they are entered at the keyboard. In the **line** mode, a whole line is entered before it is printed. That gives you a chance to correct mistakes before it is printed.
VIDEO ACCESSORIES

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bp VIDEO-CINE CONVERTER

The BP Video-Cine Converter is an optical device that allows the easy transfer of slides, 8mm or 16mm movie film to VCR tape. The Video-Cine Converter's precision optics put the image from your movie or slide projector on a high-contrast, rear projection screen. Your video camera shoots that image, can color-correct faded pictures, add narration to other sound. Can be used with any video camera or slide projector. If your video camera lacks close-up capability, you will need a macro lens attachment.

MODEL V-1701 $36.95

Macro Lens Attachment Model 0314 $14.95

FOR ULTIMATE VIEWING

TEKNIKA Wireless Remote Control TV Tuner & Cable Converter with Volume Control

Model 6510 $169.95

Wireless remote control with volume for cable TV, VHF/UHF antenna systems upgrades any TV to 140 channel capability. * Works with any TV set * Quick, easy installation * Off-air and cable compatible * Quartz frequency synthesizer tuning * Direct access/memory scan selector * Ultra-compact, hand-held wireless remote control

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Wireless remote control on/off, channel selection and fine tuning. * Works with any TV, 61 channel capability * Microcomputer controlled PLL operation * Converter panel controllable for channel up, down, on/off, fine tuning * LED display * Compatible with CATV systems

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Model V7777 VHS $49.95

Model V7776 BETA $49.95

Record a pay channel while viewing a standard channel. You can also connect an antenna/cable, VCR, video disc player, home computer and video game.

Model V4804 $49.95

Model V7777 VHS $49.95

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Reduce wear and tear of your VCR head with the AC powered circuit protected rewinders, LED power-on indicators.

Charge it with VISA/MASTERCARD. Phone orders accepted.

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Service and Shipping Charge Schedule

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NOVEMBER 1985
committing them to paper. Finally, the memory mode allows you to enter and edit data in the Typestar 6’s 2000-character memory.

That memory may be divided into as many as 26 different buffers of arbitrary length, each of which may be edited and printed separately. To edit a buffer, you press the TEXT key, a letter from A to Z (representing the desired buffer), and the COOT key. At that point you may use the DELETE key, LEFT and RIGHT arrow keys, and the RELOCATE key to clean up your text. The RELOCATE key moves the cursor to the beginning or end of the current buffer on alternate keystrokes. The arrow keys move the cursor one character at a time in the appropriate direction, and the DELETE key deletes the character at the current cursor position.

A collection agency, for example, might make use of that memory to store a set of messages to be used in printing form letters. The contents of each message would vary depending on how long an account had been overdue. To print a letter, the typist would manually type the name and address block, then choose the appropriate buffer, as done for editing, and then press the PRINT key. Finally, a signature line would be typed in manually.

One nice thing about the keyboard is that the shift lock key has a small red indicator that lights up when that key has been depressed. There are separate keys for setting left and right margins, keys for setting and clearing tab stops, a margin release key, a REPEAT key, and the SP (keyboard) key, which allows you to choose between several different foreign language character sets.

The printer

The Typestar 6 has a thermal-transfer printer that uses special miniature ribbon cartridges. The thermal process ensures that operation is fairly quiet. As a matter of fact, operation is noisier when the printhead returns to the left side of the page after printing a line. The whirring sound emitted when that happens seems loud because there is so little noise otherwise!

It is interesting that the Typestar
6 uses a much higher density printhead than is common with even the best of today's dot-matrix printers. A 24 x 9 matrix is about the highest density available on current printers, but the Typestar 6 uses a 32 x 26 matrix, which yields characters almost indistinguishable from those formed by daisy-wheel or ball printers.

In addition, you may choose from among five different typefaces. The Typestar 6 comes with Courier 10 built-in, but has a slot on the left side of the machine that will accept one ROM (Read Only Memory) cartridge containing an alternate character set. At the present time you may choose from Courier 12, Cubic PS, Ameria PS, and Courier Italic 10, each of which retails for about $30.

Word-processing functions

So far, the Typestar 6 might not sound much different from a standard memory typewriter. Its word-processing functions are what distinguish it. For example, it can center a line of text between the current margins, or between tabs, at the touch of a key. You can specify that your text come out left justified (with a ragged right margin), right justified (with a ragged left margin), or fully justified (both margins even). In addition to setting the usual tabs and margins, the Typestar 6 handles decimal tabs, allowing you to align columns of numbers easily.

Other parameters you can specify include line spacing, automatic underlining, double-width printing, and automatically underlined double-width printing. You can set the Typestar 6 up to return the carriage and feed the paper only when you press the return key. Or you can let the Typestar 6 return (Continued on page 30)
The LBO-524L is designed for a broad range of applications in design, testing and servicing of both analog and digital circuits and equipment. Its large 8 x 10 cm PDA CRT provides sharp, bright displays even at highest sweep rates. Comprehensive triggering controls including holdoff, alternate triggering and delayed sweep triggered functions permit stable displays for even the most complex signals. With 0.5 millivolt sensitivity, extremely low-level signals can easily be observed. A Channel 1 output is available on the rear panel to drive off-line less sensitive instruments such as a frequency counter with an input level as low as 0.005 microvolts. The dual time base permits accurate observation and time interval measurements of complex waveforms.

$749.00

The LBO-516 is an economical 100-MHz, 3-channel, alternate time base oscilloscope. It has all of the important features that are expected in a 100-MHz oscilloscope such as full front panel operation, alternate triggering for simultaneous view of asynchronous signals and independent triggering facilities with video sync separators, variable trigger holdoff, excellent trigger sensitivity and more. Eight trace capability is possible by displaying main and delayed versions of CH-1, CH-2, CH-3, and CH-140. Also included are comprehensive triggering facilities with video sync separators, variable trigger holdoff, excellent trigger sensitivity and more.

$1195.00

The LBO-514A is a compact 5-inch oscilloscope that offers maximum performance at low cost. Equipped with both vertical and horizontal magnifiers, it has 1 mV sensitivity with X5 magnification and a minimum sweep speed of 0.1 usec/cm. 0.2 usec/cm in 16 calibrated steps (plus X5 magnification). The LBO-514A provides both chop and alternate dual trace display.

$447.00

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- Ideal for Hobbyists or Light Usage
- 128K RAM Buffer
- Build-In RS-232 Port
- Completely Assembled & Tested
- Programs 2716 through 27256
- Fast Intelligent Algorithm
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**INDUSTRIAL MODEL WITH TIMER**

**MODEL 18/27**

- Erases 15 EPROMs in 20-30 Minutes
- Rugged 60 Minute Auto Shut-Off Timer and Safety Interlock
- 5" x 8" Tray with Indicator
- Conductive Pad
- Attractive Steel Enclosure

$97.50

**MODEL 18/1**

This is a Low Cost Unit Designed in a Two Part Plastic Case. This unit erases as many as 8 EPROMs in 15-20 minutes.

$49.95

Prices subject to change without notice.
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FLUKE® DMM Accessories

$89.00
801-600 AC Current Probe
+1000 transformer. Features large jaw opening for industrial use.
Accuracy: ±3%
Range: 1A to 600A 30 Hz to 1 kHz
Jaw Opening: 2 inches (50 mm)

$197.00
YB100 DC/AC Current Probe
Uses Hall effect to measure dc or ac current without electrical contact. Battery powered. Two ranges, 20A and 200A
Accuracy: ±2% of range (dc to 200 Hz)
Range: to 200A and 1 kHz
Jaw Opening: 0.75 inch (19 mm)

$72.00
80K-40 High Voltage Probe
(+ 1000 resistive divider)
Accuracy: ±2%, 20 kV to 30 kV
Range: to 40,000V dc or peak ac (60 Hz)

ESCORT DMM’s & Capacitance Meter

MODEL EDM 1116A $89.00
- 4½-Digit Multimeter
- Audible Continuity Testing
- Diode Testing
- Data Hold
- Data Save
- Audible Continuity Testing

MODEL EDM 1346A $189.00
- 4½-Digit Multimeter
- Audible Continuity Testing
- Diode Testing
- Data Hold
- Data Save
- Audible Continuity Testing

LEADER

Audio Sine/Square Wave Generator
- Distortion from <0.05%
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- 3V 600Ω

MODEL 381B $189.00
- Sine, square and triangle output
- Variable and fixed TTL outputs
- 0.1 Hz to 1 MHz in six ranges
- Typical distortion under 0.5% from 1 Hz to 100 kHz
- Variable DC offset
- VCO input for sweep tests

MULTI-FUNCTION COUNTER
MODEL WD-755 $248.00
- 5 Hz to 125 MHz
- 8 Digit LED Display
- Period Measurement 5 Hz to 2 MHz
- Totalizes to 99,999,999 Plus Overflow
- Frequency Ratio Mode
- Time Interval Mode
- Switchable Attenuator & Low Pass Filter

ESCORT

3½-Digit Capacitance Meter
Range: 200PF - 20mF
MODEL EDC110A $89.00
- Accuracy:
20PF-20uF ±(0.5%rdg+1dgt+0.5PF)
200uF ±(1.0%rdg+1dgt)
2000uF ±2.0%rdg+1dgt)

CIRCLE 258 ON FREE INFORMATION CARD
the carriage for you automatically when you approach the end of a line. How do you know when you're nearing the end of the line? The Typestar 6 allows you to set the column at which an alarm bell sounds. Further, the Typestar 6 has the capability of doing hyphenation. With that feature enabled, as you approach the end of a line and press the hyphen key, the typewriter will automatically print the hyphen and move to the next line.

As capable as it is, the Typestar 6 does have a few drawbacks. First, it is slow. An experienced typist can easily run several lines ahead of the printhead; and while the microprocessor is taking care of its job, there is a drawback to the printer, and gives you a good understanding of how to use and get the most from its many advanced capabilities.

The documentation is very good. It is written in clear, readable language, and is printed on high-quality stock. It quickly takes you through the basic operation of the typewriter, and gives you a good understanding of how to use and get the most from its many advanced capabilities.

The Canon Typestar 6 retails for $299.95; for more information on that product contact Canon USA, One Canon Plaza, Lake Success, NY, 11042.

---

**Fluke 80TK Thermocouple Converter**

*Use your DMM to measure temperature.*

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**Electronic Soldering System**

- Electronic Control
- 24 Volt at the Handle

This versatile soldering system can be tailored to fit most job requirements. The available temperature range of the 9900 system is 450°F to 850°F. The power base can utilize either a micro-sized or macro-sized iron. The system's versatility is easy to use.

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The **80TK**

The **80TK** converts the output of a **K**-type thermocouple into a 1-millivolt-per-degree signal that can be input directly to a DMM. The temperature can be read from the DMM's display, with a resolution as high as 0.1 degree. Of course, the level of resolution will depend on the voltage scale that the meter is set on (of course, higher temperatures will require use of a higher scale).

Temperatures can be measured in either degrees Celsius or Fahrenheit. The temperature scale is switch-selectable from the front of the converter. As that is the only control on the unit, the same switch is used to turn the 80TK on and off.

Using the converter is very simple. The unit is plugged into a DMM, and, in turn, a thermocouple is plugged into the converter. The converter and DMM are turned on, the thermocouple is exposed to whatever it is you want to measure, and the temperature is displayed on the DMM's readout.

The converter itself is lightweight, weighing in at just 4.5 ounces. It's overall length, including the banana-plug outputs, is just 4½ inches. The banana plugs are spaced ¾ inches apart, so the unit can be plugged directly into any DMM that adheres to that
spacings for its v and commons inputs (as most DMM's do).

The 80TK is powered by a nine-volt battery. Estimated battery life is claimed to be 1600 hours by the manufacturer.

Thermocouples

The unit is supplied with a general-purpose bead thermocouple probe. That probe has a measurement range of -40°C to +260°C (-40°F to +500°F). In addition Fluke offers an optional immersion probe for liquids or gels and a surface probe for direct contact with the surface being measured.

All of the Fluke probes attach to the converter via a mini thermocouple connector (subminiature K plug). The unit can also be used with probes from other manufacturers that use similar thermocouple connectors.

The converter's specified temperature measurement range is -50 to +1000°C (-58 to +1832°F). Accuracy, provided that the converter is kept within its ambient temperature range (0 to 50°C), varies between 0.5% ± 2°C (0.5% ± 3.6°F) and 2.5% ± 2°C (2.5% ± 3.6°F), depending on the temperature being measured.

Note that those specifications refer only to the converter itself. They do not include the error introduced by either the thermocouple or the DMM.

The documentation supplied with the unit is brief, but to the point. It does a good job of describing how to use the unit effectively. Maintenance, testing, and calibration information is also provided, as is a schematic diagram and parts list.

While the unit does not have the accuracy of some of the more expensive laboratory models, it should prove more than accurate enough for most applications. The 80TK thermocouple converter carries a one-year warranty, and sells for $59.00.

Radio Electronics is happy to announce a new column to serve our readers. If you have a question regarding any area of electronics, ask us! We'll do our best to find an answer to your question or, at least, suggest where you might find one. Send your questions to:

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The world of computers is constantly expanding. Applications have spread from business to manufacturing, from industry to medical and scientific fields. Computer-aided design, engineering, and production have revolutionized drafting, graphics, and prototyping. Computer sales figures point to a continuing need for service technicians as well as installation and maintenance specialists. The type of training you receive will largely determine your ability to take advantage of these opportunities ... and nothing beats the practical, down-to-earth training you get from NTS.

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NOVEMBER 1985
NEW PRODUCTS

DIGITAL STORAGE OSCILLOSCOPES, models 2220, 2230 and 2430 offer high speed in portable packages. The top-of-the-line model 2430 has a digitizing speed of 100 million samples per second, a bandwidth of 150 MHz, and can catch glitches as narrow as 2 nsec. The 2430 has two CCD's (Charge Coupled Devices) for simultaneous dual-channel signal acquisition. Its extensive trigger capabilities include time- and event-delay, combination, variable holdoff, auto-level, etc.

A special patented feature, "save-on-delta," allows the 2430 to compare incoming waveforms with a previously stored reference, and save the incoming wave if it differs from the reference. That makes the unit ideal for "babysitting" applications. The 2430 can store as many as six waveforms after power is removed. The 2430 comes standard with a GPIB interface, through which it may be programmed. The unit may also be programmed using menus selected through five front-panel pushbuttons.

Models 2230 and 2220 offer similar capabilities at lesser speeds: 100 MHz and 60 MHz, respectively. Both models offer digitizing speeds of 20 million samples per second, glitch-capture speeds of 100 nsec, and optional GPIB and RS232C interface modules.

Models 2240 and 2230 allow the user to position cursors on the screen to read out delta-time, inverse of delta-time (frequency) and delta-volts. The 2240 lists for $8900; the 2230 lists for $5150; and the 2220 lists for $4150.—Tektronix, Inc., P. O. Box 500, Beaverton, OR 97005.

OTHER FEATURES include signal strength and tuning meters, built-in Chaparral Polarotor 1 polarity control, channel 2 or 3 RF modulator, and a contemporary design with simulated woodgrain cabinet. An AVB switch, compatible with the Regency SR5000 block system, is also available for dual feed installations. The model SR5000 is priced at $599.95.—Regency Electronics, Inc., 7707 Records Street, Indianapolis, IN 46226-9989.

MULTI-COUNTER, model WD-757, is capable of frequency, period, totalize, ratio, and time-interval measurements. It achieves ±0.003% accuracy and ±0.002% stability tolerance through a combination of CMOS, TTL, low-power Schottky, and LSI technology. It is equipped with three inputs and a switchable attenuator to reduce high-amplitude signals by a factor of 10. A switchable lowpass filter has a cutoff frequency of 10 MHz.

The model WD-757 has a suggested list price of $479.00—VIZ Test Equipment, 335 East Price Street, Philadelphia, PA 19144.

PROBE, model IR-10, is a non-contact, infrared temperature probe. The model IR-10 converts a Simpson (or other) DMM or VOM to a

STEREO SATELLITE RECEIVER, the model SR3500, uses a block downconverter instead of the usual single conversion type. The block system ensures a clean, crisp picture, and allows the user to install a multiple-receiver system. The unit can also receive stereo broadcasts in either the discrete or matrix mode.

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The rugged 1420 features dual-trace operation and an honest 15MHz response, with useful response beyond 20MHz. An efficient rectangular CRT displays waveforms with good readability under all field service conditions.

There is no sacrifice of features or performance for compact size. The 1420 has 18 sweep ranges from 1µS/div. to 0.5S/div. in a 1-2-5 sequence; variables between ranges. Sweep magnification is X10, extending the maximum sweep rate to 100nS/div. For use with computer terminals or video circuits, a video sync separator is built-in. Automatic selection of chop and alternate sweep modes is provided, as is front-panel X-Y operation.

The Model 1420 measures only 4.5 X 8.5 X 12"., weighs 7.75 lbs., with batteries and comes with two 101 probes.

For complete specifications contact your local distributor or call B&K-PRECISION.

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AM/FM CASSETTE PLAYERS.

The analog CAR 335, CAR 362, and CAR 372 (shown) are auto-reverse, AM/FM stereo cassette players.

Both the CAR 362 and the CAR 372 feature a liquid-crystal display with a clock, digital AM/FM tuners with six AM and six FM station memories, auto-reverse, fader, night illumination, auto seek, preamp outputs, metal tape equalization, automatic pinch roller retraction, locating fast forward and rewind, power-antenna leads, and a DIN chassis size.

The CAR 356 has a single tone control and an output of four watts per channel, with no more than 1% THD. It is priced at $299.95.

The CAR 372 features, as well, Dolby noise reduction, separate bass and treble controls, and an output of 10 watts per channel with no more than 1% THD. It is priced at $299.95.

Marantz also offers a mobile power amplifier, model SA-102, featuring an output of 40 watts per channel at 10% THD and 30 watts per channel at 1% THD, high and low level inputs, adjustable gain controls, integral heat-sink cooling, and remote on/off sensing. It is priced at $99.95.—Marantz, 20525 Nordhoff St., Chatsworth, CA 91311.

SOLDERLESS BREADBOARD, the ACE 118, features four binding posts, something usually found on much larger boards. The four standard five-way posts, attached to the base plate, make convenient connections to power supplies, signal generators, or other external equipment.

The ACE 118 has 1280 terminal tie points. Up to 18 14-pin DIPs or 16 16-pin DIPS can be used on the breadboard. Included are 544 distribution tie points, which can be used to offer such functions as voltage and ground buses, reset and clock lines, etc. The ACE 118 accepts all DIP sizes, as well as a wide variety of discreet components. It has a suggested retail continued on page 112
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A NEW COMPANY WAS NEEDED AND STARTED

Fortunately, other people in the diskette industry recognized that making ultra-high quality diskettes required the best and newest manufacturing equipment as well as the best people to operate this equipment. Since most manufacturers seemed satisfied to give you only the everyday quality now available, an assemblage of diskette industry individuals decided to start a new company to give you a new and better diskette. They called this product the Super Disk diskette, and you're going to love them. Now you have a product you can swear by, not swear at.

HOW THEY MADE THE BEST DISKETTES EVEN BETTER

The management of Super Disk diskettes then hired all the top brains in the diskette industry to make the Super Disk product. Then the rest of the top bananas (sometimes called top-hats) created a new standard of diskette quality and reliability. To learn the "manufacturing secrets" of the top diskette makers, they've also hired the remaining "magical media moguls" from competitors around the world. Then all these world-class, top-dollor engineers, physicists, research scientists and production experts (if they've missed you, send your resume to Super Disk) were given one directive—to pool all their manufacturing know-how and create a new, better diskette.

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The Super Disk crew then assembled the newest, totally quality monitored, automatically produced line in the industry. Since the manufacturing equipment at Super Disk is new, it's easy for Super Disk to consistently make better diskettes. You can always count on totally new, 100% tested, superb dependability when you use Super Disk diskettes. If all this manufacturing mumbo-jumbo doesn't impress you, we're sure that at least one of these other benefits from using Super Disk diskettes will:

1. **TOTAL SURFACE TESTING**: For maximum reliability and to lessen the likelihood of disk errors, all disks must be totally surface tested. At Super Disk, each disk is 100% surface tested. Super Disk is so picky in their testing, they even test the tracks that are in between the regular tracks.

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7. **CUSTOmer ORIENTED PACKAGING**: All Super Disks are packaged 10 disks to a carton and 10 cartons to a case. The economy bulk pack is packaged 100 disks to a case without envelopes or labels.

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Product Description

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part #</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Price</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5191-ZJ</td>
<td>5¼&quot; SSSO Soft Sector w/Hub Ring</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5237-ZJ</td>
<td>5¼&quot; Same as above, but bulk pack w/o envelope</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5239-ZJ</td>
<td>5¼&quot; SSSO Soft Sector w/o Hub</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5291-ZJ</td>
<td>5¼&quot; Same as above, but bulk pack w/o envelope</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5391-ZJ</td>
<td>5¼&quot; DSOO Soft Sector w/Hub Ring</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5397-ZJ</td>
<td>5¼&quot; Same as above, but bulk pack w/o envelope</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5601-ZJ</td>
<td>5¼&quot; DSOD Soft Sector w/o Hub Ring w/TE5 (98 TP)</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SSDD = Single Side Double Density, SSSD = Single Side Single Density, DSDD = Double Side Double Density, DSOD = Double Side Quadruple Density, TE5 = Tracks per inch.**

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a disk
Now you can superimpose titles and computer graphics on video images!

JACK FLACK

HAVE YOU EVER WANTED TO ADD TITLES TO SOME OF YOUR VCR RECORDINGS? WHILE THERE ARE MANY titlers commercially available that let you liven up your video presentations by adding characters, they do so at the expense of the video image. But the titler we’ll describe will change all that. It lets you superimpose characters directly on the video image from a VCR, video camera, videodisk player, or even an over-the-air broadcast!

If characters aren’t enough for your needs, the titler can be interfaced with a home computer such as the IBM PC, TRS-80 Color Computer, Commodore 64, or Apple II to allow you to superimpose computer-generated graphics or even real-time animation on a standard video signal.

Even with the current “video boom,” a device such as this has not been available commercially to the home video enthusiast—until now. Why not? After all, the networks and even local television station have had expensive computer-based character generators for over 10 years.

Unlike audio, video signals are very complex; they must contain synchronizing, color, detail, and other information necessary to generate a television picture. And to superimpose one video image on top of another, both signals must be synchronized. The difficulty in doing that—because there are no LSI IC’s available to do it—is apparently what has kept a product like our titler off the market...until now.

The video titler uses
Motorola's 6809 microprocessor and Texas Instruments TMS9912 VDP (Video Display Processor). The VDP performs most of the functions needed to generate computer images. It provides refresh for 16K dynamic video RAM's, asynchronous bi-directional data transfer to internal registers and video RAM, 356 x 192-pixel resolution, 16 colors, up to 32 separate movable objects called sprites, and—most important for superimposition—the ability to be synchronized (gen-locked) with an external video signal.

Before we go any further in our description of how the video titler works, we should review some of the fundamentals of video and television.

**Background on video**

The standards for television in the U.S. were adopted during the 1940's for black-and-white TV and enhanced in the early 1950's to provide for color. The group of industry representatives responsible for these standards was the National Television Systems Committee (NTSC).

The NTSC standards call for a raster (which is the pattern of scanning lines on a TV picture tube when no signal is being received) of 525 horizontal lines. The raster frame of 525 lines consists of 2 fields, usually referred to as the odd and even fields. Each field therefore consists of 262.5 horizontal lines. See Fig. 1.

To generate the frame, all the odd lines from the top of the screen to the bottom are scanned first (making up the odd field). Then the beam is returned to the top of the screen, and the even lines are then scanned from the top to the bottom (making up the even field). The process of “weaving together” the odd and even fields to form a raster is called interlacing.

Each field is scanned in 1/60 second, so each complete frame is repeated at a rate of 30 frames per second.

The reason that interlaced scanning was chosen by the NTSC is that it helps to eliminate flicker by producing a relatively smooth transition between fields. You can sometimes observe flicker, which is the slight shifting up and down of images on the screen, with large white-on-black characters (or other high-contrast images). Flicker, which can make it difficult to read characters, especially small characters, is the primary reason computer designers chose not to use 30 frames-per-second interlacing. Home computers usually operate with 262 horizontal lines in each field. The beam then traces the same path 60 times per second. This approach eliminates flicker; however, it also reduces the vertical resolution to one half of the resolution of 525 line interlaced images.

**Composite video**

The NTSC composite-video signal that is used to transmit television picture information was also standardized in the 1940's and 1950's. (It is also sometimes referred to as RS-170). Although the polarity and peak-to-peak voltage of the composite video signal is not mentioned in the standard, the other parts of the waveform are fixed. Fortunately, the VCR and video camera industry have standardized the polarity and peak-to-peak voltage of the composite video signals as negative-going sync and 1 volt peak-to-peak amplitude AC into a 75-ohm impedance. Make sure that any device you use with the video titler follows these standards!

Figure 2 shows the composite video signal. The signal contains timing components and picture-definition components. For superimposing, the timing components from the titler's video signal (the vertical sync, horizontal sync and colorburst) must be synchronized with the those of the external video signal.

The horizontal sync and blanking pulses keep the TV receiver's horizontal scanning in step with that at the transmitter, and cut off the picture tube during horizontal retrace. The duration of one horizontal line is 63.5 µs, and the blanking pulse interval lasts for about 10 µs. Thus, the active video portion of one horizontal line that is actually seen lasts for 53.5 µs.

The horizontal sync pulses are about 5 microseconds wide and ride on the blanking pulse pedestal. The colorburst ride on the blank of the horizontal blank.

The vertical sync and blanking pulse must be provided between each field to ensure that vertical retrace begins at the proper time, and to hide the visual effect of the retrace. The pulse occurs at the end of each field, and lasts until vertical retrace has ended. Each vertical blanking interval lasts for between 13 and 21 horizontal lines. (Thus for each frame, 26 to 42 horizontal lines are lost to vertical blanking.)

There are three types of pulses riding on the vertical blanking pulse: equalizing, vertical-sync, and horizontal sync pulses. (A colorburst is inserted after each horizontal sync pulse for color signals.)

Note the waveform of the vertical sync in Fig. 2. Remember that vertical sync occurs after 262.5 horizontal lines. In order to maintain horizontal synchronization during the vertical sync, vertical sernrations are inserted between the vertical sync pulses and occur at twice the horizontal frequency. The equalizing pulses before and after the vertical sync also occur at twice the horizontal frequency. You will later see that all negative edges of the equalizing pulses, vertical sernrations, and horizontal sync pulses are used to synchronize the video titler's horizontal frequency.

The colorburst is the heart of the
color-reproduction process. Although this precise 3.579545-MHz (referred to as 3.58 MHz) burst appears only for a few microseconds during the back porch of the horizontal sync, it is used to generate a continuous 3.58 MHz sinewave. This sinewave's frequency and phase is re-established every active horizontal line (except during the vertical blanking period). The way in which the colorburst is used in the generation of colors will be discussed later. For now, it's sufficient to say that the video titer must synchronize its color clock to the external colorburst.

Otherwise, images generated by the titer will appear in a rainbow of random colors.

The luminance represents the black-and-white picture detail. It basically is the brightness or degree of white present in each picture element, without regard to the color.

The chrominance is the color information of the video signal. The chrominance signal carries the hue and saturation information. Figure 3 illustrates how the chrominance information is encoded and decoded.

The chrominance signal is compared to the chroma subcarrier, which is internally generated by the TV set using the colorburst as a reference sample. Differences in phase result in different hues. The relative amplitude of the chrominance with respect to the chroma subcarrier determines the saturation of the color. A chrominance signal with a small amplitude will result in a pastel color. On the other hand, a large amplitude will result in deep saturated colors.

**How the video titer works**

Now that we have a basic understanding of the standard video signal, let's look at how the video titer can superimpose its video image over an external NTSC composite video signal. Certain conditions must be met before the two signals can be mixed. The vertical, horizontal and color clocks must be synchronized and the amplitude and DC level must be matched.

The heart of the video titer is Texas Instruments' TMS9128 VDP. The VDP operates with a 10.738635-MHz clock (which is 3 times the color subcarrier frequency of 3.58 MHz), from which all of the other internal clocks are derived. The pixel clock is 5.4 MHz (10.738635/2), which means that each pixel is approximately 186 nanoseconds wide. The pixel clock is divided by 342 to generate horizontal sync.

The VDP provides for vertical and horizontal synchronization to an external composite video signal through a 3 level sync/pulse input. System reset occurs when that input is brought low (less than 0.8 volts). For normal operation, the sync/reset input is held at 5 volts. When it exceeds 9 volts for greater than 7 microseconds, the VDP resets its internal video counters.

That would seem to mean that all we need is a positive-going sync pulse applied to the reset/sync input, operating between 5 and greater than 9 volts, to synchronize the VDP's internal vertical and horizontal counters with the external signal. Unfortunately, that's not exactly true. Texas Instruments chose not to use the NTSC standard for its sync pulses, and that results in problems with the external reset mechanism.

The VDP resets its horizontal clocks on the leading edge of the pixel clock. If you use some simple math you find that the NTSC horizontal sync occurs about every 63.556 microseconds. That works out to 341.25 pixel clocks. The one-fourth pixel difference causes jagged edges to appear on the images being superimposed on the screen.

The TMS9128 VDP does not internally generate the 3.58 MHz chrominance information. To generate color, it uses color difference signals (R-Y and B-Y) in connection with an external chrominance modulator.

**FIG. 3**—THE CHROMINANCE SIGNAL AND CHROMA SUBCARRIER, which is generated by the TV set using the colorburst as a reference, are compared to each other. A phase change represents changes in hue.

**FIG. 4**—TIMING SIGNALS USED TO SYNCHRONIZE THE VDP with external horizontal and vertical timing elements. Shown in a is the external composite-video signal, and in b, the external composite sync. In c, we see the extracted horizontal component. The vertical component is shown in d, and the recreated horizontal sync is shown in e. Finally, the hybrid pulse used to reset the VDP's horizontal and vertical counters is shown in f.
The TMS9128 can operate quite well at frequencies slightly higher or lower than 10.738635 MHz without affecting the color-generation process. With a standard NTSC horizontal line of 63.556 microseconds, a VDP pixel width of 185.8349 nanoseconds (63.556 divided by 342 pixels per line) will result in the VDP operating at the NTSC horizontal rate. This pixel width can be derived from a master clock of 10.762237 MHz. You’d think with this problem overcome we’d be all set. But not yet.

A second problem exists with the VDP’s process of synchronizing to an external VCR or videodisc-player signal. The sync pulses coming from these devices are not as stable as those from a camera or direct video broadcast. That is because VCR’s and videodisc players have servo motors controlling the generation of the vertical and horizontal sync pulses during playback.

That instability is referred to as “jitter.” Vertical jitter is not as much of a concern because of the relatively slow frequency of the vertical timing element. On the other hand, horizontal jitter may actually be observed when a jittery signal is used to directly reset the VDP’s horizontal counters. Once again, what is seen is jagged edges on the VDP’s images.

The video titler overcomes the jitter problem by letting the horizontal sync track the external horizontal sync using a phase-locked loop (PLL) to “average out” the jitter. However, the VDP does not provide a separate horizontal output pulse and does not generate vertical serrations or equalizing pulses in its non-standard video signal. Therefore to obtain a horizontal sync during the vertical period, a pseudo horizontal pulse has to be constructed using available signals.

That pulse could be derived by dividing the master clock by 684. However, since the CPU's clock output on the VDP is merely the master clock divided by 4, we can further divide the signal by 228 and accomplish the same result. (Using that technique actually allowed us to use one less 4-bit binary counter in the circuit.)

The vertical counters within the VDP must still be reset in order to superimpose. By doing that, however, we introduce an additional problem. Using a simple RC filter, we can extract the vertical sync from the external composite sync. After proper level adjustment, that signal can be applied to the VDP’s reset/sync input. So far, so good.

Remember, however, that the leading edges of any pulse applied to the reset/sync input resets the VDP’s horizontal counters. Also remember that the standard NTSC composite video calls for 262.5 horizontal lines for each vertical sync pulse. This means that each successive external vertical sync pulse will also reset the VDP’s horizontal counters.

The block diagram of the video titler shows its main sections: the external sync generator, clock generator, video display processor, chroma processor, video mixer/buffer, and microcomputer. We’ll discuss those sections in detail next month.

The power supply diagram shows the power supply diagram for the video titler. The circuit provides +5 volts for the external video camera and also provides the operating voltage for the external video camera.
at a point that is one half horizontal line different from the previous frame.

In the meantime, the recreated VDP horizontal pulse is still tracking the external horizontal frequency. That would cause characters on the left of the screen to jump to the center and back to the left with each successive external vertical sync pulse!

In order to deal with that within the video titler, pseudo vertical serrations (inverted VDP horizontal sync pulses) were inserted into the vertical pulse used to reset the VDP. Those horizontal pulses are, in fact, the same recreated pulses used by the PLL. Figure 4 shows the signals used to synchronize the VDP with external horizontal and vertical timing elements.

As in the color synchronization of the titler, there are a number of chroma-processor integrated circuits designed specifically to generate a synchronous chroma subcarrier. The RCA CA3126 was selected primarily because of its sine wave output, which provides relatively easy interface with the video titler's chroma modulator. National's LM1889.

The last design area of the titler worth mentioning here is the requirement for matched signal amplitude and DC level. Fortunately the video signal amplitude of the VDP is very close to the external signal being used and the DC level adjustment is handled by a simple diode clamp.

The video titler circuit

Figure 5 is a block diagram of the video titler. The six main sections of the titler are: the external sync generator, clock generator, video display processor, chroma processor, video mixer/buffer and microcomputer.

There is an additional section to the titler—the power supply—that isn't shown in the block diagram. Its schematic is, however, shown in Fig. 6. The power supply provides several separate DC voltages: +12, +5, +3, +1.5, +7.0, and -5.

The power supply obtains the necessary positive and negative voltages from a wall-mounted transformer. The +5 volts is obtained by applying the 14-volt AC signal through C57 and clamping the most positive peak at zero using D8. Diode D9 serves as half wave rectifier whose output is filtered by C56 before going to the -5 volt regulator (IC26).

Two positive voltages of about +8.5 and 17 are regulated to provide +12 and +5 volt supplies. Simple 3 terminal voltage regulators with TO3 cases (IC24 and IC25) were selected because of their heat sinking capacity.

That's all the circuit we have room to talk about this month. When we continue, we'll discuss other features of the power supply, and we'll present the rest of the circuit, along with foil patterns and construction details.
Learn all about the causes of electromagnetic interference, and what you can do to neutralize its effects.

Types of EMI

EMI can be loosely defined as an undesirable signal that affects the normal operation of equipment such that the equipment malfunctions, or the performance of the equipment is degraded in some manner. The phenomenon, its causes, and its cure have all become especially important as new technologies that use low voltage levels and high-density packaging have been developed. Such technologies are especially sensitive to EMI.

Just as electrical energy is moved from one place to another either by conduction (through wires) or radiation (through the atmosphere or space), EMI "reaches" its "victim" via radiation and/or conduction. For instance, consider the case of static on a television caused by someone using an electric hair dryer. If you look at the dryer motor while the dryer is in use, you can see electricity arcing between the motor's commutator and brushes. Those arcs are a source of both conducted and radiated broadband electric noise that can affect the normal operation of a TV set. By broadband we mean that the noise signal contains a wide variety of frequencies, including in most cases those that fall in the TV band (54–216 MHz VHF, 470–890 MHz UHF).

Figure 1 shows a situation that is found in millions of households—an electric...
A drill in use in one room affecting the operation of a TV set in another. Note that the drill and the TV set are physically separated, they are both fed from the same branch of the house's wiring. The signal generated by the arcing within the drill motor is conducted to the TV set via the line cords of the two devices and the house wiring. Once the signal reaches the TV set, it can be coupled into the set's circuitry (more on that in a moment) and processed as if it were a video signal. The result is displayed on the screen as static.

At the same time, the noise signal traveling through the line cord of the drill causes an electromagnetic field to form around that cord; that is, the line cord becomes a "transmitting antenna." The noise signal that is "broadcast" from that antenna can then be picked up by the TV antenna and processed like any other signal.

Table 1 lists some typical sources of EMI, both man-made and natural. That list is not intended to be exhaustive, but only to give you an idea of the variety of those sources. Table 2 is a brief list of the types of equipment that are subject to electromagnetic interference.

Also, it is possible that the source and victim of the interference is the same piece of equipment. That "self-jamming" occurs when there are several different systems within the same piece of equipment and one of those systems is interfering with another.

### Coupling paths

We've already seen that for EMI to occur there must be a path between the source and the victim. That path is called a coupling path. Usually, the task of locating the coupling path or paths responsible for the transmission of the EMI is the most difficult aspect of solving the problem.

That is the case, because there may be a number of paths contributing to the problem. Often, the EMI may persist even though you have eliminated one or more paths. The only solution in those cases is to keep searching until all coupling paths are found.

A further complication that multiple coupling paths presents is that it makes it difficult to determine if eliminating a suspected path has actually done any good. If two or more paths contribute equally to the problem, eliminating only one path may provide little apparent improvement.

In order to discuss the various ways in which EMI can couple from one system to another, it is necessary to define a few terms.

When dealing with conducted interference, there are two varieties that we are concerned with. The first variety is differential-mode interference. That is an interference signal that appears between the input terminals of a circuit. The other variety of conducted interference is called common-mode interference. A common-mode interference signal appears between each input terminal and a third point (that third point is called the common-mode reference). That reference may be the equipment chassis, an earth ground, or some other point.

Let's look at those types of interference a little more closely. In Fig. 2-a we show a simple circuit consisting of a signal source, \( V_s \), and a load, \( R_L \). In Fig. 2-b we show what happens when differential-mode interference is introduced into the circuit by an outside source (more on that in a moment). As is shown, an interference voltage, \( V_D \), appears between the two input terminals, an interference current, \( I_D \), flows in the circuit. The result is noise at the load. If, for instance, the load is a logic gate in a computer, and the amplitude of \( V_D \) is sufficiently high, it is possible for the gate to incorrectly change states. It is possible that such an occurrence would alter the results of any computations being performed at the time—a rather undesirable situation.

Figure 2-c shows what happens when a ground loop is added to our circuit. Ground loops, which are undesirable current paths through a grounded body (such as a chassis), are usually caused by poor design or by the failure of a component. In the presence of an interference source, common-mode currents, \( I_c \), and a common-mode voltage, \( V_c \), can appear, with the ground loop acting as the common-mode reference. The common-mode cur-

---

**TABLE 1—SOURCES OF ELECTROMAGNETIC INTERFERENCE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Man-Made Sources</th>
<th>Natural Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RF transmitters</td>
<td>Electrostatic discharge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automotive ignitions</td>
<td>Lightning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electric motors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arc welders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluorescent lights</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relays</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neon signs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-voltage power lines</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimmers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 2—VICTIMS OF ELECTROMAGNETIC INTERFERENCE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Computers</th>
<th>TVs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Medical equipment</td>
<td>Radios</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic control equipment</td>
<td>Ordinance (explosives, etc)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone equipment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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rent flows on both input lines, and has the same instantaneous polarity and direction (the current and voltage are in phase), and returns through the common-mode reference. The common-mode voltage between each input and the common-mode reference is identical.

Coupling itself can take place in one of several ways. Some of these include field-to-cable coupling, cable-to-cable coupling, or common-impedance coupling. Let's look at each type of coupling one at a time.

The principle behind field-to-cable coupling is the same as that behind the receiving antenna. That is, when a conductor is placed in a time-varying electromagnetic field (such as that generated by a current carrying wire), the field will induce a current in the conductor. This is shown in Fig. 3.

FIG. 3—FIELD-TO-CABLE COUPLING. If a circuit is placed within a time-varying electromagnetic field (such as that generated by a current carrying wire), the field will induce a current in that circuit.

The presence of the field causes the circuit to act as a loop antenna. As such, an interference current, \( I_W \), and an interference voltage, \( V_W \), are induced in the circuit. The magnitude of the induced interference signal is roughly proportional to the frequency of the incoming field, the size of the loop, and the total impedance of the loop.

Cable-to-cable coupling occurs when two wires are run close to one another. Because any two conducting bodies have capacitance between them, called stray capacitance, a time-varying signal in one wire can couple via that capacitance into the other wire. That is referred to as capacitive coupling. Another mechanism of cable-to-cable coupling is called mutual inductance. Any wire carrying a time-varying current will develop a magnetic field around it. If a second conductor is placed near enough to that wire, that magnetic field will induce a similar current in the second conductor. That type of coupling is called inductive coupling. In cable-to-cable coupling, either or both of those mechanisms may be responsible for the existence of an interference condition.

Figure 4 shows how cable-to-cable coupling works. Figure 4-a shows two lengths of cable (or other conductors) that are running side-by-side. Though there is no physical connection between the two cables, the properties we have just described make it possible for the signal on one cable to be coupled to the other. Mutual inductance, as shown in Fig. 4-b, makes the cables behave as if a poorly wound transformer were connected between them: stray capacitance, as shown in Fig. 4-c makes the two cables behave as if there were a coupling capacitor between them.

Either or both of the above-mentioned properties cause the cables to be electromagnetically coupled such that a time-varying signal present on one will cause a portion of that signal to appear on the other. The "efficiency" of the coupling increases with frequency and inversely with the distance between the two cables. One example of cable-to-cable coupling is telephone "crosstalk," in which several phone conversations can be overheard at once. The term crosstalk is now commonly used to describe any type of cable-to-cable coupling. Sometimes it is also used to describe any type of induced interference, though such use is incorrect.

Common-mode impedance coupling occurs when two circuits share a common bus or wire. In Fig. 5 we show a circuit that is susceptible to that type of coupling. In that figure a TL092 op-amp and a 555 timer share a common return or ground. Since any conductor (including a PC-board trace) is not ideal, that ground will have a non-zero impedance, \( Z \). Because of that, the current \( I \) from pin 1 of the 555 will cause a noise voltage, \( V_{\text{N}} \), to develop. That voltage is equal to \( I \times Z \). That noise voltage will appear in series with the input to the op-amp. If that voltage is of sufficient amplitude, a noise condition will result.

Curing EMI problems

Electromagnetic interference problems can be cured in three ways: through filtering, shielding, and isolation.

Filters are used to eliminate conducted interference on cables and wires, and can be installed at either the source or the victim.

FIG. 4—CABLE-TO-CABLE COUPLING can occur via either inductive coupling (b) or capacitive coupling (c).

Figure 6 shows an AC line filter. The values of the components are not critical; as a guide, the capacitors can be between .01 and .001 \( \mu \)F, and the inductors are nominally 6.3 \( \mu \)H. Let's see how that filter does its job. Capacitor \( C_1 \) is designed to shunt any high-frequency differential-mode currents. Capacitors \( C_2 \) and \( C_3 \) are included to shunt any common-mode currents to ground. The inductors, \( L_1 \) and \( L_2 \), are called common-mode chokes, and are placed in the circuit to impede any common-mode currents.

Shielding is used to reduce the amount of electromagnetic radiation reaching a sensitive circuit. Shields are made of metal and work on the principle that electromagnetic fields are reflected or attenuated by a metal surface. Different types of shielding are needed for different types of fields. Thus, the type of metal used in the shield and the shield's construction must be considered carefully if the shield is to function properly. The ideal shield has no holes or voids, and, in order to accommodate cooling vents, buttons, lamps, and access panels, special meshes and "EMI-hardened" components are needed.

Isolation is often the cure for many EMI problems. In general, high-voltage circuits and devices such as power supplies and motors need to be isolated from low-voltage analog and digital circuits.

To be most effective, the above points should be considered during the design of a circuit. If nothing else, such consideration may help eliminate some difficult troubleshooting. In the next part of this article, we'll look at how you can design electromagnetic compatibility into your projects.
Pulse generators are notoriously absent from many hobby-electronics test benches. That's not because hobbyists have no use for them. On the contrary. A pulse generator can be invaluable for testing, troubleshooting and experimenting with digital equipment. Unfortunately, commercial pulse generators are expensive.

We'll show you how to build a pulse generator that's not expensive; it should cost under $80 if you use all new parts. If you have some of the parts on hand, especially the switches and cabinet, you'll be able to build it for much less. The generator features a free-running, square-wave clock output that may be gated, and it also features a pulse output that may be derived directly from the clock circuit, from an external trigger, or from an internal delay generator. In addition, there is a one-shot output that delivers one pulse of the selected width for each depression of a front-panel switch. The polarity of all outputs is selectable by the user.

One special feature of our generator is the inclusion of a fault-detection circuit that lights a front-panel indicator whenever the delay or pulse width is greater than the selected clock rate; output will also be disabled. Reducing either the pulse width or the delay time will extinguish the indicator and restore output.

Our generator is built entirely from CMOS circuits, so power requirements are extremely modest. In fact, battery operation is entirely feasible. A nine-volt alkaline battery should provide about 150 hours of operation. Complete specifications for the pulse generator are given in Table 1.

Circuit description

Referring to Fig. 1, IC1 is a multivibrator used in the astable mode. Its oscillating frequency is determined by resistors R1 and R2, and one of capacitors C1-C5, as selected by the clock rate or CLK PRT (Pulse Repetition Time) switch S3. With CLK MODE switch S1 in the FREE RUN position, output will appear continuously at jacks J4 and J5; however, with S1 in the GATED position, output will be inhibited whenever pin 5 of IC1 is brought low. To restore output, a gate signal with a voltage exceeding 1/2 VCC should be applied; for the present circuit, a seven-volt gate signal will suffice.

Sync-generator IC5-a, half of a 4098 dual monostable multivibrator, is also triggered by IC1's Q output. When S2 is in the DIRECT position, the sync-generator's output is fed directly to pulse-width generator IC3-b. The width of the pulse generated by IC3-b is determined by resistors R5 and R6 in combination with C10 or C11, as selected by the PW switch S6. The width of the pulse may vary from approximately 1 μs to 100 μs. Note that IC1 determines the repetition rate of the pulse generator; IC3-b determines the width of those pulses.

When S2 is in the DELAYED position, the sync generator drives IC5-b, the delay generator, which in turn drives IC3-b. The delay generator uses the same resistor and capacitor values as the pulse generator, so the delay may also vary from approximately 1 μs to 100 μs.

When S2 is in the EXT. TRIGGER position, the clock and delay generators are disconnected from the pulse generator circuit. In that mode, a pulse of the selected width is generated on the leading edge of each pulse applied to J6, TRIGGER INPUT. As with the clock-gating signal, the trigger pulse should have an amplitude exceeding 1/2 VCC, again seven volts. The sync generator is driven by clock generator IC1, so the sync pulses appearing at J1 will not be synchronized to the external trigger. When S2 is in the ONE-SHOT position, the clock and delay generators are again disconnected from the pulse-generator circuit. In that mode, a pulse of the se-
The clock output from IC1 and the pulse output from IC3-b are each fed through three 4050 non-inverting buffers wired in parallel. Doing that allows the pulse generator to drive six TTL loads. Separate jacks were used for the CMOS and TTL outputs in lieu of a switch in order to avoid accidentally overriding TTL IC's with a high voltage. If you don't need to drive TTL circuits, IC4 may be eliminated, as well as the components associated with the five-volt power supply (R14, C12, C13 and IC6). On the other hand, if you work solely with five-volt circuits (TTL or CMOS), the twelve-volt power supply (R15, D1 and C14) could be eliminated, and the entire circuit powered from the five-volt supply.

Switch S2-b connects fault detector IC3-a to the output signal selected by S2-a. IC3-a operates in the re-triggerable mode so that, as long as it is receiving trigger pulses, its output will remain low, which will keep Q1, and hence LED2, turned off.

When S2 is in either the EXT. TRIGGER or the ONE-SHOT mode, IC3-a's TRIGGER input is connected to the output of the clock generator, IC1, so the fault detector will remain off. When S2 is in the DELAYED mode, the fault detector's input is connected to the output of the delay generator, IC5-b, and when S2 is in the DIRECT mode, the fault detector's input is connected to the output of the pulse generator, IC3-b. In either case, fault detector LED2 will remain off as long as the delay time, or the pulse width, respectively, does not exceed the clock period.

Two NAND gates in IC2 are set up as a latch to debounce switch S7, and provide dependable triggering in the one-shot mode.

Construction
The pulse generator may be built in any convenient manner, but a printed-circuit
### TABLE 1—SPECIFICATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Specification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One Shot</td>
<td>1 TO 100 µs duration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulse Output</td>
<td>1 TO 100 µs duration (o and 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulse Delay</td>
<td>1 TO 100 µs duration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ext. Trigger</td>
<td>Active on rising edge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sync. Output</td>
<td>12 volts, 1 µs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clock Output</td>
<td>2 µs to 400 ms square wave (o and 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gate Clock</td>
<td>Variable burst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outputs</td>
<td>TTL (5 volts) AND CMOS (12 volts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fault LED</td>
<td>Lights when pulse delay or width greater than pulse repetition rate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**FIG. 2—COMPONENT-PLACEMENT DIAGRAM** of the pulse generator. The lines going to +12 volts and ground actually go to a small terminal strip mounted on the front panel. Note that there is one jumper to avoid using a double sided board.

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board simplifies things considerably. Full-size PC artwork is shown in the “PC Service” section of this magazine, alternatively, you may purchase a pre-etched and drilled board; see the Parts List for information.

Whether you buy a PC board or make your own, inspect it carefully before mounting any components. If there are any shorted traces, carefully scrape between them with a sharp hobby knife.

When the board is up to snuff, you can start mounting components using the component-placement guide shown in Fig. 2. Mount components in a progression starting with those having the lowest profile: First mount the jumper, then add the resistors and diodes, then the IC sockets, and so on. After each group of a certain height has been inserted, turn the board over, making sure that the components remain flush, bend their leads slightly, then solder and clip those leads. After all components have been mounted, check the board carefully for solder bridges between adjacent pads and traces. Fix any problems that you find, but don’t insert the IC’s in their sockets yet. There’s more wiring to do.

Now connect all the front-panel switch-nes. Potentiometers and BNC jacks to the PC board, as shown in Fig. 2, with short lengths of insulated wire. Note that timing capacitors C1–C5 and C8–C11 mount directly to their associated switches, not on the PC board. The timing capacitors should be mica, metal polyester, or other high-quality types. Resistor R16 similarly mounts on front panel jack J6.

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**PARTS LIST**

All resistors 1-watt, 5% unless otherwise noted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Specification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R1, R6, R8-100,000 ohms, linear potentiometer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2, R5, R7, R9-5100 ohms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R3, R4-20,000 ohms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R10-1000,000 ohms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R11, R13-2000 ohms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R12-10 megohms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R14-150 ohms, 5-watt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R15-100 ohms, 1/2-watt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R16-10,000 ohms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Capacitors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Specification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1, C8, C10-100 µF, mica</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2-0.001, metalized polyester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3-0.01 µF, metalized polyester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4, C13-0.1 µF, metalized polyester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5-1.0 µF, metalized polyester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6-2.2 µF, metalized polyester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7-36 µF, mica</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C9, C11-0.002, metalized polyester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C12-470 µF, 16 volts, electrolytic, radial</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C14-1000 µF, 16 volts, electrolytic, radial</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Semiconductors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Specification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IC1-4047 multivibrator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC2-4011 quad two-input NAND gate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC3, IC5-4098 dual multivibrator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC4-4050 noninverting hex buffer and TTL driver</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC6-7405 5 volt regulator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH-2N3925</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BR1-bridge rectifier 50 volts, 1.5 amps</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1-1N4001 12V Zener</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LED1, LED2-standard red LED</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Specification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J1-J7-BNC female connectors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1- DPDT, miniature toggle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2-2 pole, 4 position miniature rotary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3-1 pole, 5 position miniature rotary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4-S6, S8-SPDT, miniature toggle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7-SPDT, miniature rotary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S9-SPST, miniature toggle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TI-Transformer 12.6 volts, 0.12 amps, Radio Shack #273-1360</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: An etched and drilled PC board is available from EYVIS, P.O. Box 72100, Roselle, IL 60172 for $11.95 postpaid.

Check over your wiring, and if everything looks OK, apply 117 volts AC power to the pulse generator, and turn on switch S9. With a voltmeter verify that the power-supply voltages are correct, and that +12 volts appears at pin 14 of IC1, and pin 16 of IC2, IC3 and IC5. Also make sure that 5 volts are present at pin 14 of IC4. If everything checks out, remove power and insert the IC’s. continued on page 113

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Repairing Compact Disc Players

Compact disc players are the most exciting development in audio in years. In this article we'll show you how those devices work, and how you can repair them when something goes wrong.

JOHN D. LENK

Compact disc (CD) systems are simpler than VCR's and videodisc players, but they are still complex devices that require sophisticated troubleshooting skills if they are to be successfully serviced. But if you have had some experience troubleshooting and repairing video or audio equipment, there's no reason not to try your hand at CD servicing.

Servicing CD players is not difficult, if you follow the procedures outlined in the manuals. Unfortunately, most such manuals assume that you are familiar with how a CD player operates. Because of that, little in the way of theory or background is provided. That is a shortcoming that this article aims to eliminate. By the time we are done, you will know the basics of CD-player operation, and repair.

CD player basics.

In this article we will cover CD players designed to reproduce sound from digital compact discs (digital CDs). The compact disc itself is single-sided, 4.75 inches (120 mm) in diameter, and can be used to store about 80 minutes of program information (in stereo). Just as with phonograph records, the program information on a CD may be music, speech, or any other type of audio. But such discs are not to be confused with conventional analog LP records, or with the so-called "digital" LP's. While in the manufacturing of digital LP's Pulse Code Modulation (PCM) is used to record the original performance, a CD is a recording technique in CD, the signal that is put on the CD record and played back at home is analog. The CDs described here are not interchangeable (electrically or physically) with analog LP records, digital PCM records, or videodiscs even though the operating principles of videodisc players are quite similar to those of CD players.

Let's see how a CD player works. Figure 1 is a block diagram of a typical CD player. First of all, unlike a phonograph record, a CD is "played" from the underside. The pickup used is not the familiar me-
FIG. 1—BLOCK DIAGRAM of a typical CD player. The use of a microprocessor is what makes many convenience features possible.

The chemical needle/stylus used in conventional phonographs, but rather an optical system that uses a light beam generated by a laser.

Another important difference is the manner in which information is recorded on a disc. The beginning of a CD "track" is near the center of the disc; as the program plays, the laser beam moves from the center of the disc to its outer edge. Also, rather than a groove, the information is recorded in the form of microscopic pits and flats. Those pits and flats are coded with music or other audio, as well as synchronization and identification information.

The light beam used in the CD optical pickup is focused on the CD surface by an objective lens. As the CD is played, the lens and beam are made to follow the track by a servo-operated pickup motor. The objective lens is part of a pickup assembly. There are two basic types of pickup assemblies, as shown in Fig. 2. In one, the optical system (including the objective lens) is mounted at the end of a rotating arm. The arm and lens are rotated (by the servo drive motor) so that the lens moves from disc center to edge. In the other configuration, the optical system is part of a slide assembly (also called the sled) that is motor driven.

While the subject of motors, there is also a servo-operated turntable drive motor in all CD players (to spin the disc) and usually a loading motor (or possibly two) to insert and remove the disc from the player.

Although we have already pointed out that the method used in CD's to record information differs from that used in conventional phonograph records, perhaps we should point out the significance of that difference. Phonograph records store information in a continuous groove cut into the surface of the disc. The storage technique is analog; that is, the amplitude or depth of the groove is a direct representation of the audio signal. A conventional phonograph reproduces the audio signal via a mechanical pickup, called a needle or stylus, that detects the shape of the groove and is in direct physical contact with the surface of the disc.

On the other hand, the audio signals stored on a CD are in a high-density digital format. Further, a CD player's pickup never comes into physical contact with the disc surface. The first point means that the audio signal recorded on the disc is an extremely accurate representation of the original analog signal. The second point means that the problem of deteriorating sound quality over time, caused by the record wear that is unavoidable with a mechanical pickup system, is eliminated. Also, mechanical pickup systems themselves introduce noise, such as clicks and pops, during playback; such noise is not generated by the CD playback system.

The laser beam is generated by a small low-power semiconductor diode made of aluminum-gallium-arsenide (AlGaAs). The laser beam is focused on the surface of the disc by the objective lens. That lens focuses the beam into a spot slightly less than 1 μm in diameter. Light is then reflected from the pits and flats back through the lens and optical system into infrared photodiodes. The signal from the photodiodes is used to reproduce the digitally-recorded information.

The groove on an LP record contains two signals—the stereo sum- and difference-signals—that must be simultaneously read and reproduced by conventional turntable pickup systems. The CD carries left and right channel information separately, but interfaces it on a single track. The nature of the information—that is, whether it is left or right channel, changes at fixed intervals. The player is programmed to keep step with those changes and thus maintains a high degree of isolation between the two audio channels. Realistically, channel separation of better than 90 dB is possible.

Signals are recorded in PCM form. During the recording process, the audio is sampled 44,100 times per second. That is twice the usual 20-kHz audio range. The composition (frequency, level, etc.) of each separate signal sample is then converted into a 16-bit (place) binary number. That process involves quantization. That is, the maximum signal amplitude is divided up into 2^16 (65,536) graduations.

The real level of the audio signal is then rounded to the nearest quantized value.

The use of the 16-bit system and the high sampling rate allows for an extremely accurate digital representation of the original analog signal. In theory, the dynamic range of the 16-bit system is almost 98 dB, although most CD manufacturers claim about a 90- to 95-dB dynamic range.

Figure 3-e shows a track of pits and flats. The length of the pits and flats determines the information contained on the track. The pits and flats can vary in length from about 1 to 3 μm. That variation in length is used to convey the information in the signal. Since the pits reflect less light than the flats, the CD player's optical pickup can differentiate between the two. Figure 3-b shows the analog signal that is recovered from the track shown in Fig. 3-b.

Optical pickup systems

Figure 4 shows the basic elements of the optical pickup (also called the optical readout) used by most slide-type CD players (the most popular type). The laser beam developed by the laser diode is applied to the reflective surface of the disc through an optical system (a series of lenses, prisms, gratings, and possibly mirrors). The beam is reflected back through the optics to photodiode detectors (typically 6 diodes). The detector produces an output that corresponds to the audio stored on the disc, as well as tracking and focus signals.

In the system shown in Fig. 4 the disc spins in a horizontal plane. In many CD...
FIG. 2—CD PLAYER PICKUP SYSTEMS. Most CD players use either the slide (or sled) system shown in a or the rotating arm pickup shown in b.

As long as disc tracking is precise, the error-signal amplifier output is zero. However, if even the slightest radial-tracking error is detected, the input differential between the two error signals (right and left) produces an output. That output is fed to the radial-tracking servo and coil, which move the objective lens (at right angles to the track) as necessary to correct the position of the main beam.

In rotating-arm systems, the radial tracking coil moves the entire arm and pickup as necessary to restore proper tracking. In most slide-type systems, the radial tracking coil moves the optical system (lenses, etc.) in relation to the remainder of the pickup assembly to restore tracking. A few players use a third system in which the tracking coil operates a rotary mirror placed between the laser and lens so that the beam is bent 90° when reflected by the mirror. The tracking signals cause the tracking coil to rotate the mirror (slightly) and direct the beam back to the track.

For service, it makes little difference which type of optical system is used since you must replace the entire pickup assembly as a package in the event of failure. Possible exceptions to that are the drive motor, drive belt, or a few gears. Optics are rarely replaceable, or even adjustable, in most CD players.

In addition to radial tracking, the optical pickup also provides for automatic focusing of the beam to compensate for vertical movement of the disc. The focusing system moves the objective lens (forward or away from the disc) if the laser beam is not focused precisely (within ±1 µm) on the pits and flats.

Automatic focus (or AF) uses the astigmatism principle. In the simplest of terms, the main laser beam is detected by four equally-spaced photodiodes, shown in Fig. 6. (Those same photodiodes also reproduce the audio signal.) If the beam is properly focused, the beam spot is round, and all four photodiodes receive the same amount of light (and output signals of the same strength). If the beam is not properly focused, the beam spot is elliptical, and the four photodiodes receive different amounts of light (and produce different outputs). The outputs from the four photodiodes are summed by an error amplifier, the output of that amplifier is the focus error. That error (if any) is fed to a focus coil or actuator that moves the objective lens as necessary to correct the focus.

Signal processing

The block diagram of Fig. 1 shows the sequence of signal processing within a typical CD. We will discuss each of those circuits later in this series. For now, let's quickly run through the sequence.

The photodiode output is very low, so it is first fed to a pre-amplifier which amplifies the signal. From there it is fed to a data strobe circuit that is used to differentiate between the logic-highs and logic-lows in the signal. The data strobe also extracts and separates the sync signals from the music and other audio. (Those sync signals are encoded along with the music at the time of disc manufacture; they make it possible for the CD player to reproduce audio at selected points on the disc track.)

The next stage is the data processor. That stage has many functions, including demodulation of the signal data, error detection and correction, and overall control of the signal processing circuit.

All CD player circuits include some provision for interleaving of signal data. When a CD is recorded, the music or other audio is interleaved before recording on the disc to provide error correction.
The error correction method is called CIRC or Cross Interleaved Reed-Solomon Code, and involves both parity bits and interleaving. We will not go into CIRC here since that topic is beyond the scope of this article. But you must have some knowledge of interleaving to understand how a CD player works.

In the most basic of terms, interleaving involves dividing the audio to be recorded into a series of random sections, and then lining the sections in a new, fixed, order before recording. During playback, the sections are rearranged by the opposite process to recreate the original music or other signal. The playback arrangement processing is done by temporarily storing the data in RAM and then retrieving the data in the original order.

With interleaving, the effects of dropouts in the audio (from any cause) are greatly minimized. That is true if even a relatively large part of the signal is lost. That’s because such a loss is distributed over various smaller gaps in the recreated, final, audio signal. It is a relatively simple task for the digital signal-processing circuitry to “fill in” a small section of missing information when the data on either side of the gap is present.

The D/A converter follows the signal-processing circuits. The D/A converter transforms the digital signal back into an analog signal. The converted analog signal is then restored to pure two-channel audio by a sample-and-hold (S/H) circuit, and applied to the left and right stereo outputs.

Before we move on, let’s look a little more closely at the D/A converter. Earlier we mentioned that the original audio is converted to 16-bit digital form for recording on a CD. Such discs, however, can be played back with almost no loss in dynamic range on players that use 14-bit D/A converters. The advantage of the use of such a converter, as opposed to a 16-bit converter, is cost. Thus you will find that many consumer CD players make use of 14-bit D/A converters.

Before one attempts to repair a CD player, it would be helpful to know how that player is supposed to operate in the first place. In the next part of this article we’ll see how the various features and functions found on a typical CD player normally operate.
A VERSATILE REMOTE CONTROLLER

Adding remote control to any circuit or device is not as hard as you might think. This article shows you how it's done.

J. DANIEL GIFFORD

Part 2  LAST TIME WE BEGAN to look at the receiver half of our remote-control system. Let's continue that discussion now.

The output from either the ultrasonic or infrared pickup must be amplified before being input to the 14458. One suitable amplifier design is shown in Fig. 10. That circuit takes the signal from either type of pickup, amplifies and conditions it, and clips its amplitude between 0 and 5 volts, producing at its output an exact duplicate of the signal applied to the transmitting LED's or transducer. Other amplifier designs could be used, as long as they have a high-impedance input and extremely high gain. However, the amplifier in Fig. 10 meets that requirement and uses some of the inverters already available.

As discussed earlier, the 14458 has two output ports, one eight-bit port for data, and one four-bit port for commands. The data port is actually two four-bit ports, one for the Most Significant Digit (MSD) and composed of the outputs M1 through M8, and one for the Least Significant Digit (LSD), composed of the outputs L1 through L4.

When data is transmitted, the first digit sent is routed to the MSD outputs, and the second digit to the LSD outputs. Both digits are latched in simultaneously and followed, after a 0.1 second delay, by a 0.8 millisecond positive pulse on pin 17 (DA). The data and the DA pulse may be used in any manner necessary.

Without any special connections, the 14458 is configured to receive two digits as a full data word. If desired, the receiver can be converted to accept a single digit as a full data word by connecting pin 9 (m4) to +V and pin 6 (u/v) to ground. In single-digit mode, the first data digit transmitted will be latched into the LSD outputs and followed by the DA pulse.

The command transmission situation is...
somewhat more involved, if the function bit in the data stream is a 1, the four-bit code is identified as a command, and is routed to the command port. Once the digit is latched into the port, there is a 0.1-millisecond pulse appears on the VC output, pin 18. All 16 commands and the VC pulse may be used as necessary; however, four of the commands are also used to turn the controlled device on and off. When the key corresponding to command 09 or OFF is pressed, pin 5 on the 14458, ON/OFF, is driven low. That pin is also set low when the IC is powered up, and is driven high when any data word is transmitted. If the 14458's power supply remains uninterrupted, that pin can be used to turn the controlled device on and off. When the ON/OFF pin goes low or off, the rest of the 14458 goes into a standby mode, with commands being ignored until a data word is transmitted.

The other three commands decoded by the 14458 are ANALOG UP, ANALOG DOWN, and MUTE. The ANALOG UP and ANALOG DOWN commands are of different types. The ANALOG UP command is a toggle-type command; the command is only sent once (with one VC pulse) no matter how long the key is held down. While with the continuous type, the command is transmitted (each time with a VC pulse) every 0.1 seconds as long as the key is depressed. OFF and MUTE are examples of toggle-type commands. ANALOG UP and ANALOG DOWN are continuous types.

The 14458 also has three specialized outputs intended for TV control that are probably of little use otherwise. All three are controlled by the data sent to the data port.

Pins 6 (U/V) and 7 (L/B) are used to switch between tuners and bands in a TV set. When the data at the data port is between 14 and 83, the U/V pin will be high; it is low otherwise. If the data is between 92 and 95, the L/B will be low; it is high otherwise. When the data is between 7 and 13, both pins will be low.

The third specialized TV output is different in that it may have other uses. Pin 4 (AFT) is used to disable a TV's automatic fine tuning circuit briefly each time the channel is changed. Each time new data is entered into the data port, that output will drop low for 0.4 seconds. That could be used as an alternate to the DA pulse, or as a counter to reset the TV's automatic tuning circuit briefly each time the channel is changed. Each time new data is entered into the data port, that output will drop low for 0.4 seconds. That could be used as an alternate to the DA pulse, or as a counter to reset the TV's automatic tuning circuit briefly each time the channel is changed.

Decoding and Interfacing

The 14458 is interfacing the receiver to the receiver to the system under control. Since the idea here is not to tell you how to build a specific sort of remote-controlled device, we will not discuss specific sorts of interfacing. Instead, let's look at a universal system that can be used to decode the 14458's commands to control functions remotely. It is up to you to provide the final link between these decoders and the device you want to control.

If the 10-key transmitter is used, no decoding is needed as none of the commands are accessible. The only necessary function would be to interface the data port (either one or two digits) to the receiver to the system under control. The only necessary function would be to interface the data port (either one or two digits) to the receiver to the system under control.
reset by the controlled device by pulsing the POR input low.

With the 20- or 26-key transmitter, ten commands are available and must be decoded by external circuitry. Since the command codes fit the ten BCD digits (0000-1001), a 4028B BCD-to-10 line decoder can be used to generate ten separate enable lines, one for each command (Fig. 12).

Basically, that what decoding scheme does is use the appropriate enable line to enable or activate the interface circuit associated with the command, and then use the VC pulse or pulses to clock the circuit. If the 32-key transmitter is used, there are 16 commands, so a 4514B hex-to-16 line decoder must be used to generate the required number of enable lines (Fig. 13). Table 2 shows the relationship of the commands to their respective enable lines.

With that basic approach, an interface circuit can be devised to interface the enable and VC lines to control the proper function on the controlled device. If necessary, more than one enable line can be used to control different aspects of one output device. Let's look at four basic interface circuit types.

The simplest type is used to generate a pulse output when it is selected and clocked by the VC pulse (Fig. 14). Two 4001B NOR gates are used, one to invert the enable line signal, and the other to act as a gate that will pass the VC pulse (in inverted form) when the correct enable line is high. The pulse will be an exact mirror of the VC pulse, 0.8 milliseconds wide, and positive in polarity. A third or gate could be added to re-invert the pulse's polarity, and if a longer pulse width is desired, a 4528B monostable or 555 timer can be added to the output.

The basic on-off type of control is a one-button alternate-action decoder (Fig. 15). A 4027B JK flip-flop has its J and K inputs tied together and to the correct enable line, and its CLK input tied to the VC pin. If the enable line is low, a pulse on the VC pin will have no effect on its outputs. If the enable line is high, the pulse will cause the outputs to change states. That type of output device should be used with a toggle-type command to keep it from changing states more than once per key press.

A more positive such control is a two-button alternate-action decoder (Fig. 16). Either a 4013B or a 4027B flip-flop may be used in that circuit, since only the reset and enable inputs of either are used. One enable line is used, via a 4018B AND gate, to allow the VC pulse to reach the reset input and drive the Q output high (and the Q output low, of course); another enable line and AND gate are used to similarly allow the VC pulse to reach the reset input and drive the Q output low. Note that the VC signal is inverted in that circuit. The advantage of the two-button control is that it is impossible to mis-set the flip-flop if the correct button is pressed. Repeated pressing of a button or (in the case of a continuous command) repeated VC pulses will have no effect on the output; only pressing the opposite button will alternate the outputs.

The last and most complex decoder is an up-down counter controlled by two enable lines (Fig. 17). One is used to activate the counter in the up-counting mode; the other is used to activate the counter in the down-counting mode. In both cases, the VC pulse is used to clock the counter in the desired direction.

(Continued on page 113)
Audio Companding

You can build a professional-quality compander for your hi-fi system using circuits designed around Signetics' NE570 compander IC.

TOM PASK

Basic compander theory

The compander is a versatile, low-cost, dual-channel gain-control device primarily used for audio noise reduction. The word compander is actually a contraction of the two words COMPressor and exPANDer, and they indicate the compander's complementary tasks: compressing and expanding the level of an audio signal, which could be music, speech, or tone-encoded computer data. Signals are compressed before transmittting or recording so that all components of the signal are above the inherent noise level of the transmitting or recording medium, but below the saturation level of that medium. Signals then undergo complementary expansion at the receiving, or playback device to restore their natural dynamic range, and to improve the ratio of the signal to the noise that entered in the transmitting or recording medium.

For example, assume we have a 1000-Hz signal at a level of 2.5 volts P-P combined with a 6000-Hz signal at a level of 1.0 volt P-P. (See Fig. 1-a.) On an oscilloscope the 6000-Hz signal would seem to "ride" the 1000-Hz signal, but for clarity, we have shown them separately. The 0.5 volt P-P high-frequency noise signal is not part of the original signal; it's noise that's introduced in the recording or transmission medium: tape hiss, for example.

In Fig. 1-b we see what happens when an across-the-board gain of three is applied to those signals. The level of the 6000-Hz signal is greatly increased with respect to the noise signal, but the 1000-Hz signal is clipped, due to the 6-volt P-P dynamic range of our example transmission channel.

That is clearly unacceptable, and Fig. 1-c shows the remedy. There the 1000-Hz signal is left as is, and the 6000-Hz signal is amplified by a factor of two. Now the signal-to-noise ratio of both input signals has increased with no clipping. That is the essence of compression.

By contrast, expansion restores all components of a signal to their original levels. Feeding the signal represented in Fig. 1-c through an expander complementary to the compressor that produced that signal would result in the original signal shown in Fig. 1-a. The result is a clean, undistorted signal with a high signal-to-noise ratio and a dynamic range like that of the original signal.

Compressor components

The basic compander consists of a current-controlled variable-gain cell (A-G), a full-wave averaging rectifier, and voltage-to-current converter (hereafter referred to as the rectifier), and an operational amplifier. The block diagram of the NE570, NE571 and SA571 is shown in Fig. 2-a; that of the NE572 is shown in Fig. 2-b. Note that although the figure shows only...
one channel for each type of device, the IC's contain two identical, independent channels.

The NE570 and NE571 have quite similar operating characteristics, but those of the NE570 are somewhat better than those of the NE571, and include wider supply range, lower distortion, lower DC output shift, etc. The SA571 has the same electrical characteristics as the NE571, but operates over a different temperature range. The NE570/1 devices differ from the NE572 in that the latter has an additional buffer inserted between the rectifier and the Δ-G cell that allows separate programming of attack and delay times, which cannot be set independently with the NE570/1 devices.

However, that buffer leaves no space on the chip for an output op-amp, so circuits requiring additional drive capability will need an additional board op-amp. If high fidelity audio or separately programmable attack and decay times are needed, the NE572 should be used with an external low-noise op-amp like the NE5734. We will restrict our discussion to the NE570/1 devices.

The functional blocks mentioned above are assembled in different ways according to whether we need the compression or the expansion function. But in either case, an operational amplifier provides the main signal path and output drive, and the rectifier converts the AC input voltage into a DC current that controls the gain of the op-amp.

Compressor theory

As shown in Fig. 3-a, the compressor may be thought of as an op-amp with a variable feedback resistor, \( R_F \). When the input signal increases above a preset crossover level (0 dB), \( R_F \) decreases in value, and that causes the gain to decrease. As the input signal decreases below the crossover level, \( R_F \) increases in value, and that causes the gain to increase. In fact, as shown in Fig. 3-b, the Δ-G cell and rectifier are simply placed in the feedback loop of a standard inverting op-amp circuit and take the place of \( R_F \). The equation for voltage gain in such a circuit is:

\[
A_V = - \frac{R_F}{R_{IN}}
\]

Referring again to Fig. 3-b, the compressor's gain is described by this equation:

\[
A_V = \sqrt{\frac{R_{IN}R_{FB}}{2R_{IN}V_{IN}}} \cdot \frac{1}{2}
\]

Resistors \( R_1 \) and \( R_2 \) are internal to the compressor IC, and have values of 10K and 20K, respectively. The bias current \( I_B \) must be limited to 140µA, and \( V_{IN} \) (avg) equals 0.9 x \( V_{IN} \) (rms).

Sample compressor application

Since the compressor is a feedback controlled system, its stability must be maintained for all input conditions. You must bias the DC level of the output pin at approximately half the supply voltage. If that isn't done, the positive or negative peaks may be clipped, causing distortion. To allow for maximum voltage swing, the op-amp is biased by resistors \( R_{DC} \) and \( R_4 \) as shown in Fig. 4. The equation describing the output bias level is:

\[
V_{OUT} = V_{REF} \left(1 - \frac{2R_{DC}}{R_4}\right)
\]

Note that the value of \( C_{DC} \) must be large enough to shunt any AC flowing through that point to ground. Capacitors \( C_{F1} \) and \( C_{F2} \), which should have fairly large values, are used in the Δ-G and rectifier circuits to prevent DC bias currents from flowing between those circuits. The input capacitor \( C_{IN} \) is also used for AC coupling; it preserves the DC bias on the op-amp.

You must plan for the maximum output
PARTS LIST

All resistors 1/8 watt, 5%
R1—33,000 ohms
R2—36,000 ohms
R3—12,000 ohms
Capacitors
C1, C4, C5, C7, C8—2.2 µF, 25 volts, tantalum
C2, C6, C12—10 µF, 35 volts, tantalum
C3, C11—200 pf
C9, C10—1.0 µF, 35 volts, tantalum
Semiconductors
IC1—NE570, NE571, or SA571
IC2—PC-mount

FIG. 4—THE BIASING NETWORK for the compressor. See the text for details on calculating the resistor and capacitor values.

FIG. 5—THE BASIC EXPANDER may be thought of as an op-amp with a variable input resistor. The components in the dashed box (b) correspond to Rm, In (a).

FIG. 6—THE BIASING NETWORK for the expander. See the text for details on calculating the resistor and capacitor values.

FIG. 7—SIGNAL LEVELS IN A COMPLETE COMPANDER SYSTEM. The compressor works on a 2:1 compression ratio and a 1:2 expansion ratio. Noise inherent to the transmission medium is kept below the level of the weakest signal.

Expander theory

The expander uses the same building blocks as the compressor, but in this configuration the Δ-G cell is inserted before the inverting input of the op-amp, where it functions as a variable input resistance, Rm, as shown in Fig. 5-a. When the input signal increases above a preset crossover level (0 dB), the variable resistor decreases in value, and that causes the gain to increase. As the input signal decreases below the crossover level, the variable resistor increases in value, and that causes the gain to decrease. The equation for voltage gain in such a circuit is still:

\[ A_c = \frac{R_3}{R_1 \cdot R_2} \]

In fact, in the expander configuration, R10 is replaced by the Δ-G cell and the rectifier cells shown in Fig. 5-b. Resistors R1 and R2 are still internal to the compressor IC and have values of 10k and 20k, respectively. Ib must still be maintained below 140 µA; so the gain equation for the expander is:

\[ A_e = \frac{2 \cdot R_3 \cdot V_{\text{g}}}{R_1 \cdot R_2 \cdot I_0} \]

Sample expander application

As with the compressor application described above, care must be taken when using the expander to avoid clipping. The output should again be biased at one-half the supply voltage. The circuit shown in Fig. 6 is designed to operate from a six-volt power source, so the DC level of the output is biased at three volts.

When using a supply voltage higher than six volts, adjust the output bias level accordingly. To raise the DC output level, it is recommended that the value of R4 be decreased by connecting resistors in parallel with it. Changing R3 would affect the expander's AC gain and thus would cause a mismatch in a companding sys-

voltage swing because the Δ-G and rectifier cells can handle peaks of only 140 µA and 300 µA, respectively. Use the following formulas to determine the resistor values to use in order to remain below these levels:

\[ R_1 = \frac{V_{\text{output}}}{300 \, \mu A} \quad 10,000 \]

\[ R_2 = \frac{V_{\text{output}}}{140 \, \mu A} \quad 20,000 \]

Resistors R1 and R2 are reduced by 10,000 and 20,000 ohms, respectively, because the NE570/1 devices have internal protection resistors with those values.

Rectifier capacitor CR10 controls the attack and decay times of the circuit. It will usually have a value between 1.0 µF and 2.0 µF. A 2.0 µF capacitor gives an attack time of about 3 ms and a decay time of about 13 ms. Note that decreasing CR10 to speed up the attack will cause distortion to increase.

Some applications may be especially sensitive to THD (Total Harmonic Distortion) or low-level tracking errors. Signetics' 1983 Linear LSI Data and Applications Manual discusses methods of reducing both. Also, some circuit layouts may cause low-level oscillation if the THD trim pin is left unconnected. That is cured by adding a 200 pf capacitor between that pin and ground.

For use in the real world, an input buffer amp may be necessary to match the input impedance of NE570/1 to that of the circuit driving it. In some applications "breathing" noise-pumping, or other strange sounds may occur, they can be reduced or eliminated with pre-emphasis circuitry.
In other words, the expansion ratio would be different than the compression ratio. The DC bias of the output can be calculated using this equation:

$$V_{out} = \frac{V_{\text{ref}}}{1 + R3/R4}$$

If \( R3 = 20\,K \), \( R4 = 30\,K \) and \( V_{\text{ref}} = 1.8 \), then \( V_{\text{out}} = 2.99 \) volts.

The input and output coupling capacitors must be large valued. For lowest distortion, a separate capacitor should be placed in series with both the Δ-G cell's input \( C_{\text{IN1}} \) and the rectifier's input \( C_{\text{IN2}} \).

If you anticipate an input signal greater than 2.8 volts peak, which corresponds to an input current of 140 \( \mu A \), then the value of \( R2 \) must be increased. If the input signal is greater than 3.0 volts peak, \( R1 \) will also have to be increased. As with the compressor, signal distortion can be avoided by limiting the compressor's peak input currents.

The effects \( C_{\text{REC}T} \) has on attack and delay times, as well as distortion, are the same as in the compressor circuit, so start with a value of 1 \( \mu F \) to 2 \( \mu F \) for \( C_{\text{REC}T} \). In any case, \( C_{\text{REC}T} \) should have the same value in both circuits of a complete compander system.

An input buffer may again be necessary if the input impedance of the NE570/1 needs to be matched to that of the driving device. Also, de-emphasis would be necessary if the complementary compressor circuit used pre-emphasis, such as that used by high-fidelity tape decks. The distortion trim pin functions as the compressor, and if not used, should be bypassed with a \( 200 \, pF \) capacitor to ground.

Companding example

In Fig. 7 we see how a complete compression/expansion system affects signals of various levels. Note that the input signals occur over a 96 dB range, and are compressed to a 48 dB range. In other words, compression works on a 2:1 ratio. Signals above the 0 dB line will be halved, and signals below the 0 dB line will be doubled. For example, the +16 dB signal decreases to a value of +8 dB, and the -80 dB signal increases to a value of -40 dB.

The output of the compressor is fed to the transmission medium (be it the airwaves, telephone lines, magnetic tape, etc.) where a low-level noise signal is picked up. The signal is then fed to the expander where it is expanded from 48 dB to 96 dB, that is, at a 2:1 ratio. Here, signals above the 0 dB line are doubled, and signals below the 0 dB line are halved. For example, the +8 dB signal increases to a value of +16 dB, and the -40 dB signal decreases to a value of -80 dB. Note that the noise arising in the transmission medium is kept below the -80 dB level by companding.

The oscilloscope photo in Fig. 8 shows...
Medical Uses of Electric Shock

Electrical stimulation of the body can be dangerous, but there are some instances where it can save a life.

RAY FISH, Ph.D., M.D.
associated with heart attacks. Many of those disturbances are corrected by electrical shock, or defibrillation. A few dozen people with recurrent potentially-lethal arrhythmias have been treated with surgically implanted defibrillators. When a fatal rhythm is recognized by such a unit, a shock of 30 joules is applied to the heart. That is less than the 300 joules usually applied when the defibrillation shock is administered externally. But then again, the power requirements are less because the shock is applied directly to the heart rather than to the chest wall.

In fibrillation there are too many signals or depolarizations occurring. With a slow or absent heart rate, there are too few depolarizations. Figure 2 shows an electrocardiogram from a patient who has suffered an acute heart attack. The beats are coming much too slowly, about one every 2 seconds. That gives a pulse rate of about 30 beats per minute. It was decided that a pacemaker was needed in that case because drugs would not increase the heart rate and the patient was in shock. A temporary pacemaker, actually a specially built pulse generator in a small box, was connected to the heart by a catheter with wires built into it. The pacemaker catheter was inserted into a large vein under the clavicle (collar bone) and pushed forward until it reached the heart. (See Figs. 3 and 4.)

Usually when a pacemaker catheter is inserted, the positioning of the catheter is obtained using "fluoroscopy." That technique uses a continuous X-ray source and an image intensifier system that permits the physician to see a real-time image of the catheter working its way to the heart. Because veins branch and turn it is useful to be able to see where the catheter is going and to twist or direct it when needed.

Because the condition of the patient whose electrocardiogram is shown in Fig. 2 was so acutely poor, there was not time to set up the equipment or wait for the technicians who run it to come to the hospital. Thus the catheter was inserted "blindly." That is, the catheter was inserted in the vein via a large needle and pushed forward until small spikes, caused by the signal from the pacemaker, were seen in the patient's electrocardiogram. The presence of those spikes meant that the catheter was near the chest electrodes used to monitor the electrocardiogram. The catheter was further advanced until the small spikes were followed by heartbeats, as seen in Fig. 5. That was electrical confirmation of the fact that the pacemaker had "captured" (was stimulating) the heart. Later, routine X-rays showed that the pacemaker was in a good location. Because of the type of heart at-
may be stimulated by backward conduction through the AV node, but the resulting atrial contraction would be at the wrong time to do any good. A sequential pacemaker has two sets of wires: One stimulates or sends the signal from the atria; the second stimulates the ventricles after a delay that simulates the delay normally caused by the AV node. With a sequential pacemaker, the 20% boost in cardiac output provided by the atria is retained.

Different pacemakers operate in different manners. Some work only when needed; those are called demand pacemakers. The same wires that stimulate the heart are used to detect heart signals that are spontaneously present. Thus, if the heart is beating on its own, the pacemaker does not fire. If the heart rate gets below the minimum a patient could tolerate, the pacemaker fires.

Some pacemakers fire regardless of spontaneous heart activity. Those are called asynchronous pacemakers.

Instead of turning off when a heartbeat is detected, some pacemakers fire within milliseconds of each detected heartbeat (with a maximum rate of firing). In that way externally induced electrical signals cannot trick the pacemaker into shutting off. Units that operate in that manner are called stimulated pacemakers.

External pacemakers have controls that allow the physician to program the stimulus current and heart rate. It is also possible to choose whether or not the pacemaker should be inhibited by spontaneous heart activity. With surgically implanted pacemakers that is not possible. To overcome that problem, remotely programmable pacemakers have been developed. The pacemaker contains a radio receiver that detects coded signals sent by a hand-held transmitter that looks something like a calculator or small computer. With such a unit, it is possible to control a wide variety of pacemaker parameters.

If a permanently implanted pacemaker is not functioning, troubleshooting can be difficult. However, there are some tests that can be done to help determine the cause of the problem.

Almost all demand pacemakers contain a magnetic reed switch. Placing a strong permanent magnet near the pacemaker will activate the switch and convert the pacemaker to an asynchronous mode of operation. As long as the magnet is held in place, the pacemaker will fire at a constant rate regardless of the person's spontaneous heart rate. If a magnet is applied and no pacemaker spikes can be seen on the electrocardiogram, either the pulse generator or the electrode wire is defective.

If a pacemaker fails within weeks of being implanted, the problem is usually with the electrode wire. The wire may have dislodged, or the electrical resistance between the electrode and the heart tissue may have increased.

A failure after years of operation is most often due to weak batteries; placing a magnet over the pacemaker may give a relatively slow heart rate when batteries are weak.

When pacemaker spikes are seen on the electrocardiogram, but there is no capture of the heart, the problem might be with the patient or with electrode placement. A chest X-ray may show a break in the electrode wire. The X-ray can also indicate if the electrode has moved or perforated the wall of the heart. Listening to heart sounds may reveal a "pericardial rub" that indicates irritation of the lining of the outside of the heart; the patient may feel pain due to the electrode. If the electrode is in the proper location, loss of capture may be due to chemical imbalances in the patient's blood. Low levels of potassium or calcium can increase the amount of energy needed for electrical capture of the heart.

Further troubleshooting can be done if the pacemaker is a programmable type. Some such pacemakers allow measurements of lead impedance, sensitivity, and output energy.

Stimulating the inner ear

- Severe hearing loss can be partially corrected by a new kind of hearing aid manufactured by 3M (St. Paul, MN), that electrically stimulates the inner ear. Unlike conventional hearing aids that amplify and filter sound, those new hearing aids perform a spectrum analysis and use the resulting signals to stimulate certain portions of the auditory nerve.

The human ear is shown in Fig. 6. Normally sound travels through the air to the eardrum. The eardrum vibrates and those vibrations are transferred to three small bones. Those bones, in turn cause vibration of fluid in a snail-shaped structure called the cochlea. Sound causes a membrane, called the basilar membrane, in the cochlea to vibrate at various places. Which portion of the membrane vibrates depends on the frequency of the sound present. Specialized receptor cells along the membrane transmit signals to fibers of the auditory nerve. Thus the ear acts as a real time "spectrum analyzer" and transmits many parallel signals to the brain.

The portion of the basilar membrane that vibrates determines the pitch that is perceived. To a lesser extent the frequen-
FIG. 6—THE MAJOR STRUCTURES of the human ear are shown here.

The major structures of the human ear are shown here.

The majority of stimulation of the basilar membrane as well as the location of the stimulation influences the perception of pitch; that is more important at lower frequencies.

Surgery and conventional hearing aids can correct many hearing problems that are caused by damage to the structures of the outer ear (ear canal) and the middle ear (the eardrum and three bones). But if the cochlea (inner ear) were damaged, there was little that could be done until recently. Clinical trials of cochlear implants began in 1972. Since then hundreds of people have had electrode arrays inserted into their inner ears.

The earliest cochlear implant, or prosthesis, used a single electrode. Such a device allows the user to recognize differences in a sound’s intensity and duration, but allowed only low frequency sounds to be recognized. Single electrode devices allow users to recognize some environmental sounds and make lipreading easier.

Multiple channel cochlear implants contain spectrum analyzers and may have 16 electrodes. The stimulating voltage on each electrode is determined by the amplitude of sound in a certain frequency range. Information about the timing and amplitude of signals in various frequency ranges is preserved. Some users of multiple channel cochlear implants are able to understand speech in a limited manner. One study reported 70% recognition of vowels and 30% recognition of consonants without lipreading. Persons with cochlear implants can hear with sensitivity approaching normal. Although the sound is distorted, doorbells, ear horns, and other sounds can be heard almost as well as by a person with normal hearing.

A typical cochlear prosthesis consists of two electronic assemblies—one outside of the head, and one that is surgically implanted. The external electronics package detects sound, performs spectrum analysis, and transmits signals to the implanted electronics.

The surgically implanted internal electronics package detects the transmitted signals and converts them so that they can be perceived by the auditory nerve. Some systems use a rigid electrode that is inserted directly into the auditory nerve. More commonly, however, a flexible electrode array is inserted into the cochlea and made to lie along the basilar membrane, which is then made to vibrate by the electrodes in response to the transmitted signals. That vibration is detected by the auditory nerve as normal. Which frequencies cause which electrodes to vibrate can be varied to adjust for differences in perception from patient to patient.
This month we learn about counter circuits and how they work.

JOSEPH J. CARR

Part 7 Before we get to our topic for this month, let’s clear up an error that appeared in our last installment (September 1985). Among the circuits that we looked at then was a shift register called a pseudorandom sequencer. Due to a mix-up, an incorrect schematic was shown for that circuit (Fig. 15 in that issue). The correct schematic is shown here in Fig. 1.

Actually, that circuit can serve as a good introduction to this month’s topic—counters. Remember last time we said that the output of the pseudorandom sequencer only appears to be random. Instead its output repeats every \(2^n - 1\) times, where \(n\) is the number of stages in the circuit. Because of that, the shift register can be thought of as a counter.

A counter is defined as a sequential-state circuit. That is, it has \(n\) different states into which it can go, and it enters those states in a predetermined sequence. You can use a counter to divide an input signal frequency by \(n\), or to produce a single output pulse for every \(n\) input pulses.

Let’s stop for a moment and define a few terms that are used when talking about counters. The **modulo** of a counter refers to the number of different states that a counter sequences through. For instance, the modulo of a hexadecimal, or base-16, counter is 16. The modulo of a binary counter is two.

The **coding** of a counter tells us which states it will pass through, and in what sequence. The coding is particularly important when the counter is weighted. In a weighted counter, each parallel output is used to represent a number of counts. To make that a little clearer, let’s look at an example.

Figure 2 shows a base-16 counter consisting of four J-K flip-flop stages in series. The relationship between the signals at the four parallel outputs and the input is shown in Fig. 3. Studying that figure reveals that the outputs of that modulo-16 counter are weighted 1, 2, 4, and 8. That is, \(q_0 = 2^0; q_1 = 2^1; q_2 = 2^2; \) and \(q_3 = 2^3\). Thus, an output of 1010 represents a count of \((1 \times 1) + (0 \times 2) + (1 \times 4) + (0 \times 8) = 1 + 0 + 4 + 0 = 5\). A quick check of Fig. 3 will verify that that indeed is the output at T5. That type of weighting is called binary weighting.

A counter is said to be **decodable** if it is possible to continuously monitor the state of the counter using relatively simple circuitry. Generally, for a counter to be decodable it should use a standard weighted code such as binary or BCD (more on that later). The counter of Fig. 2 is decodable because the state of the counter is always available at the parallel outputs.

A counter can also be **resettable** or **presettable**. A resettable counter is one that can be forced into an all-zeros state. In the counter of Fig. 2 that is done by tying the active-low CLR pins on the flip-flops together to form an active-low reset line.

Bringing that line low momentarily forces all the outputs to go low simultaneously.

A presettable counter is one that can be forced into a desired state. That is done by placing the desired state on a set of preset inputs called "jam" inputs. A pin called **preset enable**, or something similar, controls the preset function.

The reset line can be used to form a decimal (or base-10) counter. In Fig. 4, a NAND gate has been added to our base-16 counter. That gate is placed there to detect the unique output state that follows the tenth count (i.e. both \(q_3\) and \(q_4\) are high simultaneously). When those two outputs are high, the output of the NAND gate goes low forcing the reset line, and in turn \(q_1\) and \(q_4\), low.

The outputs of that counter are still weighted 1248, but the output states run only from 0000 to 1011 (0 to 9 in base 10). That coding is called **Binary Coded Decimal**, or BCD.

Let’s consider at a typical BCD counter, for instance the 7490. That TTL IC is designed as a bi-quinary counter; that is, it has divide-by-two and divide-by-five sections that are cascaded (pins 12 and 1 shorted) to form a divide-by-ten counter. The reset inputs (2 and 3), which are normally strapped together in decimal operation, are active-high. Thus those pins are normally grounded. If it is necessary to reset the counter to zero (0000), then pins 2 and 3 are momentarily brought high. That will clear the flip-flops, thereby forcing the outputs to 0000. Another set of terminals (6 & 7) resets the 7490 to \(9_{BCD}\) (10112).

The 7490 is now considered the classic decimal counter, although for certain applications other devices may prove to be a better choice.
Presets counters

Most counters increment from \textit{initial} states. A preset counter is one that can be made to increment from another value. That is done by loading the value of the starting point into the counter via a set of jam inputs.

Figure 6 shows a portion of a preset counter circuit that uses the jam input method to preset the flip-flops of the counter. Although only two stages are shown here, the same technique is used in the succeeding stages.

The preset count value is applied to the jam inputs, labeled here as \textit{A} and \textit{B}. For sake of this discussion, let's consider only the \textit{A} input (which drives FF1). The data at \textit{A} is applied directly to one input of a NAND gate \textit{G1}, and through an inverter to one input of \textit{G2}. The remaining inputs of \textit{G1} and \textit{G2} are connected together to form a clock line number 2 (CLOCK2).

In order to understand the operation of CLOCK2 and the \textit{A} jam input, let's review the rules governing a two-input NAND gate:

- If either input is low, then the output is high.
- Both inputs must be high for the output to be low.

The rules above tell us that CLOCK2 is active-high; let's see why. When CLOCK2 is low, both outputs \textit{G1} and \textit{G2} are kept high. The output of \textit{G1} (being the active-low \textit{SET} input on FF1) is high. The output of \textit{G2} controls the active-low \textit{CLEAR} input. Thus, a low on CLOCK2 keeps \textit{SET} and \textit{CLEAR} high, and therefore inactive.

Let's consider circuit action for two situations: when \textit{A} is low and when \textit{A} is high. The first situation implies that we are forcing the circuit's output low. Let's see if that is what happens.

If \textit{A} is applied low, then the input to \textit{G1} is low, and the input to \textit{G2} is high (due to the inverter). When CLOCK2 goes high, the output of \textit{G1} is high (keeping \textit{SET} inactive) and the output of \textit{G2} is low (activating \textit{CLEAR}). Since \textit{CLEAR} is now active, the flip-flop's output \textit{Q} goes low. Therefore, \textit{Q} is forced low whenever the \textit{A} jam input is low and CLOCK2 is active, and that is how the circuit should operate.

Now let's see what happens when the input at \textit{A} is high, which implies that we are forcing \textit{Q} high. In that situation, the input to \textit{G1} is high and the input to \textit{G2} is low. When CLOCK2 goes high, therefore, the output of \textit{G1} is low, and the output of \textit{G2} is high. That renders \textit{CLEAR} inactive, and \textit{SET} active, so the flip-flop's output \textit{Q} goes high. In other words, if \textit{A} is high when CLOCK2 goes high, then \textit{Q} is forced high, and that is how the circuit should operate.

In a multi-stage cascade counter, there will be one jam input for each bit of the counter. All bits will be preset simultaneously when CLOCK2 goes high. After
One of the most difficult tasks in building any construction project featured in Radio-Electronics is making the PC board using just the foil pattern provided with the article. Well, we’re doing something about it.

We’ve moved all the foil patterns to this new section, where they’re printed by themselves, full sized, with nothing on the back side of the page. What that means for you is that the printed page can be used directly to produce PC boards!

In order to produce a board directly from the magazine page, remove the page and carefully inspect it under a strong light and/or on a light table. Look for breaks in the traces, bridges between traces, and, in general, all the kinds of things you look for in the final etched board. You can clean up the published artwork the same way you clean up your own artwork. Drafting tape and graphic aids can fix incomplete traces and doughnuts, and you can use a hobby knife to get rid of bridges and dirt.

An optional step, once you’re satisfied that the artwork is clean, is to take a little bit of mineral oil and carefully wipe it across the back of the artwork. That helps make the paper translucent. Don’t get any oil on the front side of the page (the

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COMPONENT SIDE for the audio compander PC board.

SOLDER SIDE for the audio compander PC board.
side with the pattern) because you'll contaminate the sensitized surface of the copper blank. After the oil has "dried" a bit—patting with a paper towel will help speed up the process—place the pattern front side down on the sensitized copper blank, and make the exposure. You'll probably have to use a longer exposure time than you are used to.

We can't tell you exactly how long an exposure time you will need because we don't know what kind of light source you use. As a starting point, figure that there's a 50 percent increase in exposure time over lithographic film. But you'll have to experiment to find the best method to use with your chemicals. And once you find it, stick with it. Don't forget the "three Cs" of making PC boards—care, cleanliness, and consistency.

Finally, we would like to hear how you make out using our method. Write and tell us of your successes, and failures, and what techniques work best for you. Address your letters to:

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GLOSSARY OF COMMONLY USED SATELLITE-TV TERMS

For those readers unfamiliar with satellite-TV terminology, we have included the following glossary of commonly used terms. You'll notice that satellite-TV technology has not only caused the development of "a language of its own." In many cases, existing words and phrases are given new meanings. In such cases, we will deal only with the definition related to satellite TV.

Active component—A device whose output is dependent on a source of power other than the input signal.

Aperture—The diameter of an antenna dish.

Apogee—The point in an elliptical satellite-orbit that is farthest from the earth's surface.

Audio subcarrier—Subcarriers of satellite video signals that are modulated by audio. The frequency range can be from 5-8 MHz but is usually 6.2 or 6.8 MHz.

Az/El mount—A dish mount whose position is changed by two separate adjustments (in azimuth and elevation.)

Azimuth—The angular displacement of a dish in a horizontal plane with respect to true north (measured in a clockwise direction).

Baseband—The frequency band occupied by the modulating signal. For example, baseband-video signals occupy a band from 0 to 4.3 MHz.

Block downconverter—A device that converts an entire band (for example the 3.7-4.2 GHz C-band) down to a lower band of frequencies.

Boresight point—The area of maximum signal strength of a downlink signal. The center of the transponder "footprint."

C band—A band of downlink frequencies having a range from 3.7 GHz to 4.2 GHz. This band also includes uplink signal frequencies from 5.92 to 6.42 GHz.

Cass格reen antenna—An antenna that uses a subreflector at the focal point to reflect the received signals to a feed located at the dish's apex (boresite).

CATV—Abbreviation for Community Antenna TeleVision. Now generally used to mean cable TV.

Channel—A band of frequencies used for carrying video and/or audio signals, data, news, etc. Bandwidth depends on the amount of information to be transmitted. Channel frequencies are specified in the U.S. by the FCC.


Circular polarization—A form of polarization of electromagnetic signals (such as from a satellite) in which the electric field of the signal is made to assume helical form, either clockwise or counterclockwise.

Clarke belt—The orbital path followed by geosynchronous satellites named after Arthur C. Clarke, noted science-fiction writer who made the original suggestion about the possibility of geostationary satellites. The orbit is 22,300 miles.

C/N—Carrier-to-noise ratio—The ratio of the satellite-signal carrier strength to the power of the received noise, measured in decibels.

Color Edging—Extraneous colors that appear along the edges of video pictures, but that don't have any color relationship to those areas.

Color subcarrier—A subcarrier (3.58 MHz) of a composite-video signal. Also called chrominance subcarrier.

Decoder—Device for unscrambling video signals which have been encoded.

Dish—A device that reflects received satellite microwave signals to a feed horn. Sometimes incorrectly referred to as an antenna.

Dish illumination—The area of a dish as seen by the feedhorn.

Dithering—The process of equalizing the video signal. The 6-MHz satellite signal is shifted up and down the 36-MHz satellite transponder spectrum to distribute the energy of the video signal. The purpose is to reduce the interference that any terrestrial microwave transmitter could cause to the satellite transmission.

Downconverter—The part of a satellite receiving system that converts the downlink signals to a 70-MHz intermediate frequency that is used by the receiver. Although it is sometimes part of the receiver, it is more often an externally mounted device directly at the LNA so that inexpensive coaxial cable can bring the signal to the receiver.

Downlink signals—The signals that are transmitted from a satellite's transponder to earth.

Dual feedhorn—A waveguide feed system designed for both vertically and horizontally polarized signals.

Dual orthomode coupler—A dish-mounted device that allows reception of both vertically and horizontally polarized signals.

Earth station—A station equipped with transmitting equipment for the production of uplink signals, and also a complete receiving system for picking up downlink signals. Sometimes used synonymously, but incorrectly, with TVRO.

EIRP—An abbreviation for effective isotropic radiated power. The energy level of a transmitted signal expressed in dBW.

Elevation—the vertical angular displacement of a dish with the earth considered as a horizontal frame of reference.

Encoding—The scrambling of a signal to prevent viewing of a program by non-subscribers.

F/D ratio—The ratio of the local length of a dish to its diameter. A method for indicating the depth of a dish.

Feedhorn—The entrance to the waveguide used to channel signals from the local port of the dish to the LNA. See Horn.

Figure of merit—A quality factor comparing dish gain to system noise and written as G/T where T is the system noise in K and G is the gain of the dish in dB.

Focal length—the distance from the center of the dish to its local point.

Focal point—the point at which all the signals reflected by a dish point or cross.

Footprint—the area covered by downlink signals transmitted from a satellite.

Frequency coordinator—a test procedure that is part of a site survey to determine interference signal levels.
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Frequency reuse—A method that allows two different TV channels to be broadcast simultaneously on the same transponder by vertically polarizing one channel and horizontally polarizing the other. Another method of frequency reuse is to space satellites about 4° apart. A TVRO pointed at one satellite will not detect any signal from the other satellite, even if it is operating at the same frequency.

Geodetic north—A reference to the non-magnetic poles. Also called true north.

Geostationary—Geosynchronous. Fixed relative to the Earth. A satellite in the Clarke belt is geostationary.

Global beam—A broad pattern of signal radiation from a satellite that covers one third the Earth's surface. Used by INTELSAT satellites.

G/T—A figure of merit that describes the capability of a TVRO system to receive a signal from a satellite. The ratio (in decibels) of the gain of an receiving system to the noise temperature of the system.

Hybrid—A type of waveguide with a flared end. Its shape is selected so as to provide a better impedance match between the feed and open air. See Feedhorn.

Hyperboloidal subreflector—The secondary reflector used in a Cassegrain antenna system.

Impedance—The algebraic sum of resistance and reactance. Represented by the letter Z.

Isolator—A device that allows the transmission of signals in one direction while blocking or attenuating them in the other.

Ku Band—Also K band. A band of frequencies that extends from 11.7 to 12.2 GHz. The band is separated into two portions: 11.7-12.2 GHz (fixed satellite services—intended for point-to-point services) and 12.2-12.7 (for broadcasting satellite service or DBS).

Line amplifier—An amplifier inserted in any part of the transmission line following the downconverter to compensate signal losses caused by long lengths of coaxial cable or the insertion of passive devices such as splitters. Line amplifiers are also used when the signal must drive a number of television receivers.

Look angle—The positioning angle of a mount that permits a dish to focus on ("see") a satellite.

Low-noise amplifier—Abbreviated as LNA. A wide band, tunable amplifier that accepts satellite signals from an antenna probe and delivers them to a downconverter.

Luminance signal—Also known as a brightness signal. The monochrome portion of a color television signal.

Microwaves—Generally considered to be RF waves in the frequency range of 3 GHz to 30 GHz.

Multiple LNA's—A pair of LNAs with one used for the amplification of vertically polarized signals, the other for horizontally polarized signals.

Noise—Any unwanted disturbance (can be mechanical or electrical).

Noise factor—The ratio of output S/N to input S/N.

Noise figure—The ratio of output noise level to input noise level.

Noise temperature—Noise of a component expressed in degrees Kelvin, ordinarily used with reference to an LNA. The thermal noise that the LNA adds to the TVRO system.

Path loss—Also known as space loss. The attenuation of a signal as it travels through space.

Perigee—The point in an elliptical orbit that is closest to the earth.

Petalled dish—A receiving dish that is shipped in sections "petals" and assembled at the installation site.

Polar mount—A support for a dish that permits simultaneous movements in azimuth and elevation.

Polarization—A property of a radiated electromagnetic wave that describes the direction of its electric field.

Prime focus feed—An arrangement in which the entrance to a section of a waveguide is positioned at the signal focal point.

Reception window—An imaginary rectangle in front of a dish defining the limits of dish movement for reception from a satellite.

Remodulation—The process of modulating the recovered (demodulated) baseband signals in a satellite receiver.

Satellite receiver—A component used for tuning in a selected satellite transponder. It may contain one or two downconverters, or none. The receiver recovers the original baseband signals and delivers it to a modulator. The receiver can also supply the DC operating voltages for an external LNA and downconverter.

Scalar feed—A series of concentric rings positioned at the mouth of the feedhorn that act as an aid in picking up reflected signals from the dish.

Slot—The longitudinal position of a satellite in geosynchronous orbit.

S/N—Signal-to-noise ratio. Ratio of the magnitudes of a signal to that of the noise. Usually expressed in decibels.

Spherical dish—A dish whose surface is a section of a sphere.

Splitter—A device with one input that provides two or more outputs to allow multiple receiver hookups to one antenna. Can be passive (an antenna coupler) or active, providing gain.

Thermal noise—Noise that occurs in all transmission media and communications equipment as a result of random motion (which is a function of temperature). Thermal noise sets the lower limit for the sensitivity of a receiving system.

Translation frequency—The 2220-MHz (2.2-GHz) frequency difference between an uplink and a downlink signal.

Transponder—A receiver-transmitter combination that receives (uplink) signals, and retransmits the signals on a different (downlink) carrier frequency.

Unguided wave—a broadcast wave.

Uplink—The signals transmitted from an Earth station to one or more geosynchronous satellites.

Video Inversion—a type of encoding or scrambling used in which the transmitted downlink video signals are inverted.

Voltage standing wave ratio—Abbreviated as VSWR. An indication of the amount of signal energy accepted by a load or reflected to the source. The best VSWR is a ratio 1:1.

VST—Voltage Tuned Oscillator. In a TVRO, the local oscillator in an externally positioned downconverter whose operating frequency is changed by a DC voltage delivered from the in-home satellite receiver.

Waveguide—a transmission line made from a hollow conducting tube (rectangular or tubular) through which electromagnetic waves propagate.

Wind load survival—The amount of wind pressure tolerated by a dish.
My friends could not believe the thunderous sound coming from the speakers on each side of my TV. My living room seemed as if it were 300 yards wide and had 30,000 people in it. Even at low volume levels my dad was amazed at how much clearer and better he could hear the TV.

I have to explain to everyone that what they are listening to is my new Tele-Amp® system with Stereo-Plex™. The Tele-Amp® easily connects to any TV or VCR regardless of age, and to any pair of stereo speakers. The Tele-Amp® takes the audio from the TV or the VCR and processes it through three key elements. The exclusive Stereo-Plex™ generator, a true stereo amplifier (both of which are built inside every Tele-Amp® model), and then, of course, a pair of hi-fi stereo speakers of most any size.

The Stereo-Plex™ generator transforms the mono-audio signal into two varying left and right channels of Stereoplex™: Mono sounds, even when played through two speakers, appear to come from one direction—the center. Stereo and Stereoplex™ sounds come from two directions. If you already have a stereo TV or VCR, no problem, just plug them in (TA-450). Since most TV and Cable programming is mono, the Stereoplex™ circuitry will pick up where your stereo TV or VCR stops short. When there is a stereo program present, just cut the Stereoplex™ off, and the stereo signal will go through the stereo amplifier only (TA-450).

The Input on the TA-300 easily connects to the earphone jack or alligator clips to the speaker terminal of any TV. The outputs of the TA-300 connect directly to any left and right speakers. The balance controls on the TA-300 may be adjusted for the optimum level on each channel. Once the TA-300 is connected and adjusted, the TA-300 amplifier volume tracks up and down and goes on and off with the TV. This is doubly nice if your TV has a remote control. Because of the TA-300's slot it can be mounted out of sight behind the TV or speakers and forgotten.

The TA-450 has all the same features as the TA-300, plus a high impedance input so it can be used directly off any VCR audio output jack; plus up to three stereo or mono inputs for other components; plus a front-mounted volume control and on/off switch; plus a Stereo-Plex™ bypass so that if a stereo component is plugged in, the Stereo-Plex™ generator may be turned off, plus a headphone jack for private listening, plus EQX noise reduction and bass boost; plus rear-mounted balance control.

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NOVEMBER 1985
DESIGNER'S NOTEBOOK

An expandable keyboard encoder and display circuit.

A few months ago in the "Drawing Board" (see Radio-Electronics, April '85), we spent some time talking about memory, and actually built a circuit to demonstrate the use of the 5101 CMOS memory IC. Unfortunately, we goofed. We mentioned a keyboard encoder that could be used with that memory circuit, but neglected to tell you where to find it. Sorry about that.

The circuit I was referring to appeared in the "Drawing Board" columns in the February through April, 1983, issues of Radio-Electronics. The schematic of that circuit is shown in Fig. 1.
How Many Times Do You Intend To Let “THE SAME DOG” Bite You?

★ How many times have you worked all day long trying to diagnose the h-voltage /lv regulator circuit of a set that is in shut down only to eventually find that a shorted video, color, vertical, tuner, Acc, or matrix circuit was causing the set to shut down, and to find that the h-voltage /lv regulator circuit was working flawlessly all the time?

★ How many times have the spent the day looking for a short that was causing the set to shut down, only to eventually find that an open vertical, video, matrix circuit or, an open HV multiplier was to blame?

★ How many times have you worked all day on the same TV set, only to find out that the set’s flyback transformer was defective?

★ How many flyback transformers have you replaced only to find that the original flyback was not defective?

★ How many horiz output transistors and Sony SG 613 SCRs have you destroyed while simply trying to figure out whether the flyback was good or bad?

★ How many times have you been deceived by your flyback “ringer”? Can you even count the number of hours that your “ringer” has caused you to waste?

★ How many times have you condemned a flyback, only to find that a shorted scan derived B+ source was causing the flyback to “appear” as though it were defective?

★ How many hours have you wasted, working on a TV set, only to find that the CRT had a dynamically shorted 2nd anode (to primary element)?

★ How many new sweep transformers have you unknowingly destroyed because a short existed in one of the scan derived B+ sources?

★ How many times have you said to yourself, “I could fix this——-thing if I could only get it to fire up long enough to see the screen” —— without blowing an output transistor or a fuse?

★ How many additional bench jobs could you have gotten, had you been able to give an accurate, “on the spot” estimate on sets that were either in shut down or, not capable of coming on long enough for you to analyze them?

If you had been using our all new Super Tech HV circuit scanner, you would have had an accurate evaluation concerning all of the above in about one minute, at the push of just one single button.

It’s true! Push just one test button and our HV circuit scanner will (1) Accurately prove or disprove the flyback, (2) Check for any possible shorts in any circuit that utilizes scan derived B+. (3) Check the scan derived power supplies themselves for shorted diodes and/or electrolytic capacitors, (4) Check for primary B+ collector voltage and, (5) Check the horiz output stage for defects.

Our HV circuit scanner works equally well on sets with integrated or outboard HV multipliers. It will diagnose any brand, any age, solid state TV set including Sony. The only exceptions are sets which use an SCR for trace and, another for noise (i.e., RCA CTC 40 etc.). Our scanner will not work on these sets.

In plain English, our HV circuit scanner is even easier to operate than a "plain vanilla" voltmeter.

First off, when you’re using a scanner, you do not remove the flyback in order to check it. In fact, you don’t even unhook any of the wires that are connected to the flyback! All you do is:

(1) Remove the set’s horiz output device, plug in the scanner’s interface plug, then make one single ground connection. That’s all you do to hook it up.

(2) If the primary LV supply is functional and, assuming that the emitter circuit of the horiz output stage has continuity, the scanner will tell you that it is ready to “scan” by illuminating the “ready” light, which is the white button on the test / run switch.

(3) Press the spring loaded (test) side of the test / run switch and the scanner will “look” for any type of a short that might exist anywhere on the secondary side of the flyback, including the HV multiplier, any circuit that relies on flyback generated B+ and, including the flyback itself (both primary and all secondary windings). It will simultaneously check for a shorted LV regulator device HV multiplier, or an open or “partially” open safety capacitor.

If a short or, an “excessive load” exists on one secondary winding, all other secondary windings will have “normal” output voltage in spite of the short. Only the shorted winding itself will have zero volts on it. This makes shorted scan derived B+ sources incredibly easy to isolate. During this test, the 2nd anode voltage is being limited to approx 5 kv by the scanner.

If a short is present, the red “flyback” light will either light, or flash (at various speeds), depending on which type of a short exists. If no shorts exist, the “flyback” light will be green.

Assuming that the “flyback” light is green, no shorts exist and, it is now time (and safe), to begin looking for open circuits which might be causing the set to shut down due to flyback run away. It only stands to reason that if no shorted conditions exist, then one (or more) circuits will have to be open. Otherwise, the TV set would be working!

(4) Now that you know that no shorts exist, push the “run” side of the test / run switch (the side that latches). Provided all of the other circuits in the TV set are functional, the scanner will now put a picture on the set’s CRT screen that has full vertical and horiz deflection, normal audio, video and color.

Keep in mind that during this test, your scanner is:

(1) Circumventing all horiz oscidriver related shut down circuits.

(2) Limiting the set’s 2nd anode voltage to approx 20-25 kv.

(3) Substituting the set’s horiz oscidriver circuit and, as a result, eliminating any need that the set might have for an initial start up or B+ resupply circuit for the oscidriver.

Wait about 15 seconds for its filament to warm up, then look at the CRT. Any circuits that are “open” will now produce an obvious symptom on the screen. Because the scanner has circumvented all of the set’s shut down features, you can now use your old reliable “symptom to circuit analysis” technique to troubleshoot the problem, i.e., if the picture has no blue in it —— make the blue video or blue matrix circuit. If the picture has only partial vertical deflection —— make the vertical circuit and, and so on. The scanner has effectively removed all of the stumbling blocks that would normally prevent you from diagnosing the problem. i.e., start up and shut down features, and allowed you to repair the TV set by using conventional techniques.

When you’re using a scanner, all start up, shut down, dead set problems are easy to solve. You don’t need anyone to tell you just how difficult these problems can be for those who don’t have a scanner!

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Let's begin by looking at the major functions of the keyboard encoder. A 555, IC2, is set up to oscillate at a frequency of about 2 kHz. That signal is used to drive Q1 and SPKR, which provides an aural key-press indication. The 2 kHz signal also drives IC1, a 4017 decade counter, whose 1-of-10 outputs appear on pins 1-7 and 9-11. When one of the switches is pressed, the output from the 4017 is fed through IC4-a to the ENABLE input of IC3-a. Since IC3-a is also fed by the 2 kHz clock signal, that IC “froze” at the current count, and its BCD output is presented to the inputs of the 4580 dual four-bit latches.

The output from IC1 is also fed through resistor R5 to IC5, another 4017, which acts as a digit selector. Each time IC5 is clocked, its output increments by one, and that provides a signal to strobe the “frozen” BCD value into the appropriate latch IC. Since we're only driving four digits, the Q4 output of IC5 (pin 10) is fed to that IC's reset input (pin 15).

After the BCD data has been latched in IC6 or IC7, the data is presented to a 4511 seven-segment display decoder/driver. The output of that IC is fed to the displays. So the value of the first key pressed will appear in DISPL1, with following entries appearing in DISPL2, DISPL3, and DISPL4; and the next entry will appear in DISPL1, and so on.

Note that we use only one resistor for current limiting in each display. Since different digits have different numbers of “on” segments, not all digits will glow with equal brightness. If that bothers you, just insert one resistor between each 4511 output and each FND500 input. That's seven resistors per display, and 28 total. You may use any low-current, common-cathode seven-segment LED for DISPL4; you could also use discrete LEDs, if desired.

Capacitors C1 and C8 provide a power-on-reset function, and IC4-b is used to turn the speaker off after about 1/2-second. The 4580 latches are three-state types, and that allows the corresponding lines from each digit (labeled “Data Bus”) to be connected together and tied to any external data bus—such as our memory-demonstration circuit.

If you're interested in displaying more digits (as many as ten), simply duplicate the group of components IC4-f, IC6-a, IC8, and DISPL1, as well as C10 and R15. To add another digit, connect the capacitor to the Q4 output on IC5, and drive its reset input with the Q5 output. You could increase the number of digits beyond ten by driving an additional 4017 from the carry output of IC5.

---

“One more stunt like this, and I'll cut your modem cord!”
ROBOTICS

Ultrasonic vision

FOR A ROBOT TO EXHIBIT EVEN A modicum of intelligence, it needs some type of feedback mechanism between the "thinking" part and the "doing" part. Without some type of feedback, the "thinker" can't adjust the actions of the "doer" in response to changes in its environment.

The most useful form of feedback for human beings is visual. Machine vision, however, is limited by current technology in its ability to resolve details and in its ability to estimate distances.

There are several dozen companies now selling machine-vision systems to industrial manufacturers. Those systems are generally used to inspect finished goods. There are a few companies selling devices that will help a mobile robot get around in a cluttered room. With that type of vision, a robot can see what it is gripping, where it is going and where it has been.

Human beings have a crude, built-in distance measuring system that makes use of the eyes as well as stored knowledge of how
an object looks at different distances. We then compare the known image to the one we are presently encountering and void—we obtain a rough estimate of the object’s distance. That is the method used by systems that inspect parts on a finished-goods assembly line. We could apply that method to a robot system, but that would require auto-focusing lenses and complex image-analysis algorithms in the controlling electronics. However, there is a simpler and more economical way to obtain distance information: ultrasonic ranging. That method is frequently more accurate than light-wave systems.

Ultrasonics theory

In a typical ultrasonic ranging application, an ultrasonic transmitter starts a timer as it emits a short burst of 40-kHz sound waves through its transducer. These sound waves spread out as they travel through free air. When they strike an object in their path, some of the sound is deflected back toward the transducer, which now acts as a receiving device, like a conventional audio microphone. The received sound waves are sent to a discriminator circuit that stops the timer.

The value in the timer is proportional to the length of time it took the sound waves to travel to the object and return to the origin. We can determine the distance (D) from the period measured by the timer (T) by using the classic formula, D = VT. V here stands for velocity, and is simply the velocity of sound waves in air, about 1,080 inches per second. Basically that’s all that’s needed to measure distance. So let’s look at some practical implementations of both transmitters and receivers.

Ultrasonic Circuits

A simple 40-kHz transmitter is shown in Fig. 1. The 555 is a very inexpensive eight-pin timer IC configured as an astable multivibrator oscillating at a frequency of 40 kHz. (That frequency can be adjusted by potentiometer R2.) With a twelve-volt supply, the 555’s output will swing about ten volts, which should be enough to drive common transducers. Any 40-kHz oscillator could be substituted for the circuit shown in Fig. 1. In fact, it would be quite simple to generate a 40-kHz signal with a computer, and drive a transducer with that signal through an open-collector TTL gate (such as a 7406).

The receiver portion of the system is only a little more complex. In the circuit shown in Fig. 2, the received signal is amplified by a discrete transistor amplifier, and then applied to a tone-decoder NE567. That IC, a phase-locked-loop contains its own internal oscillator that must be adjusted to match the transmit frequency. The NE567 has a comparator that will send the output high when it detects an incoming signal equal in frequency to its internal oscillator.

The circuit shown in Fig. 3 uses a single IC specially developed by National for use as an ultrasonic transceiver. Using such a device allows you to use a single transducer for both transmit and receive...
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I HAVE TO TAKE MY HAT OFF TO YOU people out there. I’ve been telling everybody here that you are the smartest readers of this magazine, and you’ve proven me right once again. A few months ago I asked you to come up with a circuit that would drive ordinary seven-segment LED’s and give hexadecimal outputs (0 through 9 and A through F) for binary inputs. To tell the truth, I expected no more than a couple of letters. Boy, was I wrong!

So far I’ve gotten ideas from over 100 of you, containing such a variety of circuits that it took me weeks to sort through them all. Obviously, many of you are interested in how to display hex values, so I’m going to take a month off from our discussion of the Z80 and devote this month’s column to reporting some of the solutions. But before I go any further, let me remind you that I can’t mention everybody’s name or describe everybody’s solution. Basically, the solutions I’ve received fall into three categories:

- A. Using special display IC’s.
- B. Using elaborate decoding logic.
- C. Using PROM’s for decoding.

Dedicated IC’s

There are several dedicated IC’s that do the job, and, to tell the truth, I was somewhat surprised that more of you didn’t suggest that solution. One person who did was Michel Peloquin from Canada. He suggested using the Motorola MC14495, which is a display decoder/driver that does just what we need: It decodes four-bit binary data into the correct output to drive seven-segment, common-cathode LED displays. Using that IC is no more complicated than using a 4511, or other common devices. The MC14495 is a CMOS device, so it may be used with supply voltages ranging from 4.5 to 16 volts DC. In addition, it has built-in current-limiting resistors, making the MC14495 an elegant solution to our problem.

So, you may well ask, if the MC14495 is so wonderful, why not use it? There is no problem when buying it in large quantities. But trying to find it in hobbyist quantities is murder. None of the regular mail-order houses advertise it, and when you do find it, the price is too steep to make using the 14495 worthwhile.

A special thanks to Bob Milton for letting me know about the Fairchild 9368, another one-IC solution. The 9368 also drives seven-segment, common-cathode displays, but has no built-in current limiting resistors. However, it is easily available, and costs just over $3.00 in small quantities.

Gates-only solutions

I was really impressed by some of the gates-only designs you sent in. Doing a gates-only solution to a continued on page 101
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Surface-mount technology comes of age.

Printed-circuit boards were widely used before semiconductors began to appear in consumer-electronics products. Components were almost invariably mounted on the top of the board, with terminal leads protruding through holes to the underside of the board where components were interconnected. That technique remained an international standard as semiconductors replaced vacuum tubes.

With the advent of digital watches, business-card calculators, and portable personal computers, engineers were hard-pressed to cram more circuitry in less space. In addition, the DIP with its increasingly high pin-counts suffers from inductance, resistance, and capacitance problems that adversely affect processing speed.

One solution to those problems is surface-mount technology, or SMT, which makes it possible to mount both discrete and integrated semiconductor devices directly on the surface of the PC board. Cost savings are effected due to a reduction in the number of plated-through holes, improved board yields, and higher component density. Components can even be mounted on both sides of the board with little increase in volume. Using SMT, Texas Instruments has achieved space reductions between 46 and 60% over circuits previously assembled on PC boards with discrete components.

Surface-mount transistors
Several semiconductor manufacturers are now producing transistors in the SOT-23 package—a subminiature three-lead package one-fourth the thickness of the common TO-92 package. In Fig. 1 we see four such SOT-23 devices (made by Siliconix) laid out beside a standard TO-92 device.

The SOT-23 package was originally introduced in two different heights, but Ferranti Semiconductors has introduced what they call their “optimum profile” package. Ferranti believes that their package eliminates the need for both standard and low-profile packages. The space between the device and the PC board allows for proper cleaning and also allows traces to be run beneath the device, while still permitting the device to be epoxied to the surface of the board. (Since there are no through-the-board leads, surface-mount components must be epoxied to the board before they are soldered. Soldering is usually accomplished by a solder-reflow process.)

Ferranti offers a number of devices for SMT, including both NPN and PNP transistors, ranging from general-purpose, low-noise, and switching devices, to medium-power, high-frequency, and high-voltage types. Also included is a line of switching, Schottky, Zener, and varactor diodes.

Other SOT-23 devices made by Ferranti is the FM131 family of NPN Darlington transistors that feature high breakdown voltage (VCEO), and HFE ratings between 1000 and 10,000 at 500 mA and 5 volts (pulsed). Applications range from audio driver and output stages to drivers for lamps, relays, and hammers.

The 6-page “SOT-23 Transistor and Diode Selection Guide” lists key parameters of more than 250 devices for hybrid and SMT applications. Further information on the “optimum profile” package and copies of the selection guide are available from Ferranti Semiconductors, 87 Modular Ave., Commack, NY 11725.

A line of fifteen small-signal FETs is now being offered in SOT-23 packages by Siliconix. The devices, available in one P-channel and four N-channel configurations, are characterized as general-purpose amplifiers, low-noise amplifiers, low-leakage amplifiers, high-frequency amplifiers, and high-speed analog switches. Prices are approximately 36 cents each in 5000-piece quantities.

Surface-mount IC's
As shown in Fig. 2, surface-mount IC's are currently being offered in three SMT packages. These are SOIC (Small Outline Integrated Circuit), the PLCC (Plas-
How many of these questions can you answer?

(1) Every circuit has a beginning and an ending. Where does this circuit begin?
(2) Specifically, what is the purpose of this circuit?
(3) What turns it on? What turns it off, or does it ever really turn off?
(4) Does this circuit have a shut down feature? If so, which components are involved?
(5) What would happen if Q103 were to become shorted E to C?
(6) What purpose does Z115 serve?
(7) What would happen if D114 became shorted?
(8) What purpose does C125 serve? What will happen if C126 becomes open?
(9) Is the winding between terminals 3 and 4 of the flyback a primary or a secondary winding?
(10) What purpose does C117 serve? Exactly what does it do, and exactly how does it do it?
(11) Exactly what do resistors R113, 114, 115, 116, and 117 do? What happens if they change value?
(12) What occurs that causes this circuit to produce an initial start up pulse?
(13) Why does this entire circuit become shorted and begin to destroy horizontal output transistors if the regulator SCR becomes shorted?
(14) There is exactly one safe and practical method of circuitizing this LV regulator circuit for test purposes. This technique does not involve a variac. Instead, you must disconnect one wire then connect a jumper wire from terminal #4 directly to which wire do you disconnect and where do you connect the other end of your jumper wire?
(15) If SCR100 is shorted, this circuit will “eat” horizontal output transistors even if you are using a variac. Why?
(16) Why does this circuit use a floating ground?

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The SOIC has leads on two sides. Its “gull-wing” leads are bent outward; they lie parallel to the mounting surface. The SOIC comes in 8-, 14-, 16-, 20-, and 24-pin versions. The PLCC is intended to house devices requiring 20 to 68 pins. The PLCC has J-shaped leads spaced equally around the sides of the package. The J-shaped leads are tucked under the plastic body as shown in the middle drawing of Fig. 2. The LCCC is similar to the PLCC but is considerably more expensive and is used mainly in military applications.

PLCC’s from Motorola

The MCM63256 and MCM65256 256K (2K x 8 bit) MOS mask-programmed ROM’s are packaged in PLCC’s, and the rolled-under “J leads are compliant, thus reducing temperature-coefficient problems. The 32-lead devices measure 0.450 x 0.550 inches.

The MCM63256 is fabricated using Motorola’s silicon-gate HCMOS process; those new units are available with access times of 150 and 200 nanoseconds. The MCM65256 is designed for low power dissipation, and uses Motorola’s complementary HCMOS technology.

Prices of the MCM63256 and MCM65256 will be about $5.65 in quantities of 1000. For more information, contact Motorola, MOS Memory Products Group, PO Box 6000, Austin, TX 78762.

Zener diodes in TO-220 packages

Motorola now has 10- and 50-watt Zener diodes housed in a TO-220 plastic package that can replace more expensive metal-packaged devices. The 10-watt MZT2970-3015 series offers voltages ranging from 6.8 to 200 volts while the 50-watt MZT3305-3350 and MZT4549-4554 families range from 3.9 to 200 volts.

Retail prices for the 10-watt series of Zener diodes, in quantities of 100 and up, range from $0.75 to $0.96; 50-watt units range in price from $1.10 to $1.74.—Motorola Semiconductor Products, PO Box 20912, Phoenix AZ 85036.

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COMMUNICATIONS CORNER

Communications in the computer age

THE COROLLARY TO THE OLD CLICHE that says something will always rush in to fill a vacuum is that if a need is created, someone will manufacture the required equipment. But it's really amazing to see the product created first and then a need develop simply because the product exists.

While we've come to expect that kind of thinking from the manufacturers of small appliances, and the gizmos and gadgets that fill mail-order catalogs, it's somewhat surprising to see how successful it's been in communications—particularly on the dial-up telephone system.

Have you ever wondered what happened to CB and all those who enjoyed chit-chatting over the airwaves? You'll find many of them on the telephone using a service that connects up to five semi-random callers at once. Simply dial a telephone number (usually long distance), and a computer connects you with four other users that have similar interests.

Already there are phone numbers for teenagers, young adults, and senior citizens. Once connected, if you don't like the group you're in, you can hang up, call in again (another charge), and the computer serves up a different set of callers. That scheme may eventually attract many special-interest groups, like photographers, calligraphers, or even a group out to cut the cost of their telephone bills!

Changes in telecommunications

Since we're in the computer age, what is more natural than to computerize family communications? Unfortunately, there's little that can be done with routine telephone calls, because the voice must move from one point to another. And users usually don't care how many computers there are between the talker and the talkee as long as it's not necessary to shout into the phone.

But as successful salespeople have been taught from the cradle: You don't sell the steak, you sell the sizzle. In other words, if you can't computerize the telephone call, computerize the instrument. Today's telephones use computers to provide services that no one dreamed of only five years ago.

The best example of how to load a home (or business) phone with computerized functions is AT&T's Genesis Telesystem. Genesis is basically a computerized desk or wall-mounted console whose operating and convenience features can be upgraded by the user with plug-in program cartridges.

If the desired feature is too complex for a pocket-size cartridge, it can be made part of a complete extender module that connects to the base unit. Since the microprocessor and power-supply buses of the console interconnect to the extender unit, the entire system comes under the control of the console's microprocessor.

Figure 1 is a block diagram of the
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• DCX-1 DC case kit for 13.8 VDC operation.
• AL-2 Lightning and static arrester.
• Service manuals are available for all receivers and most accessories.

Additional information on Kenwood all-band receivers is available from authorized dealers.

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Genesis system. Notice that two separate microprocessors are provided. The telephone microprocessor handles only actual telephone communications. It converts the keypad entries to pulse or Touch-Tone dialing (switch selectable), controls a built-in speaker that is used to monitor the line so that you know when to pick up the handset (automatically disconnecting the speaker), and controls the interfacing to the telephone line.

The feature microprocessor is interfaced to the one for the telephone. It provides 9 controls and the individual convenience features, such as a digital display of the number dialed, a digital clock/calendar/alarm and call timer, and single-touch memory dialing (of which three are reserved for emergency numbers).

As Fig. 1 shows, the power supply also includes a 9-volt transistor-radio type battery as a backup. The purpose of the battery is to keep the telephone “alive” when there’s a power failure. If the AC power fails, or the cartridge gets damaged, the telephone still works; the three programmed emergency call buttons will dial, and the remaining nine memories will retain their programming.

If both the power and the batteries fail (highly unlikely), the telephone is disabled, because it needs a local power source to operate. That’s one of the prices paid for computerization. Fortunately, the microprocessor also tests the battery.

If the battery’s voltage falls below a reference level, the display shows the words BATTERY LOW. And if you wait too long to replace the battery, the display shows the dreaded words BATTERY DEAD.

Notice from Figure 1 that the feature that provides the individual communications features is similar in concept to the plug-in game cartridges for home- and-family computers in that the instructions (program) for the microprocessor are in ROM.

The basic feature cartridge, which comes with the unit, provides touch-tone dialing, a call timer, and hold; an alarm/phone, a ringer control, and speaker on-off.

Custom cartridges—which the user can install to replace the basic feature cartridge—can provide three-way calling, call forwarding, and call waiting, an electronic appointment reminder that displays up to 40 messages and even beeps when it’s time to do something, and an electronic padlock that can lock out long-distance and operator-assisted calls.

Another module even memorizes and automatically alphabetizes a personal telephone directory. Since there’s only one cartridge “slot,” it’s obvious that the features stack. That is, the upgrade cartridge has the features of the cartridge one level below, but the upgrades.

If the feature is too large to fit into a cartridge, such as a speakerphone or multi-user dialer, it comes as an add-on extender that attaches to the right side of the telephone so that the two form an integral unit.

R.E
complex logic problem can be a tedious job. And no matter how elegant your solution, there's always another one just a bit more elegant hovering around the corner. But whatever solution you arrive at, if it works, you should be proud of yourself.

Jeff Davis sent me a complex solution that uses quite a few analog switches to decode every possible state (sixteen in all) of a four-bit binary word. A more elegant solution was sent in by Bob Milton of Canton MI. He did what a lot of you did. He used a standard decoder/driver (like the 7448) to drive the display for inputs from 0000 to 0111, and additional circuitry to drive the display for inputs from 1000 to 1111. The trick is to use the high bit of the input word to disable the display driver IC for inputs greater than or equal to 1000.

Bob hooked a 7404 inverter to the D input (pin 6) of a 7448, and fed the output to the blanking input (pin 4) of that IC. So for any input greater than 0111, the D input goes high, the 7404 goes low, and the IC is disabled. Then the display LED may be driven with other circuitry. But be careful. Many of you confused turning off the display with three-stating it. In the case of a 4511, for example, a blank display means that the outputs are all low—and that's a far cry from being three-stated!

Since you'll drive the display with additional decoders for inputs above 0111, you should isolate both driver sections with three-state buffers. If you don't, the operation of the whole circuit is going to be flaky at best and nonexistent at worst.

Many of you went the data-selector and diodes route. That's like building your own PROM, and is a sensible way to solve logic problems when you're short on time, supplies, and patience. Grey Benton of Campbell, CA sent the circuit shown in Fig. 1 as an example of that kind of approach.

Circuit operation is simple. Each four-bit word at the input will cause one and only one of the 74154's outputs to go low. The segments of the display are driven by IC2, a 74LS244 octal buffer whose inputs are held high by 2.2K resistors R1 to R7. Any segment that's tied to a 74154 output through a diode will stay off when that output is selected.

There are both advantages and disadvantages to that sort of design. On the plus side, the format of the display of each digit can be changed simply by adding or removing diodes. In addition, as Grey points out, the circuit can be put together from readily available parts for about $10 bucks—including perfboard and IC sockets. The drawback is that the circuit takes a lot of connections.

The PROM approach

Using a PROM was the most common solution to our problem. That approach is shown in Fig. 2a. The truth table to decode sixteen binary inputs has sixteen entries, as shown in Fig. 2b. For such a small amount of data, a small PROM will suffice. You could burn the code into an EPROM, but the smallest one available is the 1K-by-8 2708. Since we only need sixteen bytes, using a 2708 is like going after a fly with an elephant gun.

The best choice is probably a small bipolar PROM, such as the one most of you mentioned, the 74S288, which has a 32-word X 8-bit memory, costs about $2.00 in small quantities, and is available everywhere. The 74S288 is rather easy to program (as bipolar PROM's go).

Jackson Harris of Helena, MT sent me the truth table shown in Fig. 2b. Burning it in a 74S288 will give you a single-IC decoder/driver for common-cathode displays. But you've still got half the PROM to play with. You could make use of that by burning an inverted truth table in the upper half of the PROM. You would then have an IC that could drive either a common-anode or a common-cathode LED display. Select the one you want by using address input M (pin 14) as a selector. Tie it low to drive a common-cathode display, and tie it high to drive a common-anode display.

As you know, the problem with bipolar PROM's is getting them programmed. There are many programming services that will program bipolar PROM's for you. All you have to do is provide them with the code and the cash.

But designing a circuit to burn bipolar PROM's isn't very difficult. All the specifications are given in the data books, and the problem is just complex enough to be interesting.

If you're interested in the subject, I'll spend some time on it. But for now, get ready to roll your sleeves up again because next month we're going to continue our discussion of the Z80.
ANTIQUE RADIOS

Dealing with tubes

First of all, I want to thank everybody who has taken time to write. I only wish that I could answer all your questions and supply all the parts you need to get your radios restored to their original condition. Believe me, I know from first-hand experience how hard it can be. This month’s column should help, though. We’ll talk about tube substitution and then present some requests for help from readers. But first, let’s get to the antique radio of the month.

Antique radio of the month

The Philco Junior Model 80 shown in Fig. 1 is this month’s restoration case history. Its thin-veneered cabinet, four-tube chassis, and ability to receive only the AM broadcast band doesn’t qualify it as a top-of-the-line radio. However, it does have a few interesting features, including a superheterodyne circuit, field and bucking coils on the dynamic speaker assembly, and a volume control in the antenna circuit (a common practice in many early radios).

Another interesting feature of the Junior Model 80 is that it was originally sold with a choice of power transformers, in order to accommodate the power-line voltages available to listeners in different areas. If you come across a Junior Model 80, check the specifications on the rear of the chassis to make sure it will run on 117 volts. Otherwise you’ll have to hook up an auto-transformer or some other kind of adapter in order to run that old radio.

My Junior Model 80 plays well now, but it needs a somewhat longer antenna than some antique radios with larger chassis. It had no serious chassis problems; it only needed to be cleaned and aligned. But that’s to be expected: Many antique radios must be aligned after restoration because the settings of trimmer capacitors and coils are often disturbed when they are cleaned. The Junior Model 80’s veneer cabinet held up well, considering its age of 50 years or more; it only needed minor touching up to complete our restoration and make the Philco Jr. Model 80 a well-respected member of our collection.

Testing tubes

While it’s often easy to find replacements or substitutions for most of the capacitors, coils, and resistors that are used in antique radios, it can be very difficult to do the same for tubes. In the early days of TV servicing, it was convenient to troubleshoot using the substitution method: The service man would carry a large (steamer-trunk sized) tube caddy into a customer’s home. The caddy contained at least one sample of every type of TV tube. The tube caddy was often supplied by the tube manufacturer, as tubes were the backbone of the industry in those days. But now, few antique-radio fans enjoy the luxury of having one of every sort of tube available for substitution testing. That is when a tube tester comes in handy.

The problem is that the charts of modern tube testers seldom list tubes from our antique radios. If you do much restoration of antiques, it will be worth the effort to get an antique tube tester, which, by the way, is just as “collectable” as the antique radios we usually consider the primary object of our hobby. We’ve discussed some antique tube testers in previous columns.

When you buy an antique tube tester, make sure it has operating instructions as well as tube charts. It can be extremely difficult to find someone with a similar piece of equipment, and often the original manufacturer can’t help.

There are several types of tube testers available. The most common is the emission tester. The other type, called a mutual conductance tester, is somewhat more expensive and harder to come by. The emission tester is sufficiently...
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accurate for our purposes. It does just what its name implies: it provides an indication of the number of electrons being emitted from the cathode. An emission tester is usually reliable, and can help you rank the quality of several tubes, as well as testing for shorts and opens.

When using a tube tester, stop the test and remove power at the first indication of a short. A tube with an inter-element short should not be used in an antique radio, even just “to fill a hole.” Watch the neon indicator on the tube tester for the slightest indication of leakage. If a hard-to-get tube tests “weak” (or worse, as long as it’s not shorted) it can still be used “to fill a hole.”

If you don’t have a tube tester handy, you can make continuity tests with an ohmmeter, as we’ve discussed in previous columns; but such tests are limited. An ohmmeter can detect an open filament, but shorts may or may not show up on a cold tube.

Testing tubes

The numbering system of antique radio tubes did little to identify the tubes' functions. Tubes were numbered consecutively, and unless you had an exceptional memory, it was always necessary to keep a tube-substitution guide handy. Later, even when tube numbers began to give some indication of type and function, every radio man kept his substitution guide within arm’s reach because the sheer number of tubes made it a necessity.

For those who have forgotten, the numbers for tubes used in antique radios from the later 1930's give some information about the tube in the type number. The first digit(s) indicate the approximate filament voltage. The second part of the tube number consists of one or two letters. Usually, letters near the end of the alphabet (W, X, Y, Z) indicate a rectifier tube. An S as the first of two letters indicates that the tube doesn’t have a grid cap, or that all elements are attached to pins in the base of the tube. The third part usually indicates the number of elements connected to the pins in the base of the tube. Of course, the number of elements does not necessarily correspond to the number of pins.

Letters at the end of the tube number refer to the type of construction. So, for example, a 25S5 has a 25 volt filament, is a rectifier, and has five pins connected to tube elements. Earlier tubes (from the 1920's) have a two-letter prefix and three digits. Tubes with the UY prefix (like the UY224 or UY227) have five pins, and tubes with the UX prefix (like the UX226 and UX245) have four pins.

In Table 1, you'll see a tube-substitution guide; it is by no means complete, but does contain a list of the tubes I most commonly find in antique radios from before the second world war, along with common substitutes. You may want to clip the table and save it for future reference. Tube types marked with a double asterisk (**) are functional equivalents, but their pinouts differ, so some type of adapter must be used. You could also rewrite the socket.

Table 1: Antique Tube Substitution Chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tube</th>
<th>Sub</th>
<th>Tube</th>
<th>Sub</th>
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<td>024</td>
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<td>6C5</td>
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<td>7C5</td>
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<td>25SY</td>
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<td>80</td>
<td>25S6</td>
<td>3S26</td>
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<td>1233</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6E7</td>
<td>6D7</td>
<td>6F6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6F6</td>
<td>6V6</td>
<td>**= with adapter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>

Reader's inquiries

Bill Fletcher (3302 Leopold Way, #111, Madison, Wis. 53713) writes looking for the schematic of the General TV And Audio model 337. Sorry Bill, I can't find that model listed anywhere, but maybe one of our readers can help. Martin Hammond (Box 1854, Huntsville, Ontario, Canada POA 1K0) is interested in receiving information about antique radio museums and publications for collectors.

David Sharosky (1323 Jackie Lane, Mayfield Hts., Ohio 44124) has a crystal radio he'd like to sell; it has a label that says, "Maritan Mfg. Co. Inc. Special, Newark, NJ Pat. Pend." Sounds interesting, Dave. If you weren't so far away I'd come and take a look at it myself. Dave also has a piece of galena he would like to sell.

David G. Weatherly (2300 Carolina Rd., Chesapeake, VA. 23322) wrote to say he has seven tubes from a Majestic model 90 for sale. Dave, if you still have the rest of that Majestic, it is as valuable as the tubes to someone needing parts.

A schematic for a Firestone Air Chief model 4-A-22, code 5-6-9023 B is needed by Michael Wilhelm (Marine Bks., Box MTM FBPO, Norfolk, VA 23593). Mike, I found some information on that radio in Sams Photofact 71.

Finally, one reader wrote complaining about a 1936 Silvertone 4585 console radio that whistled when new tubes were installed, especially when using the volume control. I'm sure others have had that problem; the solution is usually quite simple. Antique radios depend heavily on shielding for proper operation, so be sure to replace all shielding after working on an antique.
I HAVE TO ADMIT THAT THE FIRST TIME I saw a function generator, I was a bit overwhelmed. (Perhaps it's because function generators were bigger and more imposing-looking back then than they are today; see Fig. 1.) However, I had to evaluate a unit, and that made it necessary for me to find out about function generators in a hurry. Doing so, I became so fascinated with the thing that I bought one for myself.

A function generator can be thought of as a very versatile audio-frequency generator. A function generator can produce sine waves, square waves, sawtooth waves, pulses of just about any width and repetition rate, and many have built-in sweep capability.

Using a function generator for troubleshooting is not much different than using an ordinary signal generator; in fact, many times you can use it just the same way you'd use an ordinary signal generator. For example, one traditional application is signal tracing, in which a signal is applied to a low-level audio stage and traced through the inputs and outputs of successive stages. Either visually or with an oscilloscope (or both), until a distorted signal becomes evident. Then it is simply a matter of determining which components are responsible for the distortion.

A triangle wave is very handy for that type of testing since any clipping is immediately apparent on the screen of the scope. The peaks of the wave will flatten out. Just be sure not to overdrive your circuit's input; I've found that 50 millivolts is usually sufficient to drive the low-level stages of most amplifiers. If the first stage is clipping, try reducing the output level of your generator. If the clipping doesn't disappear, you may have found the source of the distortion. Also, keep the volume control cranked up; clipping will be most evident then.

When you find a stage that is clipping, measure the grid and plate—or base and collector—voltages. Incorrect bias is a very common cause of clipping. If a stage is improperly biased, it won't be able to handle the range of signal that it should. The signal may be driven toward cutoff, saturation, or both; in any case, the signal will be clipped, and distortion will result.

Incorrect bias is often due to a resistor that has drifted off-value. Be sure to check the values of plate and collector load resistors, and in some cases, screen-grid resistors. If the screen voltage is off either way, the gain of the stage could be drastically affected.

Checking bias is best done at a low level of amplification. Bias that is a few tenths of a volt out of spec won't bother a tube circuit too much, especially if the grid is biased at about ten or fifteen volts. However, transistors are usually more sensitive than tubes to bias changes; a transistor that loses a few tenths of a volt may be driven into complete cutoff. That is particularly true of the low-level preamplifier stages. By the way, that's where a precision digital VOM comes in handy. That's what the factory uses to measure the voltages marked on the service literature, and you'll want to use high-impedance, high-accuracy equipment just as they do. Otherwise, your measurements may be so far off that they're meaningless.

In power tubes, distortion may result if the grid bias is off. The best way to see if grid bias is the problem is by inserting a new tube into the circuit. Alternatively, you could use the grid current test function of your tube tester.

Using squarewaves

The squarewave from a function generator can be used to test both low and high frequency response. Apply the squarewave to the amplifier, and examine the output on a scope. Look for any signs of "tilt" on the tops and bottoms of the signal; they should be absolutely flat and parallel to the baseline. If they tilt to the left, the low-frequency response is poor. If they tilt to the right, and the corners are rounded, the high-frequency response is poor. That rounding of the corners is easy to spot. You can also use squarewaves to check the efficiency of the tone controls; rotate them and observe the effect on the scope. In fact, that would be a good place to try out the sweep function of your generator.

To use the sweep function, all you do is feed a small voltage, preferably a 60-Hz sinewave, into

(Continued following Computer Digest)
BUILD THE Firmware Card
Place an EPROM in the USR Memory of your Timex.

RAMDISK TECHNOLOGY
Instant-Access Mass Storage.

BUILD THIS MODEM FOR
YOUR COMMODORE 64
Part I of a Two-Part Article.
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9 Build a Modem For The Commodore 64
   This two-part article will be completed next month. It’s a money-saving idea!

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3 Computer Products

ON THE COVER

The Firmware Card (See page 4) will add an element of additional flexibility to your TIMEX computer. The small amount of time and cost makes the effort well-worthwhile.

COMING NEXT MONTH

A really jam-packed issue you won’t want to miss. Learn how your computer can take the drudgery out of designing attenuators and pads, How to use PERCOM to double your storage density, how to enhance and tune the 1541 disk drive the easy way, and we’ll start a two-part article on building your own modem for your Commodore.
Hackers

I resent your recent editorials on Hackers. Anybody that tinkers with computers is a hacker, and I've been doing this for years, trying to improve my system. I do not consider myself a moron! —B. G. Jerrolds, Waseca, MN.

Watch my lips. You're not a hacker. You're a computer experimenter. Read some of the mail we received and see if you don't agree with me.

More On Hackers

I'm a hacker and a student of computer science. I do break into other systems but don't crash them. I just look around to see what they're doing and how they're doing it, then quietly leave.

All I'm really trying to do is educate myself. Is that wrong? —Monorail Red, Orlando, FL.

And if you were studying interior decorating, would it be all right to break into your neighbor's home just to see how it was furnished?

Still More

I'm a hacker, and I look upon a computer system as a challenge. It's like a puzzle I'm trying to solve. If I can break in, why it simply means I solved the puzzle. What harm is there in that? —R. D. Falcon, Atlanta, GA.

How do you feel about picking your neighbor's front-door lock? That's a puzzle, too.

It Goes On

Did it ever occur to you that we hackers are performing a service? If we can break into a computer system, anybody else can, too! It makes the system operator look again at his security methods. Frank Cheyney, Billings, Mont.

Sure, Frank; in the same way that a bank robber helps the bank!

And On

There are some very famous and important heads of business in the computer industry that started as hackers. What do you have to say about them? —Sam Pace, Indianapolis, IN.

The same thing I say about all hackers. ☻☺

COMPUTER PRODUCTS

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

PORTABLE COMPUTER, the Bondwell 16, features a 10-megabyte hard disk drive, 128K RAM memory, built-in voice synthesizer, and bundled software. It also features a 9" non-gain monitor, 91-key detached fullstroke keyboard, with a separate numeric keypad, built-in modem, and a 5 1/4" floppy-disk drive.

Equipped with the upgraded CP/M 3.0 operating system, the 30-pound computer is better able to use its 128K RAM memory in the application of the five business-software programs bundled with the system: WordStar, MailMerge, CalcStar, DataStar, and ReportStar. The model Bondwell 16 is priced at $1995.00.—Spectravideo, Inc., 3300 Seldon Court #10, Fremont, CA 94539.

DOT-MATRIX PRINTERS, the Microline model 192 and its wide-column companion, model 193, (shown in photo) feature three different print modes, a re-inking cartridge ribbon, and user-friendly operation.

Both printers come in standard versions to interface with most personal computers, as well as specially configured IBM-compatible models. (The IBM-configured printers come with free software to work with the IBM-PC, PC Jr., and PC XT.) The software provides type styles similar to cursive, italic, gothic, and scientific characters.

The Microline model 192 comes with an adjustable pin-feed mechanism, while the model 193 has a tractor feeder.

The model 192 is a compact unit, measuring 14.6" x 10.9" x 3.2" and weighs just 9.9 pounds. It is priced at $499.00. The model 193 handles wide-column applications, such as spreadsheets. It prints up to 136 columns at 8 characters per inch, 163 at 12 CPI, and 171 at 133 CPI. It can print between 68 and 933 characters per line. It measures 20.6" x 10.9" x 5". It is priced at $699.00.—Okidata, 539 Fellowship Road, Mt. Laurel, NJ 08054 ☻☺
FIRMWARE CARD

Build this and you don't have to store everything above RAMTOP.

MARK W. LATHAM

From teletext terminals to solar heating controllers people seem to discover new uses for the Timex/Sinclair 1000 and its upgraded successors. Those who write the software for these applications often forgo BASIC and program either partially or completely in machine code. Such programs not only have precise control of the computer and fast execution times, but lend themselves perfectly for placement on a firmware card.

How do you know that your program has been written completely in machine language? If it loads into the BASIC area and then transfers itself above RAMTOP, it probably is. The area above RAMTOP is not the only place to put machine code programs. USR calls can be directed to any location in the 0-32K area.

The firmware card described here lets you place either a 2K or 4K EPROM anywhere in the USR memory area. It can serve as an interface card for custom projects. It fits into Radio Shack's smallest project box and operates much like an Atari game cartridge. Once you plug it in, all that is necessary is to call the program.

Circuit operation

The schematic diagram is shown in Figure 1. The one-of-eight decoder, ICl, reads address lines A11-A15 and provides a decoded output. Just a few jumpers allow this IC to activate the EPROM anywhere in the USR area.

When a 2K EPROM is used, address A11 is jumpered to the decoder's least significant address input, pin 1. The decoder's eight outputs will then each represent a 2K block of memory. Address A14 is jumpered to either pin 4 or pin 6 of the decoder, allowing these eight outputs to activate for addresses in the 0-16K or 16-32K areas, respectively.

For a 4K EPROM, the decoder's pin 1 is left open and A11 is jumpered to the most significant EPROM address pin. With this jumper configuration, the decoder activates only the odd-numbered of the eight outputs, each of which represents a 4K block of memory.

Usually the decoded address signal is Wired with /MREQ (computer's memory request) before being fed to the EPROM's /ICE (chip enable). Such a configuration provides for the least power dissipation possible. In this case, however, the decoded address signal is connected directly to ICE, and /MREQ is connected to the EPROM's /OE (output enable). For a rare compromise in power, access time is then extended allowing even the slow 480ns memories to work.

Project interface

For those readers who have built custom add-ons such as those described in "Interfacing The ZX-81" (see Radio-Electronics, July-September, 1984) or "Machine Code Development System" (see Computer Digest, January and March, 1985) the firmware card allows you to interface your project and keep the computer bus...
too. To separate the display and printer commands from the project's I/O signals, the computer's /IORQ and address A7 have been ORed to provide an interfacing signal. The locations of this and other useful signals on the firmware card is shown in Figure 2.

Memory disable

In order for the firmware card to work properly, it must disable any other memory device working in the same area. A memory disable signal is made by NORing (via IC2a) the decoder's output with /MREQ and then connecting the NOR output through diode D1 to the control line of the memory to be disabled.

As shown in Figure 2, D1 can be placed to disable either the ROM (0-16K) or the RAM (16K-32K) of the computer's internal memories. The firmware card can also disable an external RAMPAK that cannot be manually switched off in the card area. This is done by replacing the /MREQ trace with a 680-ohm resistor and then connecting the 16K-32K diode's cathode to the end of that resistor. The RAM is then plugged in behind the firmware card.

Construction

The component and solder sides for the firmware card are shown in Figure 3. This circuit board can be made at home or can be ordered from the supplier given in the parts list. The pattern shown includes jumper traces that place a 2K EPROM in the 8K-10K memory area. To change the EPROM size or memory placement, these traces must be broken and wire jumpers used as shown in Figure 2.

PARTS LIST

D1—1N914 or 4148 Switching Diode
IC1—74LS138 One-Of-Eight Decoder
IC2—74LS02 Quad 2-input NOR gate
C1—.1µF Disc or Metalfilm Capacitor
C2—10µF 16V Electrolytic Capacitor
Miscellaneous—Edge connector, 24-pin socket, circuit board, project case, hardware.

An etched, drilled and cut printed circuit board is available for $12.95 (price includes shipping and handling) from WILDONICS, Box 1763, Boise, ID 83701. For custom cards, write.

FIG. 3—IF YOU'D LIKE to make your own circuit board, full-size patterns are offered here for both sides. Above is the component side; below, the solder side.

FIG. 4—PARTS PLACEMENT is shown here. Note that IC1 is mounted directly to the board beneath the EPROM. See text.

The parts placement is shown in Figure 4. Note that IC1 is mounted directly to the board under the EPROM. To allow space for this IC, the EPROM socket can be modified on one end, resulting in a U-shaped socket.

Once wired, the firmware card can be placed inside Radio Shack's smallest project case. This case should be sprayed on the inside with aluminum paint and then cut ¥4-inch up on each side to allow for the edge connectors. On one end of the aluminum cover place adhesive foam. On the other end, two holes should be drilled ¥4-inch away from parallel with the two case holes. Plastic ¥4-inch spacers and ¥4 × 4-40 screws thread directly into the board to complete the assembly.

Other uses

The firmware card can provide many other useful functions missing on the Timex computer. A nice accessory, for instance, would be a Reset button that can be made by connecting a normally open, momentary contact switch between /RESET and ground.

The EPROM socket can also hold an HM6116 2K RAM by changing pin 21 from 5V to the /WR signal. This makes the card ideal for writing custom software in the 8K-10K area.

The interface output can also be used to power a piezo element. A little experimentation with short bursts of output commands should result in some unique sounds and musical tones. 🎵
RAMDISK TECHNOLOGY

Instant-access mass storage

Herb Friedman

While it might appear that the new super-sophisticated programs do more for the same price—giving something for nothing—a super data-crunching program usually requires a great amount of mass storage. Fortunately, since mass storage in the form of double-sided floppies and hard disks now comes cheap, prodigious amounts of mass storage hardware can be squeezed into anybody's computing budget.

Usually, access time is relative to the amount of data stored. The more you store, the slower it is to locate and access specific information. Because a modern, super-sophisticated data base or spreadsheet might require more time to locate specific information, it can usually end up running slower than the simple but older and smaller programs designed for 8-bit computers with a modest amount of storage.

The recommended solution to slow data access is usually something with a catchy high-tech name such as hyperdrive, superdrive, or turbodrive. Regardless of what it's called, it is actually a portion of a computer's RAM that's been programmed to emulate a disk drive. Usually, the emulation is so accurate that the computer actually sees the RAMdisk as only a disk drive. As far as the computer is concerned, the RAM used for disk emulation no longer exists as free RAM.

The reason why RAMdisk data access is faster than a conventional disk is because the data is at the RAMdisk's speed and the read/write head must be positioned only once. A RAMdisk has no such delays because reads and writes are from RAM to RAM. The only delays are those of the programs and the computer itself as it moves electrical impulses through RAM.

The way in which RAMdisk is used depends on the particular software, the computer and the user. In general, particularly with 64K 8-bit computers, the user employs special software to reserve a portion of conventional memory as a RAMdisk only as large as needed for the disk file. The computer recognizes the RAMdisk the same way it recognizes a physical disk. For example, if the computer has physical drives A and B, the RAMdisk might be C or D or M or whatever. Once the RAMdisk is established in memory the user can read or write to the RAMdisk, or copy the desired data from a physical drive to the RAMdisk by using the conventional DOS PIP or COPY command. Assuming the RAMdisk was assigned the identifier M, if the user wanted to browse through a computerized mailing list of customers who purchased TV service contracts for the past 5 years he would copy the data file—assume its filename is CONTRACT.DAT—from the floppy or hard disk to the RAMdisk with the command:

```
PIP M: = CONTRACT.DAT
```

or

```
COPY CONTRACT.DAT = M: (for PC/MS-DOS)
```

Using an in-memory word processor, a database editor, or the computer's LIST or TYPE command, the user could browse through the mailing list—move forward and back—without having to wait for the computer to seek and load from the disk.

How it's done

If the computer's RAM were unlimited, one could safely create a RAMdisk equal in size, at least to a conventional floppy disk and all the data of a physical disk could be copied into the RAMdisk.

Figure 1A shows how a RAMdisk is usually established in a 64K 8-bit computer having two 160K floppy drives. The program that establishes the RAMdisk positions it in an area that is not used by the disk operating system (DOS). If the user sets up a RAMdisk of 16K, only 48K of RAM is available to the user because the computer no longer "sees" the 16K of RAM that's been set aside for the disk emulation. If the DOS uses 4K, only 44K total memory is available to the applications program in contrast to a total of 60K which would be available if the RAMdisk wasn't used.

Figure 1B shows the computer's functional system after the 16K RAMdisk is created. The computer sees three disk drives: Two of 160K and one of 16K. As a

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FIG. 1A—In a conventional 8-bit computer, the RAMdisk is created from the basic 64K of memory. The memory used for the RAMdisk is no longer available to the applications program.

FIG. 1B—If a 64K RAMDISK is created, the functional computer now has three disk drives, but 16K less RAM.
general rule, this configuration lasts until the computer is turned off. The memory utilized for the RAMdisk cannot be reprogrammed for use as conventional RAM.

In a 64K computer, the RAMdisk must be as small as possible; if it is made too large, there might not be sufficient memory left to run the applications program. But if enough memory is left for the applications program, the RAMdisk is usually too small for effective handling of the associated data.

But the RAMdisk becomes more useful when the computer can address memory independent of the main computer. For example, the Radio Shack Model 4 was the first 64K machine to accommodate an extra internal 64K bank of memory which could be used for a RAMdisk independent of the main memory, leaving almost all of the conventional 64K in the first bank available for the applications program. Unfortunately, Radio Shack made no provisions for CP/M applications use of the additional 64K. Aftermarket vendors, however, provided software which configured the entire extra 64K to function as a RAMdisk. As shown in Figure 2A, the RAMdisk uses the entire second bank of memory, all 64K, for the RAMdisk, while the main computer retains almost its full 64K of RAM (less a smidgen for the RAMdisk software). This results in the system configuration shown in Figure 2B, 64K of memory computer memory plus two full-size floppy drives, and a 64K RAMdisk, which is far more advantageous for conventional applications programs than the configuration shown in Figure 1B where part of the original 64K of memory is partitioned for a RAMdisk.

An even more advanced RAMdisk system for 8-bit machines uses a completely independent memory external to the original computer. As shown in Figure 3A, a RAMdisk program within main memory manages all of the external memory as a RAMdisk. Since the external memory is really under software rather than inherent computer or operating system control, it can be almost any affordable size. 320K is not uncommon. Once a RAMdisk is greater than approximately 160K it can represent one or more floppy disks, and depending on the particular software that creates the RAMdisk(s) everything on the physical disk including the directory can be written or copied to the RAMdisk.

If the external RAM is sufficiently large, it can be software partitioned to emulate several disk drives. Figure 3B shows how 350K of external memory can represent two independent 160K RAMdisks.

Once we can create a RAMdisk at least equal in size to a conventional floppy, the speed by which an applications program works can be increased by several orders of magnitude.

But if the disk overlay files are copied to RAMdisk, the program operation is almost instantaneous because the program no longer has to wait for disk access. Both the reads and writes to "virtual memory" are made to and from RAM. The value of RAMdisk is even more apparent if WordStar is used with a spelling checker. A spelling checker's dictionary—its list of words—is generally so large it must be maintained on its own disk. If the document being spell checked is being stored on a separate data disk (which is usually the way it's done) two disk drives are needed only for the spelling check, and it's often necessary that the dictionary disk be swapped with the word processing software disk in order to randomly access the spelling checker. This is slow, it's frustrating. However, if the spelling checker was
software is copied into a RAMdisk, the program can easily shift back and forth between WordStar and the RAMdisk spelling checker almost instantaneously.

**Full size RAMdisks**

Disk emulation in IBM-compatible computers can be handled in several different ways, depending on the amount of installed RAM. If the computer has 256K of RAM disk emulation it's the same for 64K computers in that part of the RAM is programmed to function as a RAMdisk. But since RAMdisks provide maximum convenience when the emulation is at least as large in size to the floppy with the computer, it makes no sense to create small RAMdisks when the computer has the capacity to emulate full-size disks, for in this way a complete floppy can be easily copied to the RAMdisk. This is easily done in an IBM-compatible computer because of the relatively large amount of RAM that can be installed and addressed. (Either the 510K or 640K. To keep things simple we will use 640K.)

One of the features that simplifies RAMdisk in an IBM-compatible is that, as shown in Figure 4A, an applications program can only run with contiguous RAM. If there is a break in the RAM addressing, such as the "missing" 64K in Figure 4B, the application program can use only the RAM up to the first break. While the RAM above the break cannot be used for the applications program it can be used for utilities, and more importantly, for one or more RAMdisks. The break itself need not be physical. Software can be used to create an artificial break—actually a ceiling beyond which the computer does not see RAM, so the applications software will automatically utilize only the RAM below the break or the ceiling. Figure 4C.

The RAM above the break can be used for a RAMdisk up to the size of the computer's conventional floppy (either 320K or 360K), or the RAM above the break can be partitioned into a full-size RAMdisk and a smaller RAMdisk, or several smaller RAMdisks. The precise disk emulation depends on what the user needs and the software that creates the RAMdisk(s). Others permit any amount of reserved RAM to be used for several RAMdisks of random size.

An IBM-compatible computer doesn't have to be "fully loaded" with memory to create a RAMdisk. If the computer is equipped with only 256K of RAM most of the disk emulation software will permit one or more RAMdisks to be created as long as a minimum of 128K remains for the applications program (including DOS and the RAMdisk software). Often, if the user attempts to create a RAMdisk that will leave less than 128K for the applications software the program will automatically create the largest RAMdisk coincident with 128K of applications RAM.

**Copy first**

RAMdisks are volatile. Unless you are using a special kind of memory expansion adapter employing a backup battery that keeps the memory alive when the computer's normal power supply is turned off, both the RAMdisk and its data disappear when the computer is turned off. If you will need the data or a word processed document that's stored in RAMdisk for use at another time, it must be copied to a physical disk before the computer is turned off.

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**FIG. 3B—EXPANSION RAMDISK MEMORY can be partitioned almost any way the user wants it. For example, 320K might be configured to provide three additional drives so the computer sees a total of five.**

**FIG. 4A—IN AN IBM-COMPATIBLE COMPUTER the applications program always attempts to utilize all memory to the highest possible address.**

**FIG. 4B—IF THERE IS A "BREAK" in the memory—say the memory from 256K to 320K is missing—the application program will run only in the contiguous memory starting from zero. The memory above the break can be used for RAMdisks or anything else other than the applications programs.**

**FIG. 4C—RAMDISK SOFTWARE CREATES a "phantom break" and configures the memory above the break for one or more RAMdisks. How and in what size the RAMdisks are created are a function of the RAMdisk software.**
YOU CAN BUILD THIS MODEM FOR YOUR COMMODORE 64

PART I

Sure you can build your own modem... And save a lot in the process!

JIM STEPHENS

Modems are expensive but not all that complicated. In fact, they can be quite simple once the function of the main components is understood. Basic modems have two main sections, a modulator and a demodulator. Once these have been built, the rest is easy. Here's how to build your own originate-only modem and save a bundle.

What makes it possible, are two new integrated circuits sold by Radio Shack and other suppliers. The catalog description said that the XR9911 IC was an "FSK decoder used for RTTY and modems." Next to it was another IC, the XR2206 FSK Generator, which had the same caption. The result was better than expected, it worked, and it worked reliably. The circuit could do what it took several dozen IC's in other circuits to do and it did it at less than half the cost of some of the more popular modems for the Commodore 64.

A modem is a circuit that converts serial digital data coming from the computer into tones that can be sent over a single audio channel such as the telephone line. This conversion, called modulation, sends one tone for a digital one and a different tone for a digital zero. The other section of a modem converts tones from the telephone line to either a digital one or zero depending on the tone's frequency. This function is called demodulation.

Since the telephone is built to handle voice communication, the plus and minus voltages which are generated by the computer cannot be handled by the telephone circuits. If a circuit could recognize a certain voltage and convert that voltage to either a high or low tone, digital generated tones could be sent over the telephone line and could be reliably picked up at the other end.

That is exactly what the modem does.

To speed things up a bit, modems actually operate using four tones of different frequency. Two tones are used by the sending terminal and two separate tones of another frequency range are used by the receiving terminal. This way, it is possible for both units to talk at the same time and not interfere with each other's data.

The telecommunications terminal that calls up another terminal is called the originating terminal. Its tones are set at 1070 Hz and 1270 Hz for a digital one or a one. The receiving terminal is the answering unit...
and its tones are higher with a one represented by 9925 Hz and a zero represented by 2025 Hz. When the two tones are changed from one frequency to the next, they are not stopped and started, but shifted up or down in frequency. This is called “frequency shift keying” or FSK. A demodulator circuit recognizes this shift and changes the digital output at its output pin accordingly. The modulator circuit senses a digital one or zero on its keying input pin from the computer and shifts its output frequency either up or down depending on the level of voltage at this input.

Although it is possible to have both the originating and answering capability in one modem, the need for more-complicated circuits outweighs the benefit. After all, most of us would only use our computer to call up another terminal such as Compuserve. We rarely use it to answer unless we are running our own bulletin board. The simple unit shown here is an originate-only modem, but it could easily be converted to answering capability by changing the values of the components as shown in Table I and setting the output tones of the modulator to the higher set of frequencies. It might even work if a separate set of components were on the board and switched into by a set of switches. This would make the modem capable of both origination and answering.

The most expensive part of telecommunicating can be the modem software that generates and converts the digital data once the modem has accomplished its task. The unit shown here works with most of the available software for Commodore modems. It was used with Smart Terminal 64, Victerm, and with Term 64. Many good terminal programs have been published recently in several of the Commodore publications.

The modem circuit

There are four ICs that make up this modem circuit, but the two major ones are the 2211 FSK demodulator and the 2206 FSK modulator.

As shown in Figure 1, the 2211 demodulator receives the 2225 Hz tone from the earpiece. The level of the received tone is amplified by IC3 which is an LM386 low power audio amp. The discrete components that connect to the 2211 actually set the response frequency of the demodulator. Table I shows the values of the components that set the frequencies at which the demodulator responds. Since we want the demodulator to react to the incoming 2225 Hz and 9925 Hz tones, we have chosen the values for the five components listed under the higher frequency range. Note that the capacitors here should be good quality mylar types to improve the stability of the circuit. Pins 11 and 12 of the 2211 are the oscillator control of the demodulator and this oscillator is peaked by a 5K variable resistor, R7. This is a standard linear taper pot. The tones are transmitted from the earpiece by a small inexpensive speaker.

When a tone in the proper frequency range is detected by the 2211, the demodulator’s data output pin goes either high or low depending on the frequency. A tone of 2225 Hz will cause it to go high while a tone of 9925 Hz will cause it to go low.

Adjustment of R7 causes the oscillator to lock onto this frequency range and these adjustments will be discussed in detail later.

The heart of the modulator section is the 2206 FSK generator Figure 1 shows that it appears as simple as the demodulator but its adjustment is much more complicated than the 2211. It generates a tone of either 1070 Hz or 1270 Hz at pin 2 when either a digital zero or a digital one is detected at its keying pin number 9. The 2206 is capable of producing most any frequency so exact adjustment is necessary in order to produce the correct frequency output.

Pins 7 and 8 of the 2206 connect to the timing resistors that produce the two output frequencies. The value of these resistors is set to produce the two separate tones. Two variable resistors (R13 and R14) have been chosen so that the exact frequency of the tones can be set by hand. R11 is the volume control that determines the intensity of the tone being sent to

### Table I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1, 4, 7, 10</td>
<td>10 µF ceramic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2, 8, 11, 14</td>
<td>10 µF electrolytic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3, 15</td>
<td>5 µF electrolytic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>0.005 µF ceramic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6</td>
<td>0.05 µF ceramic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7</td>
<td>1 µF ceramic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C9, 12</td>
<td>1 µF electrolytic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C13</td>
<td>100 µF electrolytic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C16</td>
<td>0.022 µF mylar (see table 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C17</td>
<td>0.0047 µF mylar (see table 1)</td>
</tr>
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</table>

### Capacitors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R1, 4</td>
<td>100,000 ohms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2, 10, 12</td>
<td>5100 ohms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R3</td>
<td>510,000 ohms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R5</td>
<td>200,000 ohms (see table 1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>R6</td>
<td>18,000 ohms (see table 1)</td>
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<td>R7</td>
<td>5000 ohms Variable</td>
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<td>R8, 13, 14, 16</td>
<td>10,000 ohms Variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R9</td>
<td>10 ohms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R11</td>
<td>25,000 ohms Variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R15</td>
<td>200 ohms</td>
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### Semiconductors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IC1</td>
<td>XR2211 FSK Decoder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC2</td>
<td>XR2206 FSK Generator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC3</td>
<td>LM386 Low Power Audio Amp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC5</td>
<td>4049 CMOS Hex Inverter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>2N2222 NPN Transistor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Miscellaneous

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SW</td>
<td>SPST Switch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPKR</td>
<td>8 ohm .5 watt Speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connect-Edge Connector (Cinch #5024A-30)</td>
<td>Perboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) 14 pin WW Socket</td>
<td>(3) 16 pin WW Socket</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: A ten-minute cassette tape containing five minutes of continuous telecommunications data and examples of both originating and answering tones may be ordered by sending $4.00 to Syntronics, 2324 Dannywood Dr., Nashville, TN 37214.
IC4 which is an LM386 low power audio amp. The audio amp also has a 10K pot that adjusts the level of the final output to the 8 ohm speaker.

Circuit power

Notice that both the 2211 and the 2206 are powered by 9 volts. This voltage is necessary because the 2206 will not operate at less than 8.5 volts. Since direct current at 9 volts is not present on the user port of the Commodore 64, we use a 9 volt transistor battery. A small separate power supply could be built to provide this voltage. The modem only draws around 25 mA so the battery should last some time depending on use.

A transistor battery should never be placed on the user port pins. If this were done, the output port of the 64 could be harmed. The output signal of the 2206 demodulator is connected to the 64 through a 2N2222 NPN transistor which obtains its power from the 5 volts on the user port. The signal is then fed through two stages of IC3 which is a CMOS 4049 inverter. The inverter is powered by the computer's 5 volts. This IC shapes the final digital levels before they are presented to the port. Both power supplies have their ground connection in common for proper signal reference.

After extended use, it will be necessary to replace the 9-volt battery since the lower voltage level will cause the modem's output and lock-on frequency to drift off. This will cause mis-reads in the data. If garbage starts showing up for no reason, suspect low battery voltage. Again, this would not be a problem if a small separate 9-volt supply were constructed, though it would increase the complexity and cost of the circuit. The transistor battery did fluctuate when left off for a long period and would sometimes make retuning necessary.

Wiring the modem board

You must keep the components close together and the leads short or risk stray capacitance which upsets the audio circuits. This is especially true of the LM386 amplifiers. You may hear a local disk jockey coming in on the modulator circuit. This interference disappears once the final connections are made. Make sure you use flexible shielded microphone cable to the speakers. These lines should be no more than ten inches long. They tend to act as antennas and the modem will try to decode the sound of the latest rock group.

IC sockets were used for the integrated circuits and wire-wrap posts for mounting some of the discrete components. One 16 pin IC socket mounted both of the LM386 amplifiers. The sockets were inserted into a 3-inch by 2-inch perf board. Leave the jumper test point (J1) disconnected until the final adjustments have
The parts list shows the values for the various components and many of these can be just within the value range shown. Those that are marked with an asterisk and shown by Table 1 must be the exact values listed. Those components connected to the LM386 amps should also be exact. You may want to diagram or label the variable resistors on the board layout since they can get confusing once final adjustments are started.

Connection to the computer is critical. It is important that the correct user port pins are selected for connection. Connections to the board is through very short lengths of hook-up wire. Some of the pins on the user port such as PBO and FLAG 2 are wired in parallel. This is necessary because of the way some software handles the output and input ports. Figure 2 shows the user port pinout which is viewed as though you were looking at the user port from the back of the computer. The connector to the port must always be inserted with the leads correctly oriented to the port pins. Never insert the connector upside down since this would place the unregulated alternating 9 volts of the port on the data lines. This could harm the port also. Some anti-reversing means such as connector keying might be necessary on the connector to prevent accidental backward insertion. I simply marked one side of the connector as "TOP".

The 9-volt power supply is switched on and off by a SPST toggle switch. The 5-volts for IC5 and Q1 are supplied by the computer and it is activated when the 64 is turned on. With this dual power arrangement, it is

![Diagram of the Commodore 64 user port](image1)

**FIG. 2—DIAGRAM OF THE COMMODORE 64 USER PORT. MAKE SURE THAT THE CONNECTOR IS PROPERLY ORIENTED BEFORE ATTACHING TO USER PORT.**

been completed.

### TABLE 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FSK BAND</th>
<th>COMPONENT VALUES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>300 Baud frequency 1070-1270Hz</td>
<td>C16-0.039µF C5-0.005µF C17-0.01µF R6-18K R5-100K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300 Baud frequency 2025Hz-2225Hz</td>
<td>C16-0.022µF C5-0.005µF C17-0.0047µF R6-18K R5-200K</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 1—TABLE OF COMPONENT VALUES for the 2211 decoder. If decoder is built to be an answering device, values in the first part of the table should be used.**

FIG. 3—CONSTRUCTION OF ACOUSTIC COUPLER. Speakers are backed with foam to keep loud sound in and interfering noise out. Excessive noises can turn data to garbage.

**FIG. 3—CONSTRUCTION OF ACOUSTIC COUPLER. SPEAKERS ARE BACKED WITH FOAM TO KEEP LOUD SOUND IN AND INTERFERING NOISE OUT. ETRONOUS NOISES CAN TURN DATA TO GARBAGE.**

It is easy to forget to turn off the modem when it is not in use. This tends to shorten the battery life somewhat. The low continuous tone of the modulator alerts you that the unit is operating.

The coupler is the housing for the mike and speaker and into which you insert the handset. It does not have to be elaborate. Use two lengths of heavy cardboard wrapped in a circle which fits the handset snugly. This cardboard circle is then taped around the circumference. The speaker and mike are placed into them and glued. Foam rubber is used to seal the back. The sealing is necessary since the tones are continuous and tend to be irritating after a while. In order to prevent damage to the speakers, a stiff cardboard circle was cut and glued over the speakers to keep the handset from touching them. The leads to the couplers should be short and the couplers can be permanently mounted on a board. Again, use flexible shielded mike cable here. Figure 3 shows how the couplers are constructed. See Figure 4 to examine the author's unit.

**FIG. 4—AUTHOR'S UNIT WITH COVER REMOVED REVEALS SIMPLICITY OF WIRING. COMPONENT PLACEMENT IS NOT CRITICAL AND PERBOARD WORKS WELL.**

That's all the room we have in this issue. However, we'll complete the Mocem in the December issue of Computer Digest. There's still much information to come!
the sweep jack on the back of the generator. The range of the sweep may be set by rotating range and frequency controls. Many scopes have a built-in 60-Hz sweep signal that may be used to drive the function generator. Doing so will ensure a steady display on the scope.

The sweep frequency test can be used to diagnose amplifiers that have a buzz or rattle at one frequency. If you have that problem in your amplifier circuit, you'll see a sharp peak at the problem frequency on your scope. However, speakers are more often responsible for that problem than the electronics, and if the problem is in the speaker, you'll see no peaks.

You don't actually need an automatic sweep generator to perform that test; you can do it with a regular signal generator by simply executing a "manual sweep": just rotate the frequency knob slowly over the entire audio range. At some point the rattle will become apparent, and you'll be able to trace out its source and fix it.

I had a case like that once: One of the seams of a speaker cone had come unglued and caused the speaker to rattle at about 700 Hz, if I remember correctly. At any rate, after I found that loose seam, a small dab of cement solved the problem.

A leaky tube or transistor can also cause clipping and distortion. Many times the best way to diagnose that problem is by substituting new components. That is easy with tubes, but not with transistors, unless the manufacturer was kind enough to use sockets. Many transistor testers can measure leakage; mine reads leakage in the microamp range. Once I found a power transistor with a 10-μA leakage—but that was enough to cause distortion! R-E

**SERVICE QUESTIONS**

**RESISTOR BURNING UP**

On a Sony KV1910D chassis, I've replaced the horizontal oscillator IC, the horizontal and vertical output amplifiers, and the regulator, all of which were bad. Resistor R556, which sits on the collector of Q511, is burning up. In addition, I have no high voltage, and the voltage readings around the regulator are all wrong.—L.W. Baltimore, MD

You appear to have two problems here, one of which should be taken care of before you do anything else. The resistor in the Q511 circuit (which incidentally is the starter transistor) is cooking because the transistor is being overworked. The 18-volt scan-derived supply is supposed to switch the transistor off immediately after turn-on. Apparently that 18-volt supply is not reaching the transistor, thereby causing it to stay on.

Now simply start with the basics: Hook up an external 18-volt power supply to get the sweep circuit working. (In the Sept., 1983 issue of *Radio-Electronics* an article "Servicing Horizontal Sweep Circuits" covers the procedure in some detail.) Once you get the high voltage, the regulator problem may fall into place, or at least will be easier to handle.

**AGC PROBLEMS**

A Panasonic model CT-316 that I've been working on has AGC trouble. I have changed the AGC control as well as IC101, the first IF. I've tested all the components in the AGC circuit, and have sprayed around high voltage, and the voltage

...
ce functions. In addition, the same tuned circuit is used for both transmitting and receiving, so you don’t have to worry about frequency mis-matching due to component drift.

Transmission is initiated by applying a logic “1” to pin 8 of the L1M1812. The receiver will be disabled, and pin 14 will be low. To receive, pin 8 is simply grounded. Pin 14 will go high after the circuit receives an echo of the signal.

The time between initiating transmission and pin 14’s going high is then equal to the time required to travel from the transmitter to the object and back. So to obtain the distance to the object, that time would be halved and plugged into the formula $D = \frac{V}{T}$ ($V = 13,080$). The circuit shown in Fig. 3-a has a range from 4 inches to about 6 feet. By adding the 555 circuit shown in Fig. 3-b, the low end of the range may be decreased to 3 inches, and the high end increased to 20 feet. Potentiometer $R2$ should again be adjusted to a frequency of 40 kHz.

That circuit is so simple and so inexpensive that you could build several for one robot.

Polaroid’s ultrasonics

Polaroid Corporation has been using ultrasonic ranging in cameras such as the SX-70 for some time now. Distance information obtained through ultrasonics is used to focus the camera’s main lens automatically. The transducer used has a larger diameter and is slimmer than the type usually found in electronics surplus stores. Several years ago Polaroid packaged the electronics from their cameras along with a good tutorial manual, as well as an interesting experimenter’s board. The board is called the “Polaroid Ultrasonic Ranging System Designer’s Kit,” and is available for $165 from the Polaroid Ultrasonics Components Group (Polaroid Corp., 119 Windsor Street, Cambridge, MA 02139). It comes with a special interface that displays distance information on an LED readout.
what happens when a burst of 15-kHz pulses is sent through a compander circuit. The upper trace shows the input signal; the middle trace shows the signal after it has been processed by the compressor; and the bottom trace shows how it has been restored to its original form after being processed by the expander.

Automatic level control

The NE570/1 may be used for ALC (Automatic Level Control). In that configuration, the Δ-G cell is placed in the feedback loop of the op-amp, and the rectifier

The value of $R_X$ may be calculated as follows:

$$R_X = \frac{(A_y \times 26,000) - 10,000}{1.8}$$

All remarks made above regarding DC biasing, maximum signal levels, AC coupling, and attack/decay time constants may be applied to the ALC circuit.

The oscilloscope photograph in Fig. 10 shows the response of the ALC circuit.

Experimental compander circuit

Shown in Fig. 11 is the schematic for a circuit you may use to experiment with compressors. The circuit uses a NE570 or NE571 (or SA571) and provides one channel of compression and one channel of expansion. In addition, the compression channel may also be configured to function as an ALC circuit merely by flipping a switch. Full-size printed-circuit artwork is shown in the “PC Service” section of this magazine, and the component-placement diagram for that board is shown in Fig. 12.

Space has been reserved on the PCB board for RC pre- and de-emphasis networks. If you have no need for them, simply install jumpers JU1 through JU3 should be installed in any case. R-E...
the present value is loaded into the counter, the circuit will increment one step for each negative-going transition of clock line clock.

Down counters

The counter circuits presented thus far are up-counters, that is, they increment one step for each active transition of the clock line. A down-counter, on the other hand, decrements for each active transition of the clock line.

Figure 7 shows an example of a base-16 down-counter. Note the difference between this circuit and the base-16 up-counter of Fig. 2. In the up version, the flip-flops are connected in cascade by connecting the Q output of the driving stage to the clock input of the following stage. In the down counter version, the clock input of the following stage is driven from the Q output of the driving stage.

A BCD version can be made using the BCD counter circuit of Fig. 4 modified in the same way; that is all clock inputs are driven by a Q (instead of the Q) output of the preceding stage. Also, the NAND output resets only the two middle flip-flops.

Up/down counters

An up/down counter is designed to operate either as an up-counter or a down-counter, depending upon the state of the signal (high or low) applied to a special mode input. Figure 8 shows the circuit for a two-stage up/down counter.

To see how that circuit operates, recall the differences between up and down counters; in the down-counter, the clock is driven from the Q output, while in an up-counter the clock is driven from the Q output of the preceding stage. In Fig. 8, the state of the signal at the mode input determines which output drives FF2.

Gates G1 and G2 are AND gates whose outputs will be high only when both inputs are high. One input for G1 and G2 is taken from Q and input, respectively. The second input is provided by the second input. For G1, that input is first inverted and then fed to the gate; for G2, that input is fed directly to the gate.

When the mode input is high, a low is fed to G1 and a high is fed to G2. In that situation, the output of G1 is high and the output of G2 is low. On the other hand, when both inputs are high, the outputs of the two gates are then ORed together and fed to the clock input of the next stage. In the situation just described, the counter is a down-counter because the clock input of the next stage (FF2) follows the Q output of FF1.

When the mode input is low, the opposite occurs. The input to G1 is high and the input to G2 is low, and the clock input of FF2 follows the Q output of FF1.

Of course, there are many other types of counter circuits, including those with division ratios other than 2, 10, or 16.

Some of the counters that we have presented thus far are decodable, some are not. Such circuits cannot be used to present numerical data, but are useful for pre-scaling and other applications.

Clocking considerations

Thus far, we've proceeded as if the timing of the clock pulses was no critical. If you stick with clocking frequencies of under 1 MHz and pulse widths of over 1 µs, that is indeed the case. Otherwise, there are certain timing parameters that you should be aware of. Those parameters are specified by the manufacturer, and differ for each device. They can be found on the IC's data sheet. Let's briefly go over some of those parameters and what they mean.

The setup time refers to the minimum time that an input must be stable before clocking occurs. The hold time refers to the minimum time that the input must be stable after clocking occurs. Maximum reset time refers to the narrowest width pulse that can be used to reset the device. Minimum clock-high time refers to the narrowest width pulse that can be used for clocking. Maximum clock frequency is the fastest clock speed that should be used. Propagation delay is the length of time between clocking and a change in the output state.

Monostable multivibrators, also called one-shots, are circuits that output just one pulse for every trigger pulse received. Next time, we'll turn our attention to those interesting circuits.
available on a number of satellite channels. Thus, while the ESPN numbers are surprisingly high—considerably higher than with cable TV viewers—one again no hard conclusions should be drawn from the study's figures.

TVRO owner use-patterns change with time: although 6.6% of those surveyed said news was their most-viewed type of program, that number rises to 11.1% for owners of systems three or more years old. Interest in sports programming also declines as length of ownership increases, and viewing of religious channels nearly triples with long-time viewers.

The future

Defining who TVRO users are, why they buy, and how they use their TVRO systems is a very important task for the home-TVRO industry. That point was driven home when retail sales of home systems fell off sharply this past spring, and several long-established equipment suppliers in the receiver and antenna field found themselves requesting court protection from creditors.

The consensus is that the first 1,000,000 TVRO systems bought (a mark reached this past May) may have been “easy sales” because buyers were eager to purchase after their first exposure to TVRO. However, fears that the market may have become saturated are not supported by the study. What the study does show is that “shotgun” sales techniques, which lack coordinated market planning and direction, may not work as well in the future as they have in the past.

The TVRO distribution chain is going through a difficult year of adjustment. Radio Shack is expected to formally announce their own line of TVRO hardware in their September catalog—and that line will be featured on the front cover. Other large distribution outlets also plan entry into the marketplace during late 1985 and early 1986, so TVRO selling patterns are going to continue changing rapidly.

R-E
price of 39.95.—AP Products, Incorporated, 9325 Progress Parkway, PO Box 540, Mentor, OH 44060.

GRAPHIC EQUALIZER, model CY-SG60, is a 7-band graphic equalizer/booster amplifier, and measures 1 inch in height. Combined with most Panasonic compact chassis car-audio units, it fits snugly into the dashboards of many cars that are manufactured in the U.S.A.

Dual inputs allow the model CY-SG60 to be connected to car-audio units with pre-amp output, or to units with speaker output only. A total maximum output power of 50 watts, and THD of less than 1% at 12 watts per channel helps ensure clear sound at high volume levels. A tone defeat/attenuator switch reduces volume by 20 dB to mute sound output without changing volume-control settings. The
Connect an oscilloscope to either the TTL or the CMOS clock output. Set S1 to FREE RUN, and verify that R1 and S3 vary the clock speed as expected. Toggle switch S8 should invert the output. Next connect the scope to one of the pulse outputs. With S2 in the DIRECT position, R6 and S6 should vary the width of the pulses, and S5 their polarity. R1 and S3 vary their repetition rate, of course.

With S2 in the EXT. TRIGGER position, each low-to-high transition on jack 16 should cause a pulse of the selected width and polarity to appear at jacks 12 and 13. Similarly, with S2 in the one-shot position, each time S7 is depressed a pulse of the selected width and polarity should appear at those jacks.

Practical applications

Our pulse generator may be used to troubleshoot or test already-existing equipment: it may be used to aid the design of new equipment, and it may also be used for experimental and educational purposes.

For example, the pulse generator could be used to troubleshoot a high-speed clocked-logic system that seemed to be missing pulses and giving erroneous outputs. You could disconnect the system clock from the piece of equipment under test, and then substitute the pulse generator's clock output. Then, by running that device at a slower rate—perhaps one pulse at a time—you would find it easier to trace a signal through the system. That sort of procedure will always work: NMOS microprocessors, for example, often cannot be run below about 250 kHz. But you can usually slow things down enough to be able to see what's going on better than at the full clock rate.

You can use the pulse generator to experiment with shift registers and counters. Wire up your circuit on a solderless breadboard and single-step through all logic states.

For example, suppose you have a circuit built around a 4018 presettable divide-by-n counter. That IC has five "jam" inputs and five (complemented) data output. The outputs may be recycled, in various combinations, to the IC's data input, allowing division of the input clock by any ratio between two and ten. The only hitch is that division by an odd ratio (three, five, seven, or nine) requires use of an external and gate.

Anyway, suppose your design requires outputs that cycle from four to nine and then reset (i.e. start counting from four again). You have wired the circuit up, but there is a bug: the circuit counts from four to eight and then resets. Feeding the pulse generator's output to the 4018's clock input and monitoring the IC's outputs, you discover that you have forgotten to AND the 16 and 15 outputs.

To synchronize pulse output with an external clock, connect the clock to J6 and place S2 in the EXT. TRIGGER position. If you need one output pulse for a predetermined number of clock pulses, simply insert a divider IC between the clock source and J6. The 4059 is a programmable divide-by-N counter which can be used for that purpose. That IC can divide the frequency of the clock fed to it by any ratio between three and 15,999. If your work involves much of that sort of thing, there is room on the PC board to mount several extra IC's. You would then mount appropriate division-ratio selection switches on the front panel.

The example circuit uses the 4029B up/down binary/BCD counter. Since that is the most flexible type available, it is also the counter capable of counting up or down, but it can count in either straight binary or BCD formats. In addition, it is presettable and cascadable. If the alternate counting format is not needed, the similar 4510 or 4516B binary counters can be used.

Whenever of the three counters is used, a single device will give a total of 10 or 16 steps. All three types can be cascaded to a second counter, giving 100 or 256 steps. One continuous command should be used to step the counter up, and a second to step it down. Gating could be added to prevent over- and under-flow by disabling the up enable when the maximum count is reached, and disabling the down enable when the all-zero state is reached.

That type of decoder could be used in a number of ways. The most flexible of which is to interface its outputs with a resistor string or an IC digital-to-analog converter to obtain an analog voltage output. A series of optocouplers and such a resistor string could be used in standard D/A format to replace a potentiometer on the controlled device.

The data port has been left out of this discussion. Since it is meant primarily to carry channel numbers, tuning frequencies, and other numerical data. However, if the controller is converted to single-digit operation, another BCD or hex 1-often line decoder could be added via that port, giving 20 or 32 separate enable lines.

There are a number of methods that can be used to interface the CMOS outputs of the various decoders to the controlled device, let's examine some of those next. If the device is digital and uses a matching 5-volt supply, often the outputs can be directly connected. However, if more current is needed, power drivers such as transistors must be added to the CMOS outputs. If different voltages are used in the controlled device, either power driver IC's or optocouplers must be used. Light-duty reed relays can be used without special driver circuitry.

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## CRT Controllers

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## CRT Oscillators

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## Clock Circuits

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## Vaccuum Tubes

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## MISC.

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- Interface drop to four standard 5¼ floppy drives
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- DIRECT CONNECT
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