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September 1983

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universal VDU

auto test meter

personal FM

## video graphics ..... 9-18

This article is a complement to the VDU card published in this issue. It gives the background information on how an image is formed on a TV screen and how a video card, in particular, works.

## autotest ..... 9-22

While a multimeter is essential equipment for anybody involved in electronics, it is out of its depth when confronted with a normal car. What is needed in this case is something a bit special, with good voltage, current and resistance ranges and able to measure RPM and dwell angle as well.

## 64 k on the 16 k Dynamic RAM card ..... 9-29

Computer users who already have the Elektor 16 k Dynamic RAM card published in April 1982 can now update it by fitting 64 k chips in place of the existing 16 k ICs.

## high-speed CMOS ..... 9-32

A new family of logic circuits, high-speed CMOS, is now becoming available in your local electronics shop. This exciting new technology will provide a full range of circuits which are pin-compatible with many LSTTL devices, and have the speed of LSTTL, but the high immunity to input noise and low-power consumption of CMOS.

## VDU card ..... 9-38

This card is basically an interface between a computer and a cathode ray tube. It receives a signal from the computer indicating what the computer wants to display on the screen and converts it into a video signal. This is fed to the cathode ray tube which then displays the appropriate letters, numbers or graphics symbols.

## personal FM ..... 9-46

Not so long ago the 'in' thing in radios was the matchbox-sized radio, or the watch radio, but these left a lot to be desired as regards reception and sound quality. However, it is perfectly feasible to make a good quality FM receiver that is still small enough to be easily carried in a pocket.

## precision voltage divider ..... 9-50

Or — 'How to get high-stab resistances without high-stab headaches!'

## alarm extension ..... 9-51

The mains wiring of a house can be used as a medium through which signals can be transmitted. All that is required is to plug a transmitter into one socket and a receiver into another socket and if the telephone, for example, rings you can hear it wherever the receiver is plugged in.

## Junior Synthesizer ..... 9-56

Music and computers may seem to be poles apart and combining the two is surely better left to those who have the time and resources for this sort of 'playing'. In fact it is not at all difficult to make a computer play music! All you need is a Junior Computer and a loudspeaker.

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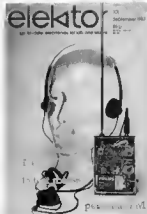
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This month's front cover shows the prototype of our 'Personal FM'. Even though it is true that 'a picture paints a thousand words', the sound quality from such a small radio has to be heard to be believed. Incidentally, the 'head' is not one of our designers. Elektor designers have more inside their heads than this (we hope).

*S. M. ...*  
*5.93*

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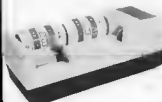
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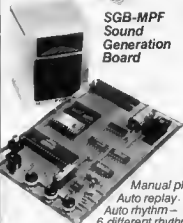
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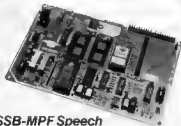
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While researching the background for the VDU (Video Display Unit) card published elsewhere in this issue it occurred to us that it might not be a bad idea to look at how all those characters appear on the screen. In other words, how is the image of the characters built up and what does a video card do exactly? That is what we will try to clarify in this article and even if you have no intension of building a VDU card, it is still an interesting subject.

# VIDEO GRAPHICS

## how does a video card work?

A video display unit is used to show on a screen all the various letters, numbers and signs that are produced by a computer. But it is more than just some sort of television set! It also includes the necessary electronics to convert the desired characters into video signals so that the monitor can work with them. However we will first look at how a monitor (or a TV set) builds up its image from the video signals it receives.

### How the image is built up

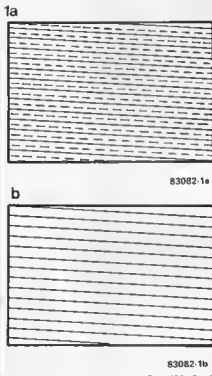
A monitor (as a display screen used with a computer is generally called) is really only a 'stripped down' television set. Or if you prefer: a TV set is an expanded version of a monitor! The monitor only contains the display tube and the necessary driver electronics and it is supplied with an actual video signal. The bandwidth of a monitor is much wider than that of an ordinary TV set. Typically a good monitor has a bandwidth of 20 MHz, while the TV only has 5.5 MHz (this is the limit of the transmitter bandwidth). The reason why such a large bandwidth is necessary is a subject to

which we will return later. In television the video signal is modulated onto a carrier wave, so that a receiver and decoder section are also needed to regain the pure video signal from the received signal.

The principles of how a television builds up an image on its screen have been dealt with in detail before in Elektor (September 1977, p. 9-33) so there is not really any need to go into the nitty-gritty here. However, there is no harm in running through the major points again. An image is built up of 625 lines at a frequency of 25 Hz (25 images per second). This frequency is high enough to prevent the human eye from detecting any annoying flicker. Each image is divided into two parts, each of which consists of 312½ lines, called rasters. One raster consists of all the uneven lines, the other has all the even lines. These moving images on the rasters then appear as one static image with no flickering. This technique is known as interlacing and its principle is shown in figure 1a. As the diagram shows, one raster begins with a half line and the other raster ends with a half line. By ending with a half line, the raster synchronization pulses come a whole number of times the line period (the time taken to scan one complete line on the screen) after the last line synchronization pulse, whereas otherwise the raster synchronization pulses appear one half of a line period later (see figure 2). That difference of a half line defines at what height the electron beam starts writing the next line after the fly-back. Because a half line period corresponds exactly to the height of a half line on the screen the result is that the lines of the two rasters appear precisely between each other.

That is the system used in television, but if we have a static image (such as a screen full of numbers) then these two interlaced rasters cause an annoying 'jumping' effect and this is something to be avoided in monitors for computer systems! However, there is a trick to prevent this effect from occurring. We have more than enough lines on the screen so we simply use half of the total number of lines and write the same raster on the cathode ray tube 50 times per second. That can quite easily be achieved with 'software' by ensuring that the raster synchronization pulses always appear at the same interval after the last line synchronization pulse. This is called a non-interlaced image and is possible with a normal TV set or with a monitor and this is the

Figure 1. To build up the image in a normal TV set, interlacing is used. This means that two interwoven rasters are written on the screen one after the other. This is shown in figure 1a. Figure 1b shows the non-interlaced image whereby the same raster is written 50 times per second. This gives a flicker-free image for use with a monitor.



2

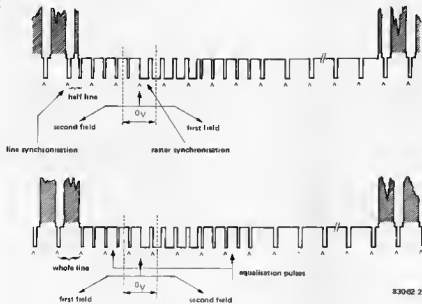


Figure 2. The beginning and ending of a video signal (the so-called raster blanking). Figure a shows the ending of the first raster (it ends with a half line) and figure b shows the ending of the second raster.

3

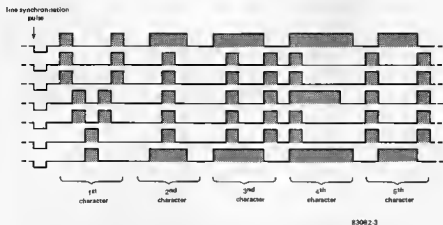


Figure 3. This illustrates how the characters are built up on the screen. It shows seven consecutive video lines with the points where the cathode ray tube must light modulated on them. By putting the lines close under one another and shading the modulations we can quickly see what the word is.

method generally used to produce a flicker-free image (figure 1b). For each character a matrix of dots is used,  $5 \times 7$  or  $7 \times 9$  are commonly used. Writing a line of letters or numbers on the screen is achieved as shown in figure 3. One row of dots at a time is written for the whole row of characters. So with a  $5 \times 7$  matrix, 7 image lines are needed to write one row of characters. In figure 3 we show a number of these video signals with the modulation needed to write the word shown. Each pulse after the line synchronisation pulse means that the electron beam is then lit on the screen. For clarity the pulses are shaded and the lines drawn close together to show how a character is put together. As this diagram shows, the word 'VIDEO' would appear on the screen. The VDU card does not use a  $5 \times 7$  matrix, but  $5 \times 8$  dots. The advantage of this extra line at the bottom is that we can make the lower case letters more accurately. An empty line is drawn between

every two lines of characters on the screen so that the characters are separated from each other. Therefore there are actually 9 image lines per line of characters. The VDU card normally puts  $24 \times 80$  characters on the screen, but that is not to say that  $216 (= 24 \times 9)$  lines are all that are needed as in that case the first line would be right at the top of the screen. We also need some room at the side of the screen to prevent any of the characters from being lost here. So what we want in fact is a rectangular piece in the centre of the screen where all the characters will appear. Figure 4 shows how this appears on the screen. A total of 297 lines (33 character lines) and 128 characters can be written on the screen. Therefore we use a space of 216 lines of 80 characters in the centre. The small part of the diagram magnified shows how the VDU card builds up an actual character. We then have a  $5 \times 8$  matrix for the characters, a space of



three dots between characters and an empty image line between each line of characters. At this stage we can look at why the bandwidth of a monitor has to be more than the 5.5 MHz of a normal TV set. In a normal television the line period is  $64 \mu\text{s}$ . Practically none of this time is lost in the electronics because it is compensated for. The duration of each dot of the 80 characters in a line is  $64 \mu\text{s}/128$  (the theoretical number of characters per line)  $\times 8$  (5 dots per character plus 3 spaces) =  $62.5 \text{ ns}$ . The time for the synchronization pulse is included in the 128 theoretical characters. The highest frequency that could occur is if the pattern is black-white-black-white... in which case the frequency will be  $1/(2 \times 62.5) = 8 \text{ MHz}$ . And that is without even considering the sharpness of the black and white points. This means that for a normal TV set the

quality of the characters in an  $80 \times 24$  matrix is not very good. So we must either use a smaller number of characters per line or a TV set with a proper video input. If we used 40 characters per line, for example, only about half the previous bandwidth would be needed.

Another screen display that is often desirable is graphics symbols. The Elektor VDU card uses special graphics characters on an  $8 \times 8$  matrix whereby the symbols appear directly one after another horizontally. Vertically they can also 'run into' (or 'run into') each other because the blank line is omitted and simply moved to the bottom of the screen so that the total number of lines remains the same.

### How does a VDU card work?

First we will have to see how the VDU

Figure 4a. The image build up in the Elektor VDU card. A maximum of 24 lines of 80 characters can be written. The margins contain no information. The small part seen magnified shows the matrix form used for the characters ( $5 \times 8$  matrix with one blank line for separation of the lines of characters).

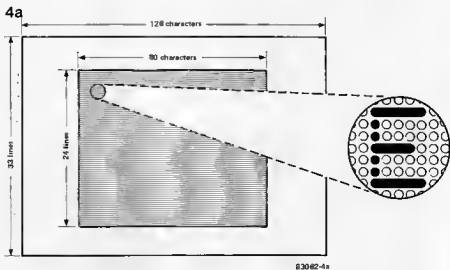
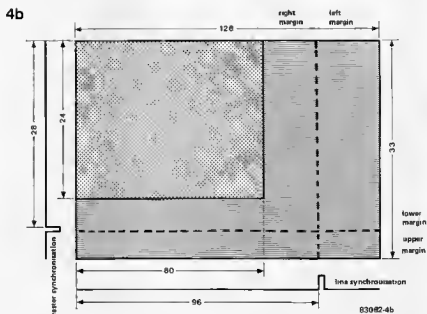


Figure 4b. This is how the CRT card sees the screen build up. The part to be written is in the upper left hand corner while the rest of the image space is to the bottom and right of it.



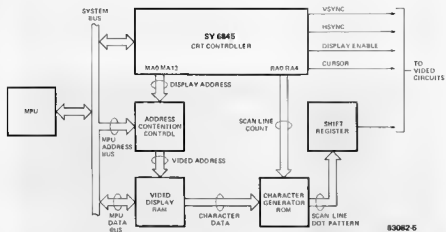


Figure 5. Block diagram of the VDU card. The most important parts are the controller (CRTC), the video RAM and the character ROM.

card builds up an image because it is not exactly the same as is shown in figure 4a. Figure 4b is somewhat different and shows what space the 80 x 24 characters occupy in the total memory field of the card. The actual written part is at the start, while all the empty space is to the right and to the end. However, we want empty margins all round the edges of the screen and this is achieved by stating in the memory field where the horizontal and vertical synchronization pulses should occur. This means in fact that the very bottom part of the address range actually appears at the top of the screen because the monitor starts writing from the top of the screen again after the raster synchronization pulse. The same is true of the margins at the left and right of the screen but in this case they depend on the line synchronization pulse.

All the 'digital traffic' is controlled by the CRTC (Cathode Ray Tube Controller) on the video card. This IC has the following tasks:

- locating the address of the character which must be written on the screen
- converting that character into the relevant dot matrix.
- producing the horizontal and vertical synchronization pulses at the right times
- sending the matrix points of one line to the video input of the monitor.

Horizontal and vertical synchronization pulses can also be combined, as in the Elektor VDU card, to form a 'composite video' signal.

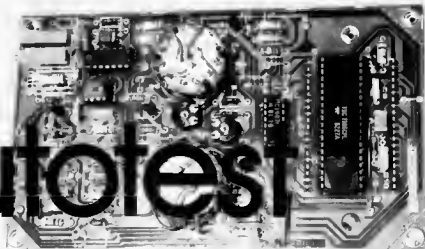
The controller also has some other functions such as choosing the desired point matrix, the number of characters per line and the number of lines per image, the choice of interlaced or non-interlaced image and so on. It also drives the cursor which is visible on the screen and controls the connection for a light pen, which is

an 'option' on the VDU card.

The block diagram of figure 5 shows the main parts of the VDU card. Apart from the multi-function CRTC it also contains a video RAM and a character ROM. The video RAM stores all the characters which must be written on the screen. If 80 x 24 characters must be written on the screen then 1920 (= 80 x 24) memory locations are needed so a 2 K RAM is used. The ROM contains information on the dot build-up of each character, including the graphics symbols. The CRTC controls communication between the video card and the rest of the computer system via the address and data buses (they are actually combined to form the system bus). Data that must appear on the screen is read by the controller and then placed in the appropriate memory location in the video RAM. To read out the data in the RAM the CRTC runs through the whole address range of the memory so that the 80 characters of a line are read out one after another. The data now goes to the character ROM and here the dot pattern for these characters is located. Referring back to figure 3 we see that a character is written on eight lines. In the case of the Elektor VDU card each series of 80 characters is read out 8 times, and each time the dot pattern for a single image line is read. All the dots for this line then go to a shift register and they are then output in serial form. When this is combined with the synchronization signal provided by the CRTC the result is a complete video signal.

This article was merely intended to be a brief description of the operation of a VDU card and monitor. We have referred in particular to the Elektor VDU card as published in this issue but most other systems operate in much the same way. However we hope that any questions about this subject have now been cleared up, so now you know what to expect when you build your own!

Our essential friend, the multimeter, is rather out of its depth when confronted with the internal combustion engine. Here a rugged, easy to use, instrument with 'no moving parts' is needed. The Autotest meets these requirements as well as adding a few 'extras' that are seldom found on the average multimeter. A high-current range combined with the ability to read RPM and dwell angles are not only useful but necessary when servicing auto electrics.



# autotest

electronic  
servicing  
instrument  
for cars

Of necessity, today's motorist is extremely economy conscious and is therefore more likely to attempt car repairs that were previously the domain of the 'expert'. However, this often leads to the need for specialized equipment, even in the 'electrical' department. Of course, our multimeter will take care of this... but will it? In practice, the ordinary multimeter is not really at home with the internal combustion engine for a number of reasons.

- The average multimeter has far too many ranges, not in itself a problem but it can be difficult to operate (especially with greasy hands).
- The current range of a multimeter invariably stops at 1 amp. The fact that even a car parking light draws almost 2 amps renders our sophisticated multimeter rather useless as soon as a bonnet is opened.
- A good usable low-resistance range is not usually a feature of multimeters. The normal, cramped scale leaves a lot to be desired when looking for corroded bulb holders.
- Robusticity! Or to put it another way, how would your £50 - £100 multimeter

fare when propped somewhere under the bonnet while attempting to read the output of a voltage regulator of an engine running at 3000 RPM?

■ ... and while on the subject of RPM...

but no, your meter can't read that, can it! How about dwell angles...

By now it will be apparent that a test meter for use on cars is a rather special beast, so much so, that those used by the 'experts' can be very expensive. The Elektor Autotest has been designed to take over the job that our multimeter was never intended to do. As a glance at table 1 will show, it manages this with comparative ease. The 'robusticity factor' is also very high due mainly to the use of a printed circuit board and a liquid crystal display.

### The Autotest ranges

Most of the work in the circuit (shown in figure 1) is carried out by a 7106, a 3½ digit A to D converter from Intersil. This IC is capable of directly driving the liquid crystal display and includes its own clock oscillator and internal reference source.

The Autotest has been designed to be as simple to use as possible and, for this reason, some terminals have more than one function. In practice, this is an ideal situation.

### The resistance range

When measuring resistance, connect the test leads between the COM and R terminals and switch S1 to position A. A constant current, generated by transistors T4 and T5, is derived from the reference voltage which appears between pins 32 and 1 of the 7106 (IC3). The constant current is fed to the R terminal and is passed through the resistance to be measured. The consequent voltage

Table 1  
The Autotest ranges

	maximum range	resolution
current	20 A	10 mA
voltage	20 V	10 mV
	200 V	100 mV
resistance	200 Ω	0.1 Ω
	20 kΩ	10 Ω
RPM	7000 RPM	10 RPM
dwell	90°	0.1°

drop across the resistor is then measured and the reading will correspond to the value of the resistor.

The constant-current level can be switched to one of two values by S2 to cater for the two different resistance ranges. With switch S2 in position A the current will be 10  $\mu$ A (determined by R20 and P4), in position B it will be 1 mA (R21 and P5). Fuse F1 protects the circuit against a voltage being inadvertently applied between the COM and R terminals. If this occurs, only the fuse will blow and no damage will be caused to any other components.

#### The voltage range

To measure voltage, connect the test leads between terminals COM and +. The voltage reading is derived from the voltage divider network consisting of resistors R1...R5 (R31 has negligible effect) with switch S1 in position B. Again, two ranges are provided, 20 V and 200 V, by switch S2.

#### Current range

For the current range, connect the leads between terminals COM and 20 A. Only the one 20 A range is provided: this will be sufficient to cater for virtually all applications in car electrics. The current reading is derived from the voltage drop across the

20 A shunt resistor R31. Where do we get a 20 A shunt from?

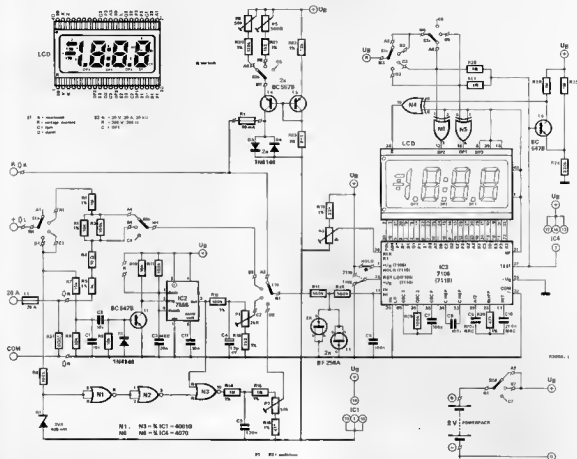
A shunt resistor which will handle 20 A for the current range can be an expensive item. However, since extreme accuracy is not so important to us in this instance, a suitable shunt can be manufactured quite easily. Copper wire with a diameter of 1.5 mm has a resistance of 1.01  $\Omega$  per 100 metres. For the 0.01  $\Omega$  we require for a 20 A current range, a length of 99 cms will therefore be needed. To ensure complete accuracy a 1.2 m length of wire can be taken and a current of 1 A passed through it. With an accurate voltmeter find the length of wire which gives exactly 0.01 volts dropped between the two meter leads. Allow about 1 cm more at each end for soldering and then wind the wire into a coil and connect it as shown in figure 2. The coil diameter is not important provided it is of a suitable size to fit into the space allocated to it. The leads going to the meter circuit must be connected directly to the shunt coil itself (there must be exactly the measured length between the connections to N and M) because otherwise inaccuracy will result as the contact resistance will also be measured.

This then provides us with a very economical 20 A shunt but it is not without a disadvantage. A current of 20 A across a 0.01  $\Omega$

Autotest  
elktor september 1983

Figure 1. The relative simplicity of the circuit for the Autotest is mainly due to the fact that most of the work is carried out by the A/D converter, IC3.

1



'resistor' will produce a power dissipation of the order of about 4 watts. The shunt coil will then be the equivalent of a 4 W electric fire! The temperature rise itself is not so much of a problem if adequate ventilation is provided but, as the shunt warms up, its resistance will increase. This is definitely not a desirable feature, even on a very cold day! Unfortunately, there is no real answer to this problem without the expense that we are trying to avoid. However, if readings are taken as quickly as possible (in about two or three seconds for example), a reasonable accuracy can be expected. Of course, lower current readings will be less affected. It is worth noting that resistance wire could be used in place of copper wire although it is quite expensive and not very freely available. However its temperature coefficient is about fifty times better! The length will of course have to be recalculated.

It is not advisable to reduce the length of the shunt coil in an attempt to increase the current range of the Autotest. The temperature rise will be significantly faster and it will be very difficult to achieve an accurate current reading.

#### RPM measurement

The contact breaker points in the ignition system of the car are the source of the signal used for RPM measurements in the Autotest. The circuit is connected to the car as shown in figure 3. The COM lead can of course be connected anywhere on the chassis of the car.

Figure 4 shows the waveform produced by the cb points. When the cb points open, a positive pulse is passed to the input of the Autotest and, via R7...T1, triggers the monostable multivibrator (IC2). The output of this IC will be a square wave with a constant pulse width of 3.9 ms. The pulse frequency will be that of the cb points opening. This waveform is integrated with the result that the charge level on capacitor

C4 will be directly proportional to the frequency of operation of the cb points, and therefore, the engine speed. The voltage across C4 is read and displayed as RPM. Preset P1 is included for calibration purposes and will be discussed later.

A distinct advantage of this principle is that the configuration of the engine (4 or 6 cylinder) under test is of little concern. The circuit can cater for all types by selecting the value of R13 and calibrating P1 (see 'Calibration').

#### Dwell angle measurement

At this point, it may be as well to clarify exactly what 'dwell angle' is. It is common knowledge that the firing of the spark plugs in an internal combustion engine is controlled by the contact breaker points in the ignition system. For maximum efficiency, it is important not only that the cb points open at the correct instant, but also that they are closed for the correct period of time. This is determined by the cb cam profile and - accurate setting of the cb points! In exact terms, the dwell angle is the angle through which the contact breaker cam rotates while the points are closed. It will be obvious then that the dwell angle will alter if the cb points are either badly set or worn. Thus the dwell range of the Autotest will be able to tell a few tales on the condition of the cb points!

The circuit for the dwell range shares the same input terminal (and most of the components) with the RPM range. However, there is an added problem with the signal waveform from the cb points. In contrast to the RPM range, we need to know when the points close in order to derive the dwell angle. Therefore the cb waveform must be debounced and inverted.

After being voltage-limited by R6 and D1, the cb signal is inverted by gates N1...N3, while for debouncing the circuit for the RPM range is used. The function of the dwell circuit is better explained by the use of the timing waveforms of figure 5. The upper waveform is the signal which can be expected from the cb points, complete with 'ringing'. The second waveform shows that the overshoot has been removed (by D1, N1 and N2) by the time the signal reaches the output of gate N2. The 7555 monostable (IC2) is triggered on the positive going edge and provides a clean square-wave output with a pulse width of 3.9 ms. This is then combined with the output of N2 to produce a final, debounced, inverted signal at the output of N3.

After integration, the voltage across capacitor C5 will correspond to the dwell angle. This is then read by the 7106 and, when calibrated by P2, provides a direct reading of the dwell angle. A voltage level of 50 mV at the wiper of P2 will produce a reading of 50.0 (degrees).

#### The A/D converter and display

A few points of note about the 7106 A/D converter. For full scale indication on the display, an input voltage level of 200 mV



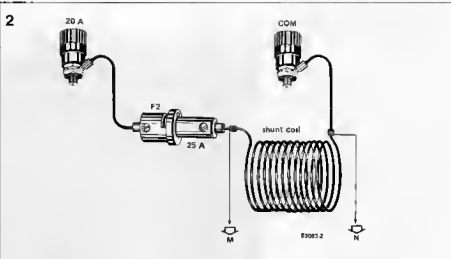


Figure 2. The accuracy of the current range depends to a large extent on how carefully the 20 A shunt is constructed.

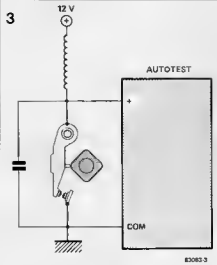


Figure 3. The 'circuit diagram' of the primary ignition system consists of the contact breaker points, the coil and a capacitor.

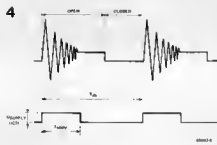


Figure 4. The waveform which can be expected from the contact breaker circuit. Much needs to be done to it before it can be used.

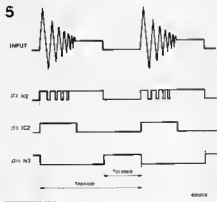


Figure 5. The timing waveforms of the dwell circuit of the Autotest.

will be required between pins 30 and 31 from the 7106. Transistor T6 and gate N4 provide an indication on the display when the supply voltage becomes low enough for the battery to need replacing. As current consumption of the circuit is only of the order of 1.5 . . . 2.5 mA, the battery should have a fairly long life. The car battery MUST NOT be used as a power supply for the circuit as this will cause a short to occur between COM and I.

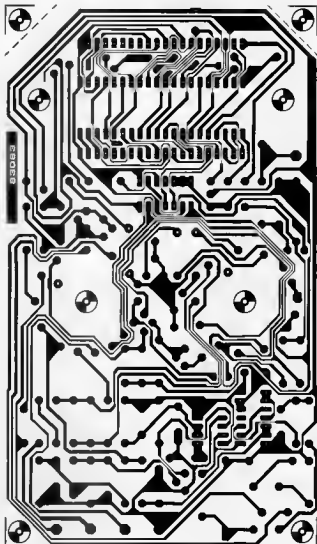
The 7116 can be used in place of the 7106 as IC3. However, there are minor differences between them. The 7116 has been provided with a 'HOLD' input at pin 1. If this is to be utilised, the wire link on the printed circuit board can be replaced by a switch to enable the display to be 'frozen'. It must be emphasised that this only applies to the 7116 since pin 1 on the 7106 is the +U<sub>B</sub> supply pin and the wire link must be fitted. A second link is used to adapt the circuit to the 7106 or 7116 depending on which is used.

The two FETs, T2 and T3, are used as very-low-leakage diodes and, together with R17 and R18, protect the input against high voltage levels which may cause damage to the IC.

The position of the decimal point on the liquid crystal display is determined by switches S1c, S2c and gates N5 and N6.

### Construction of the Autotest

Virtually all of the components (excluding the shunt) are mounted on the printed circuit board shown in figure 6: construction therefore should not pose any problems. The liquid crystal display is mounted on the track side of the printed circuit board with pin 1 of the display towards P3. It is strongly advised that open socket strips are used for mounting the display. The internal wiring of the Autotest is illustrated in figure 7. To provide some measure of shielding from possible interference, due to static or the ignition system, the interior of the case (if it is plastic) can be lined with aluminium foil. This must then be connected to point N on the printed circuit board (not to I or OV). Take particular care to ensure that the foil



#### Parts list

##### Resistors:

- R1, R14, R15 = 1 M  $\Omega$
- R2 = 10 k  $\Omega$
- R3, R6, R29 = 100 k
- R4 = 10  $\Omega$
- R5 = 1 k  $\Omega$
- R7 = 15 k
- R8... R10 = 10 k
- R11, R12 = 100 k  $\Omega$
- R13 = 2k2 1% (2k21)
- R16, R30 = 47 k  $\Omega$  (47k5)
- R17, R18 = 560 k
- R19 = 22 k 1% (22k1)
- R20 = 120 k 1% (121 k)
- R21 = 1k2 1% (1k21)
- R22 = 15 k  $\Omega$
- R23 = 8k2 1% (8k25)
- R24 = 220 k
- R25... R28 = 1 M
- R31 = 0,01  $\Omega$  see text
- P1 = 2k5 ten turn preset
- P2 = 50 k ten turn preset
- P3 = 1 k ten turn preset
- P4 = 50 k preset
- P5 = 500  $\Omega$  preset

##### Capacitors

- C1, C2, C11 = 10 n
- C3 = 39 n (MKC)
- C4 = 22  $\mu$ /4 V
- C5 = 220 n
- C6, C8 = 100 n
- C7 = 100 p
- C9 = 470 n (MKC)
- C10 = 220 n (MKC)

##### Semiconductors:

- D1 = 3V3/400 mW zener diode
- D2... D4 = 1N414B
- T1, T6 = BC 547B
- T2, T3 = BF 256A
- T4, T5 = BC 557B
- IC1 = 4001B
- IC2 = 7655
- IC3 = 7106 (7116)
- IC4 = 4070

##### Miscellaneous:

- F1 = 50 mA fuse
- F2 = 25 A auto fuse
- LCD = liquid crystal display NDP 530-035A-S: RF-PC (Norsmei: 0734-884588)
- 1.5 mm diameter copper wire
- Metal case: Bimbox 5006-16 from Boss Industrial Mouldings LTD (Tel. 80638/716 101)
- Plastic case: Bimbox 2006-16

does not cause any shorts to the printed circuit board or the internal wiring. If a metal case is used, it should be connected to point N directly.

The printed circuit board fits, for instance, in the Bimbox 2006-16 (5006-16 metal), from Boss Industrial Mouldings Ltd. The BOC 450 case from West Hyde can also be used with very minor modifications to two mounting holes of the board. The switches are mounted and secured through the holes provided in the middle of the printed circuit board.

#### Calibration

For the initial calibration, switch S1 should be placed in position B, S2 in position A, and resistor R1 must be short-circuited with a wire link. Apply a reference dc voltage of

150 mV between + and COM. Preset P3 is then adjusted to give a reading on the display of 150.0.

The link across R1 can now be removed and both switches S1 and S2 placed in position A. A resistor with a known value (about 10 k $\Omega$ ) is then connected between the COM and R terminals. Preset P4 is adjusted to give a reading that corresponds to the value of the resistor. For example, if the resistor used has a value of 10 k $\Omega$ , the reading will be 10.00. A similar calibration is carried out with a 100  $\Omega$ . In this case, S2 will be in position B and preset P5 is adjusted to provide a reading of 100.0.

The next step involves calibration of the dwell range. With the input terminals of the Autotest open-circuited, and switch S1 in position D (the position of S2 is immaterial),

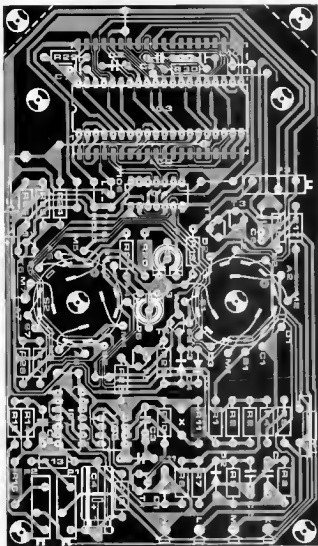


Figure 6. All the components for the Autotest (with the exception of the 20 A shunt) are mounted on the printed circuit board. The liquid crystal display is mounted on the track side of the board. It is recommended that open in-line sockets are used for this purpose.

adjust P2 to display a reading of 90.00. This corresponds to a dwell angle of 90 degrees.

Finally, for the RPM range, the small auxiliary calibration circuit of figure 8 will be required. This circuit generates a pulse waveform with a frequency of 100 Hz, which, for our purposes, corresponds to an engine speed of 3000 RPM for a four cylinder four stroke engine. Connect the generator between the + and COM terminals and adjust P1 to give a reading on the display of 3.00 (RPM = reading x 1000).

The dwell range can be used for engine speeds up to a maximum of 3000 RPM with the circuit as it is. However, if it is thought necessary to measure the dwell angle at higher engine speeds, this can be accomplished with a minor modification

to the circuit. A switch in series with a 100 k $\Omega$  resistor can be connected across the points marked 'X' in the circuit diagram (left of R10). In practice, this is not usually necessary since it is adequate for most purposes for dwell measurements to be made at lower engine speeds. Although higher engine speeds will show a defective spring on the contact breaker points, it will be very difficult to reach firm conclusions because the automatic advance/retard mechanism may cause an, apparently, unstable reading. This problem can be aggravated by faults in the valve timing, carburettor or even the closed circuit breathing system if it is fitted. At low speeds, however, experience will soon show whether the points are correctly set or need adjustment. It must be noted that the dwell angle for a specific engine is determined by



7

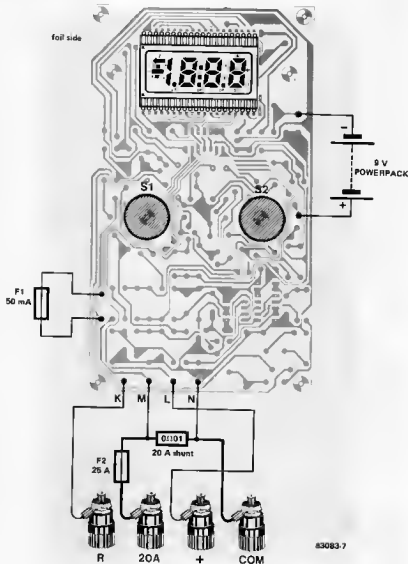


Figure 7. The internal wiring of the Autotest is illustrated here. Refer to the text and figure 2 for details of wiring the shunt coil.

83083.7

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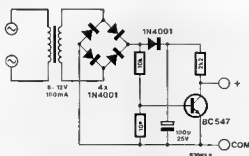


Figure 8. This small auxiliary test circuit is used for calibrating the RPM range. It can be constructed on a small piece of Vero board.

the manufacturer and can be found in the manual for the vehicle in question. It is not normally possible (or necessary) to 'improve' it.

The Autotest is now fully calibrated but,

not all engines are 4 cylinder! For other engine configurations a different value for R13 will have to be found. This will not be a problem since a value of  $1k5\Omega$  will provide an adjustment range of between 16 mV and 42 mV at the wiper of P1. Calibration for all engine configurations (with the possible exception of 9 cylinder 7 stroke engines) can be carried out using the same calibration test circuit of figure 8. For a 5 cylinder/4 stroke engine, 100 Hz will be equal to 2400 RPM and P1 should be adjusted for a reading of 2.40. With a 6 cylinder engine, 100 Hz will correspond to 2000 RPM and a reading of 2.00. The values of  $1k5\Omega$  for R13 and  $1k\Omega$  for P1 (an adjustment range of 16 mV to 26 mV) will cater for both these engines. The Autotest can be used on both positive and negative earth vehicles. However, for positive earth, the polarity of the leads will have to be reversed.

It has been more than a year since we published the dynamic RAM card (April 1982, Elektor No. 84), but it is proving to be very popular. Many readers have asked about the possibility of replacing the eight 16 k memory ICs with 64 k chips. Many people suggested how this could be done and all these ideas prompted us to investigate the feasibility. What we came up with is a sort of check list of modifications, which you can tick as you go along.

# 64 k on the 16 k Dynamic RAM card

524 288 bits =  
(8 x 64 k) -  
(8 x 16 k)

We have often thought that we are rather fortunate since electronic components are one of the very few commodities that actually decrease in price. This is currently the situation with the 64 k dynamic RAM ICs, which are also, incidentally, becoming more readily available from a number of different sources. Considering the fact that the majority of 4164s (the first two digits vary from manufacturer to manufacturer) require only a single 5 volt supply, the dynamic RAM card could use 64 k RAMs. Some of the advantages to be gained are, more 'bits per pound', the connectors on the bus card can still be used (an 8 x 64 k

card is enough for all the memory space addressable by an 8 bit microprocessor) and the current consumption will be less. The only drawback is the need for 'surgery' to the existing circuitry. Basically, to quadruple the capacity of the memory card all that is needed is to cut a few tracks and make a few new connections.

## Deletions

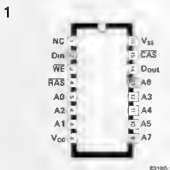
Rather than leave anything to chance we have drawn up a list of everything that has to be done, starting with 'demolition' and finishing with 'reconstruction'. All modifications are shown in figures 2 and 3 which are the circuit diagram and printed circuit board layout respectively.

- Remove IC11 ... 19 from their sockets.
  - Take out capacitors C3, C12 ... C15, C19 and C20.
  - Remove the strap parallel to IC9. We mean the first strap to the right, between the IC and the connector. It connects pin 9 of the 4116s to +5 V.
  - Cut the tracks joining:
    - pin 2 of IC4 (N18) to ground
    - pin 2 of IC5 (N19) to ground (remember to remake the connection to ground that this breaks)
    - pin 8 of IC12 ... 19 to +12 V
    - pin 1 of IC12 ... 19 to -5 V
    - pin 6 of IC7 (N29) to pin 5 of IC2 (N47)
    - pin 5 of IC2 to pin 10 of IC8 (N31)
    - pin 2 of IC10 to ground
    - pin 3 of IC10 to ground
    - pin 2 of IC10 to pin 3 of IC10.
- Check the breaks with a (lack of !) continuity tester.

## New connections

The next stage consists of making connections between

Figure 1. This is the pin designation for a 4164 dynamic RAM IC. Comparison with a 4116 shows that they are pin compatible except for pins 1, 8 and 9: an extra address line is added (A7) and the -5 V and +12 V supplies are removed.



from an idea by  
K. D. Lorig

A0 A7	Address Inputs
CAS	Column Address Strobe
Din	Data In
Dout	Data Out
RAS	Row Address Strobe
WE	Read/Writes Input
Vcc	Power (+5 V)
Vss	Ground

Figure 2. Most of the circuit diagram for the 16 k card remains the same. The modifications consist of adding two address lines (A14 and A15) to enable all of the memory to be addressed, and replacing the address decoder (74154) by its counterpart with open collector outputs, which may be shorted together.

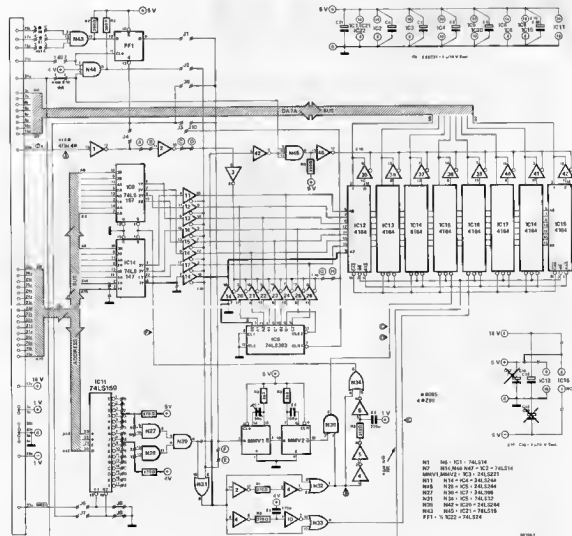
- pin 8 of IC12 . . . 19 and pins 1a/1c of the connector (+5 volt supply)
  - pin 6 of IC7 (N29) and pin 10 of IC8 (N31)
  - pin 8 of IC8 (N31) and pin 5 of IC2 (N47)
  - pin 8 of IC6 and pin 2 of IC5 (N19)
  - pin 4 of IC10 and pin 2 of IC4 (N18)
  - pin 2 of IC10 and pin 19c of the connector (A14)
  - pin 3 of IC10 and pin 19a of the connector (A15)
  - pin 18 of IC4, pin 18 of IC5 and pin 9 of IC12 . . . 19 (A7)
  - pin 9 and pin 10 of IC7 (V-W)
  - pin 12 and pin 13 of IC7 (X-Y)
- Except for decoding the desired addresses the output pins of the address decoder IC11

leave in two groups, one connected to the V/W input of IC7 and the other to the X/Y input and each is connected to the high logic line via a 470 Ω resistor. If it is decoded as indicated in the diagram the card will be addressed between 30000 and 3BFFF without interruption. This is the configuration used for the Junior Computer with DOS. Make the connections shown in figure 3 as two lines from ground to pins 4a and 4c of the connector.

### Additional components

When all the modifications mentioned above have been made most of the work is done. All that remains is to substitute a 74LS159

## 2



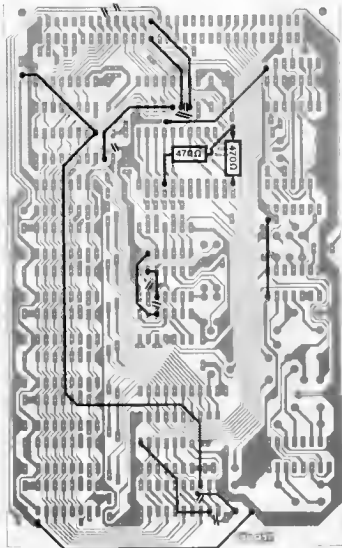
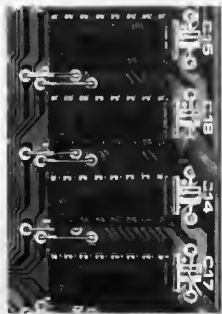


Figure 3. This layout of the printed circuit board clearly shows the tracks that have to be cut and the new connections that are to be made. Note that some ground lines are too narrow for this application and therefore need to be reinforced. And don't forget to remove the strap beside IC9.



(open collector outputs) for the 74LS154 (IC11). If it has not already been done C1 can be replaced by an 80 pF variable capacitor. This is to enable the timing relationship between the triggering of MMV1 and the start of the refresh pulse to be set to prevent the refresh from occurring too soon.

It is a good idea at this stage to run through everything done so far just to check that all is as it should be. Then the last thing to do is to insert all the new memory ICs in their sockets. They are available from a number of different manufacturers, most of whom are Japanese, and have different 'names', except that the last two digits are always '64'. Some possible examples are F 4164 (Fairchild), MB 8264 (Fujitsu), HM 4864 (Hitachi), ITT 4164, MSK 4164 (Mitsubishi), MK 4564 (Mostek), NMC 4164 (National Semiconductor), UPD 4164 C/D and so on... the choice is yours. In the article on the 16 k DRAM card the principle of the refresh was described in detail and a program was given for checking the memory, so as a final check it is worthwhile to run this program to check the 524 288 bits of your 'new' card. ■



# new high-speed CMOS logic

LSTTL speed with CMOS current consumption

Speed is not magic, but it has its price: fast logic circuits use more current. TTL technology is fast and greedy, CMOS on the other hand is slow and economical. But now, advances in CMOS technology are making it possible to combine TTL speed with CMOS economy. A new family of logic circuits, high-speed CMOS, combines the speed of LSTTL with the advantages of CMOS and looks set to become the standard and eventually replace both the CMOS and TTL technologies.

## The present situation

Bipolar digital ICs have been around for some fifteen years. This first, and for a long time only, technology for logic elements is still the fastest and, through TTL and ECL, also the most successful. Its big drawback remains the power dissipation. CMOS technology, on the other hand, offers low current consumption, a wide range of supply voltages, and high immunity to input noise. Its drawback is the lack of speed. During the past few years CMOS has become somewhat faster, and TTL, through the LS version, a little less power-greedy. None the less, the two technologies are still separated

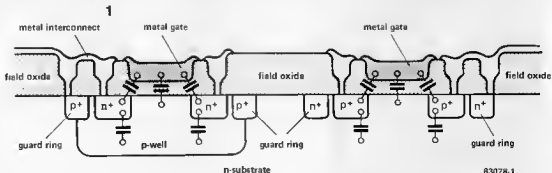
by a wide gulf. At present, it would appear that CMOS just about offers the best compromise between speed and power dissipation

High-speed CMOS combines the speed of LSTTL with the advantages of CMOS. The youngest member of the TTL family, the ALS version, is faster than LS and has only half its current consumption.

## How CMOS has become faster

Standard CMOS and the majority of buffered CMOS-ICs are manufactured by the metal-gate process. Figure 1 shows a

Figure 1. Cross-section of a chip manufactured by the metal-gate CMOS process. The parasitic capacitances which have been drawn in prevent faster switching.



2a

HE 4000B

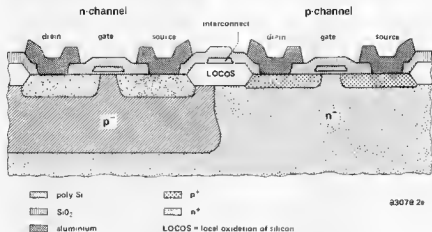


Figure 2a. Cross-section of a chip in the HE 4000B family manufactured by the silicon-gate technique. Reduced internal capacitances allow higher switching speeds.

2b

HC MOS

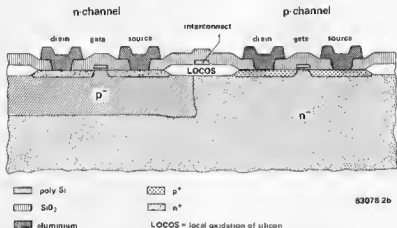


Figure 2b. HCMOS is also produced by the silicon-gate process. Its smaller gate structure causes further reduction in the internal capacitances and higher current gain of the transistors. HCMOS therefore provides higher output currents at higher switching speeds.

cross-section of a chip made in this technique: it represents the complementary n-channel and p-channel transistors. The parasitic capacitances between drain, gate, and source are added for clarity.

The switching speed of a MOS transistor is determined by the time required for the charging and discharging of the internal parasitic capacitances and the external (load) capacitance. This time is dependent not only on the value of these capacitances but also on the current gain,  $h_{fe}$ , of the transistor. A transistor with a higher  $h_{fe}$  can deliver more current and charge the capacitances faster. A consequence of the metal-gate process is that transistors have relatively large gate regions which overlap to some extent with the drain and source. Small current gain and correspondingly large capacitances are the inevitable result.

To increase the switching speed, it is necessary to reduce the parasitic capacitance as well as to raise the gain of the transistor. This is achieved in the silicon-gate technology which since the mid '70s has been used in the production of CMOS-processors, memories, and also the HEF 4000B family

of buffered CMOS-ICs. These CMOS elements are about three times as fast as the standard metal-gate 4000 series.

Figure 2 shows the structure of an n- and a p-channel transistor on a chip of the HEF 4000B family. The gate electrode is no longer of aluminium, but of polycrystalline silicon embedded in a layer of silicon oxide. Polycrystalline silicon can be etched in thinner layers than metal so that in silicon-gate technology the position of the gate with respect to the drain and source can be established more accurately, resulting in an overlap between them which is smaller than in metal-gate devices. This reduces the parasitic capacitances. Shorter gate length and thinner  $\text{SiO}_2$  isolating layers under the gate lead to increased current gain.

Silicon-gate CMOS originally used gate thicknesses of about  $6 \mu\text{m}$  which were later reduced to  $4 \mu\text{m}$ . A further reduction to  $3 \mu\text{m}$  combined with even more precise positioning and thinner isolating layers produced an improvement in switching speed by a factor 5 and an increase in output current by a factor 10. This completed the technological quest for a new CMOS-logic

3

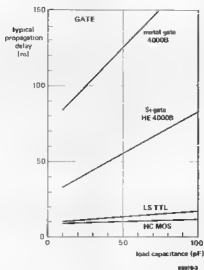


Figure 3. Gate-propagation delay as an indication of switching speed. The graphs show that HCMOS is not only much faster than metal-gate and silicon-gate CMOS, but also has a slight edge over LSTTL.

4

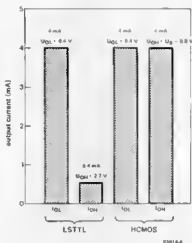


Figure 4. In contrast to LSTTL, HCMOS switches an output current of 4 mA in both logic states.

family which, as regards speed and output current, is equivalent to the LSTTL series.

### The 74 HC and 74 HCT series

The relation between the new high-speed CMOS and the 4000 CMOS family refers only to the positive characteristics of the latter: low power dissipation, high immunity to input noise and a wide range of operating temperatures.

Externally, however, the high-speed CMOS resembles the TTL series: pinning, logic functions and type numbering are the same as for TTL. This fortunate decision by the high-speed CMOS manufacturers can only be greeted with relief as it precludes the introduction of a second standard for the 4000 series CMOS.

Equally sensible is the decision to make the high-speed CMOS available in two versions: the 74HC series for operation from 2...

... 6 V and the 74HCT series for operation from  $5 V \pm 10\%$  and TTL input levels. The abbreviation HC comes from High-speed CMOS; the additional T in the HCT series stems from TTL compatibility. This compatibility is an attractive feature of the HC family: as far as the user is concerned, an IC in the 74HCT series is now nothing more than a 74-LS IC with much smaller power consumption. Dreams do come true some times!

Both the HC and HCT versions are fully buffered and have symmetrical outputs (that is, same value current at HIGH and LOW logic levels). Furthermore, of the 120-odd types contained so far in the HC family, several are available as unbuffered inverters and these are suffixed HCU (the 'U' stemming from Unbuffered). These types are intended for constructing RC or crystal oscillators, variable threshold trigger circuits, and other circuits operating in a linear mode.

Although the 74-HC family is intended to offer an equivalent for every IC in the 74-LS series, it also makes available some popular ICs from the 4000 series. These are mainly circuits for which there are no equivalents in the TTL series. Thus, for instance, that popular counter and oscillator Type 4060 is available as 74HC4060 or 74HCT4060 in the high-speed CMOS series. Clock frequency is 40...60 Hz (with load capacitance of 15 pF) depending on the manufacturer.

### Speed and output current (fan-out)

The real advances compared with previous CMOS logic lie in the improvement of speed and fan-out which in high-speed CMOS are comparable to those in TTL. Figure 3 shows graphs of the typical gate-propagation delay vs load capacitance for metal-gate CMOS, silicon-gate buffered CMOS, LSTTL and high-speed CMOS. It is clear that HCMOS is only slightly faster than LSTTL, but its smaller increase in gate-propagation delay at higher load capacitances makes for a larger increase in output current. Typical gate propagation delays in HCMOS gate are 8 ns at 10 pF, 10 ns at 50 pF, and 11.5 ns at 100 pF load capacitance.

It is also interesting to compare other logic versions of the TTL family, particularly the new 'advanced' ALS series which is two to three times faster than LSTTL. Table 1 gives a comparison of a number of typical circuits in the 74 series.

The buffered versions of the HCMOS family all have identical output stages. These are, as in CMOS, symmetrical and deliver a current of about 4 mA at both HIGH and LOW. The bus driver outputs can even supply 6 mA in both directions. Figure 4 gives a comparison between the output-current levels of HCMOS and LSTTL. At LOW level output there is no difference between the output currents: both types provide 4 mA at 0.4 V. When the output is logic 1 and the supply voltage is 5 V, a HCMOS circuit delivers 4 mA at an output voltage of not less than 4.2 V while the LSTTL version provides only 0.4 mA at

not less than 2.7 V.

A standard HCMOS output can, therefore, like that of an LSTTL circuit, be connected to up to 10 LSTTL inputs. The fan-out with bus driver output is 15 LSTTL loads. In the case of HCMOS loads, the input currents (typically  $1 \mu\text{A}$ ) have practically no effect, so that the fan-out is limited only by the input capacitance (typically 5 pF) and not by the drive power. One output can be connected to up to 20 HCMOS inputs without any noticeable deterioration. If speed and signal-to-noise are not important, it is possible to connect up to 4000 inputs to one output. Only then, at least in theory, is an output current of 4 mA reached.

### Current consumption, increase at higher switching frequencies

Lower current consumption not only reduces operating costs, but because of the reduction in heat, it also improves reliability. The quiescent current of HCMOS is, like that of CMOS, negligibly small as, in contrast to TTL, the leakage current is of the order of only a few  $\mu\text{A}$ . During switching, however, internal and external capacitances have to be charged which means an increase in current. The higher the switching frequency, the higher the current consumption. In that respect, there is no difference between HCMOS and CMOS, but HCMOS circuits can switch much faster and therefore have a correspondingly higher power dissipation. The quiescent current in TTL circuits is already so high that additional current consumption becomes only noticeable at very high switching frequencies.

Figure 5 shows this basic difference between HCMOS and LSTTL. If only one circuit is considered, as in the figure, the power dissipation of HCMOS and LSTTL reaches the same value at an operating frequency of only a few MHz. A practical system, however, consists of a much greater number of ICs which in turn contain several elements such as gates, flip-flops, and the like. LSTTL circuits use the same current whatever their operation; in HCMOS only those elements which actually switch consume power. For instance, in a counter with 10 flip-flops using LSTTL circuits, all flip-flops dissipate the same power, but if HCMOS circuits were used, each flip-flop would consume only half of what the preceding one does. This fact tips the balance firmly in favour of HCMOS, as is shown in figure 6. In a standard micro-computer system with a 2 MHz or 4 MHz CPU, HCMOS circuits would use only a fraction of the power LSTTL devices do. Even in a system with a 10 MHz micro-processor, the power dissipation in HCMOS circuits would be only about one eighth of that if LSTTL devices were used.

### Supply voltage, input level, and signal-to-noise ratio

The supply voltage for the HC and HCU versions of the HCMOS family can vary between 2...6 V. The extension of the lower voltage limit to 2 V is particularly interesting in view of future generations

of microprocessors and memories which will require a supply voltage of less than 5 V. Non-stabilized power supplies and batteries can be used without any problems, while one lithium cell or two nicad cells can serve as emergency supply.

The switching levels in HCMOS lie further apart than in LSTTL as can be seen clearly from figure 7. That means on the one hand a higher immunity to noise, but on the other that the inputs of HCMOS devices cannot be connected to the outputs of TTL circuits if the supply voltage is 5 V. ICs in the HC version can, however, be

new high-speed CMOS logic  
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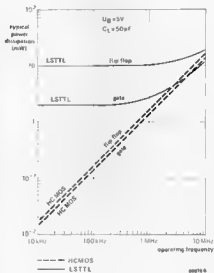


Figure 5. HCMOS shows the same typical increase in power dissipation with switching speeds as CMOS. For a single gate the power cross-over frequency is about 5 MHz, while that for a single flip-flop lies above 10 MHz.

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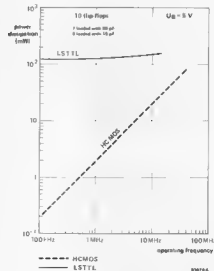


Figure 6. In a more complex circuit comprising a chain of 10 flip-flops, the power dissipation of HCMOS is clearly well below that of LSTTL even at the highest operating frequency.



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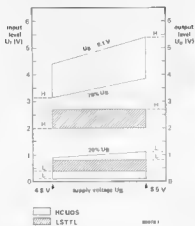


Figure 7. This shows that the noise immunity of HCMOS is far superior to that of LSTTL.

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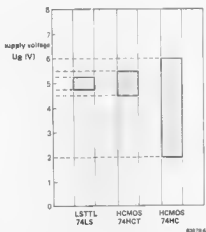


Figure 8. The permitted supply voltage variation of  $\pm 10$  per cent in the 74 HCT (TTL-compatible) series is twice that of the LSTTL. The 74 HC series can operate from supply voltages down to 2 V.

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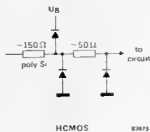


Figure 9. This shows the real improvement in input protection against electrostatic discharges in HCMOS as compared with CMOS.



combined with LSTTL types if the supply voltage is 3 V. None the less, HCT types are TTL compatible if the supply voltage is 5 V. Input levels and immunity to noise are similar to LSTTL. In contrast to the 74LS version, the 74HCT tolerates a supply voltage variation of  $\pm 10$  per cent (see figure 8).

Compared with the already hard-wearing CMOS circuits of the 4000 family, the inputs of the HCMOS inputs are even better protected against electrostatic discharges. The input protection circuit shown in figure 9 contains a poly-silicon resistor which limits the current through the protection diode and also reduces the speed with which the current rises. The diodes themselves are also more robust than those used in CMOS ICs.

### Manufacturers

HCMOS are produced by a whole series of manufacturers and, for this article, data and other information of the following were used: Philips/Valvo, RCA, National Semiconductor, Motorola, and Fairchild. The ICs produced by these manufacturers in the 74HC, 74HCT, and 74HCU series are identical in all important parameters. Agreement exists between National Semiconductor and Motorola on the one hand and Philips/Valvo and RCA on the other as to common development of HCMOS and exchange of masks. Small differences do exist in the stated values of propagation delay and maximum clock frequency. Whereas there is conformity as to gate-propagation delays with typical values of 8 to 9 ns at 15 pF loads, flip-flops and counters produced by RCA and Philips are slightly faster than those of the other manufacturers. For instance, the maximum clock frequency of the 74HC74 is typically 60 Hz (RCA) or 40 Hz (National Semiconductor) at 15 pF load. Guaranteed minimum values could not be compared owing to lack of relevant information. Table 2 shows small differences in the type coding: each manufacturer has his own prefix.

More important differences exist in the packaging: only Philips/Valvo and RCA have so far planned to manufacture their

Table 1

Gates		HCMOS	LS-TTL	ALS-TTL	S-TTL	unit
74XX00	propagation delay	8	8	5	4	ns
74XX04	propagation delay	8	8	4	3	ns
<b>Multiplexer/decoder</b>						
74XX139	propagation delay					
	select enable	25	25	8	8	ns
74XX151	propagation delay	20	21	8	7	ns
	address strobe	26	27	8	12	ns
		17	26	7	12	ns
<b>Flip/flops 6... 18 fold</b>						
74XX174	propagation delay	18	20	7	13	ns
	operating frequency	50	40	50	100	MHz
74XX374	propagation delay	16	19	7	11	ns
	enable/disable	17	21	9	11	ns
	operating frequency	50	50	50	100	MHz

Table 2. Type-coding of HCMOS

Manufacturer	HCMOS	HCTMOS	HCUMOS
General	74 HC04	74 HCT04	74 HCU04
Philips/Valvo	PCF 74HC04	PCF 74HCT04	PCF 74HCU04
RCA	CD 74HC04	CD 74HCT04	CO 74HCU04
Fairchild	74 HC04	*	*
National			
Semiconductor	MM 74HC04	MM 74HCT04	MM 74HCU04
Motorola	MC 74HC04	MC 74HCT04	MC 74HCU04

\* not yet available

Note: the table shows the HCMOS types corresponding to types 7404 (TTL) and 74 LS04 (LSTTL)

entire HC programme in LSITTL compatible package. All other manufacturers are restricting the production of LSTTL compatible devices to a small number of types, mostly buffers, decoders, and similar 'computer-related' ICs.

### Application

HCMOS devices are not cheap: their prices are noticeably higher than those of LSTTL circuits. This new technology seems, therefore, in the first instance to be of interest only where CMOS is too slow and the power consumption of LSTTL is too high. As soon as prices become more attractive, however, it is probable that particularly the HCT series will replace LSTTL, while the HC series is likely to invade the domain of the 4000 CMOS family.

As far as practical application is concerned, ICs of the HCT series can be used alongside LSTTL types in a circuit as required. In an existing circuit, HCT-MOS-ICs can replace LSTTL-ICs without further ado. In principle, it is possible to convert a TTL or LSTTL printed circuit board to HCMOS, but it is then necessary to change all TTL or LSTTL devices by HCMOS ones: they cannot be mixed. If in doubt, use the following rule: provided the supply voltage is suitable, a HCMOS-IC can drive a TTL-IC, but it is

not possible for a TTL-IC to drive a HCMOS-IC.

Another point to watch when converting circuits is that unused MOS-inputs (and those of HC/HCT/HCU-MOS) must be connected without fail to either the + supply line or earth. An unused TTL-input may be left open-circuited: remember that such an input is logic 1!

Finally, it should be noted that some manufacturers have given different names to the new technology. Fairchild, for example, call it FACT: Fairchild Advanced CMOS Technology. RCA use the name QMOS. This does not, however, alter the fact that all use the type-coding as indicated in this article.

### What of the future?

At least fifty different HCMOS-ICs are now available in standard production form and it seems likely that this number will have doubled by the end of the year. A number of these new devices have already found their way into the catalogues of several electronic component suppliers. Future issues of this magazine will no doubt contain circuits with HCMOS. Already we have spotted interesting circuits like a single-chip telephone modem in the HC data book of one manufacturer. Sounds promising, doesn't it?

**TTL**  
Transistor-Transistor Logic circuits with operating frequencies up to 35 MHz and input current levels of around 1.5 mA

**STTL**  
high-speed version of TTL which is about three times as fast but has double the power requirement; it can attain frequencies up to 100 MHz

**LSTTL**  
TTL circuits in which Schottky transistors and diodes are used in a configuration to give a compromise between speed and power dissipation. Operating frequency is up to 50 MHz and power dissipation is about 2 mW as compared to the standard 10 mW

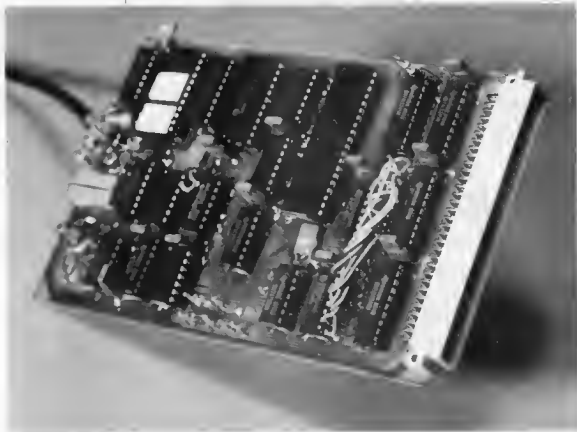
**ALSTTL**  
Advanced version of LSTTL which is slightly faster and has only about half the current consumption

**ECL**  
Emitter-Coupled Logic

circuits which are used where high speeds are required

**MOS**  
Metal Oxide Semiconductor which may be n-channel or p-channel  
**CMOS**  
Complementary MOS logic which employs n-channel and p-channel transistors in complementary pairs

# VDU card



In Elektor we like to keep up to date, and we feel that the time has come for a new video card. The VDU card described here is not simply a modern receiver for the old and still popular Elekterminal, rather it is a new design intended to use all the possibilities of a modern computer. It can display 24 lines of 80 characters on the screen, graphics are available, and there are several other possibilities. Numerous Junior Computer users have long been waiting to be able to equip their computer system with its own video card. However, this card is intended not only for the Junior but also for other processors, such as the 6800 family and the Z80.

video for  
computers

The accompanying article in this issue 'Video graphics' describes the principles of a VDU card and is good background material for anybody who is not totally familiar with the subject, so, rather than duplicate any of that here, we will simply describe the circuit for the VDU card. At the same time, we must explain what the further possibilities of this card are and this is where we will begin.

#### VDU card . . . and terminal?

Here we will consider the VDU card as an independent unit. In this form it can be

connected directly to the expansion bus of the Junior Computer. The only extra component needed is a 2716 EPROM with a VDU output program in place of the printer monitor program.

Figure 1 shows the main components which make up the VDU. First is the actual VDU card, with the Cathode Ray Tube Controller (6845), a 2 K video RAM (6116), and the character generator - the block diagram is shown in the descriptive article. The character generator consists of a 2732 EPROM in which all the ASCII and graphics symbols are stored in the appropriate dot-matrix

in conjunction with  
H. Vermeulen

layout (incidentally, graphics are possible by means of 'poke' commands, but we will return to that later). The card can be connected via a 75  $\Omega$  video output to a monitor. A connection for a light pen is also included on the card but no software for this purpose has been given in this basic version. It will be a simple matter to incorporate this at a later date. The diagram also shows the 2716 which contains the video routines for the Junior.

The standard format on the screen is 24 lines of 80 characters and because of the bandwidth required, a proper monitor or a TV set with a video input (not the normal aerial input) is needed.

The card also has an interface to adapt the VDU board for a Z80 processor. Similarly, other 6502 computers can be connected to it, as can the 6800 family. Because complete address decoding is possible on the card it can be adapted to practically every modern computer with one of the processors mentioned; AIM 65, SYM, VIC 20, VIC 64 and

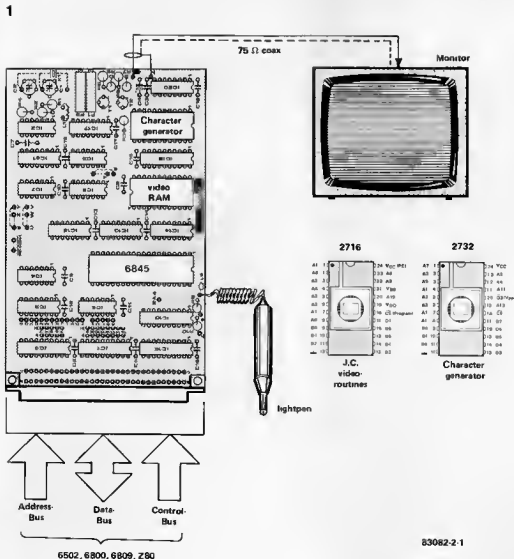
so on. One thing to remember is that the VDU card uses the Elektor bus and if it is to be used with other systems, the user will have to work out the connections and video routines himself.

The composite video signal produced by the VDU card can be fed into any monitor. Both the synchronization pulses and the contrast can be adjusted. The whole image can also be inverted to provide black characters on a light background. The cursor can be made to flash or light continuously. The VDU card can be used with the oscillator containing C1, C2 and L1, or these components can be replaced by a 15 MHz crystal, as shown dotted in the circuit diagram. If this is done the image on the screen will be rock steady.

The card is slightly unusual in that all the timing on the card works with synchronously clocked TTL switching. The advantage of this is that no timing faults can occur, even with this high frequency.

As you can see there are already quite a few

Figure 1. This is a sketch of the major components of the VDU card.



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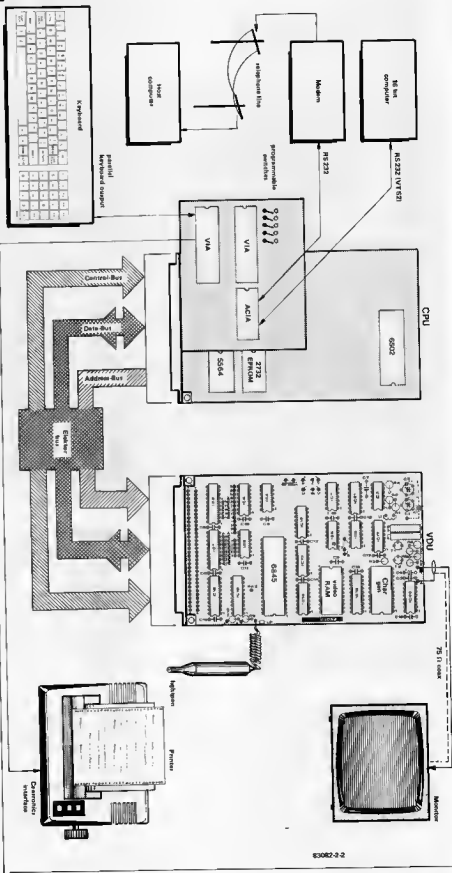
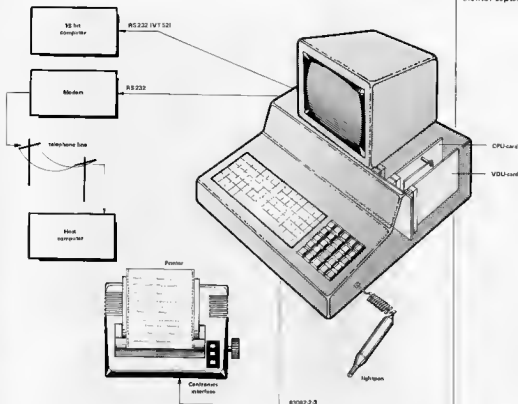


Figure 2. This shows what can ultimately be achieved with the universal terminal containing a VDU card and a CPU card. All the other equipment (computer, modem, printer, keyboard and so on) can be connected to this terminal.



possibilities with the VDU card but there are even more to come. As a follow up to this VDU card we will shortly publish a CPU card especially developed to complement it. These two cards will together form the basis of a universal terminal with RS 232 interface and VT 52 protocol, so that it can be connected to virtually any computer. Figure 2 shows the main parts of this system and of course this terminal can be connected to any computer which has an RS 232 interface. The CPU card contains a 6502 microprocessor, 2 VIAs (Versatile Interface Adapter), an ACIA (Asynchronous Communications Interface Adapter) an EPROM and a RAM. Thanks to a set of through connections on the board the transfer format, speed, number of start and stop bits and the type and number of control bits can be adapted to whatever computer is connected to the terminal. Similarly there is a choice of eight different screen-image formats.

All that is needed to make up a complete terminal is a VDU card, a CPU card, a monitor and a keyboard. The terminal could, for example, communicate over the telephone lines via a modem, with a computer in some other part of the globe, but because of its VT 52 protocol it could also be connected directly to a 16 bit computer. A connection for a printer is, of course, provided. It is also possible to use the CPU card and VDU card together as the basis for a complete computer system, as figure 3 shows. This example is connected to a 16

bitter but, in principle, that could be any type of computer.

The terminal software is located in a 2716 EPROM on the CPU card which can have a maximum of 8 K of random access memory and 16 K of read only memory. Clearly there are already quite a few possibilities for this two-card combination and certainly there are more than we have mentioned. However we will leave it at that until the article on the CPU card.

#### The VDU card in a nutshell

Figure 4 shows the circuit diagram for the VDU card. At the left is the system bus and here we see that address lines A0...A10 are connected to the B inputs of the 2 into 1 multiplexers, IC12...IC14. Also address lines A3...A15 are inverted by N1...N13. Complete address decoding is thus possible because the addresses are available either normally at points A3...A15 or inverted at points A3...A15. Address decoding for the video RAM is carried out via N37, and for the CRTC via N38. The numbers beside these two gates refer to those used with the Junior Computer. In this case the video RAM is in the range D000...D7F and the CRTC is between D800 and D89F. When N37 gives a chip-select signal the video RAM (IC15) is addressed from the system bus by the microprocessor. By this the address inputs of the 6116 are connected to the address bus of the system via the A inputs of the multiplexers IC12...IC14

Figure 3. The combination of VDU and CPU cards can also be used as the basis of a complete computer system. The combination controls communication between the various parts of the system and displays information on the screen.

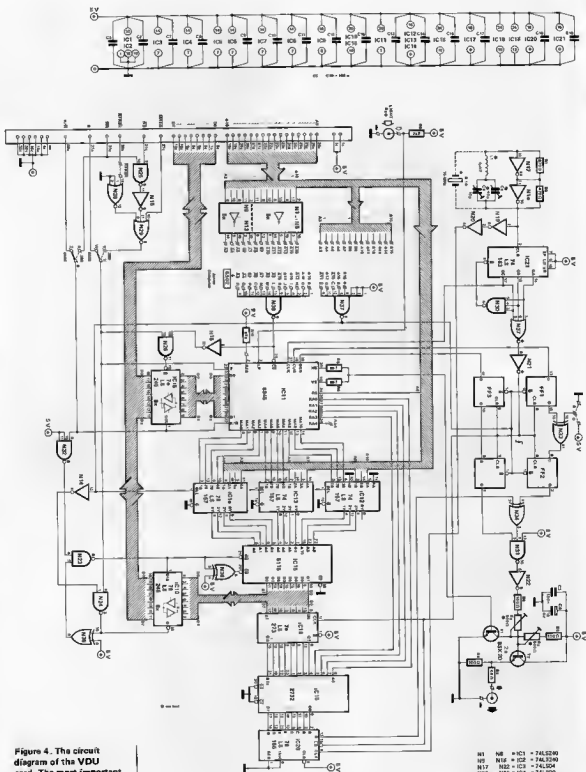
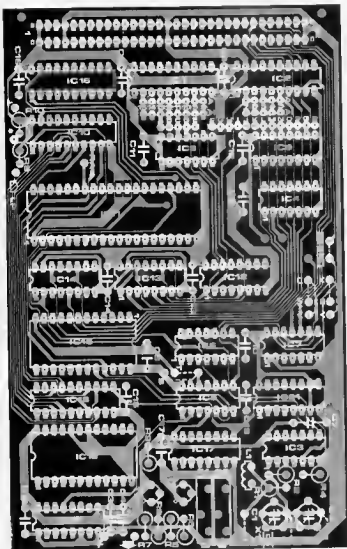


Figure 4. The circuit diagram of the VDU card. The most important components are IC11 (video controller), IC15 (video RAM) and IC19 (character generator).

- IC1 = 74LS280
- IC2 = 74LS290
- IC3 = 74LS204
- IC4 = 74LS200
- IC5 = 74LS06
- IC6 = 74LS08
- IC7 = 74LS10
- IC8 = 74LS130
- IC9 = 74LS133
- IC10 = 74LS17
- IC11 = 74LS290
- IC12 = 74LS290
- IC13 = 74LS204
- IC14 = 74LS200
- IC15 = 74LS161
- IC16 = 74LS08
- IC17 = 74LS10
- IC18 = 74LS130
- IC19 = 74LS133
- IC20 = 74LS17



## Parts list

## Resistors

R1, R2 = 470  $\Omega$   
 R3, R4, R8 = 100  $\Omega$   
 R5, R6 = 4k7  
 R7 = 68  $\Omega$   
 R9, R10 = 2k2

## Capacitors:

C1 = 40 p trimmer  
 C2 = 10 p trimmer  
 C3, C5 ... C19 = 100 n  
 C4 = 1  $\mu$ 6 V

## Semiconductors

T1, T2 = 85X 20  
 IC1, IC2 = 74LS240  
 IC3 = 74LS04  
 IC4 = 74LS00  
 IC5 = 74LS86  
 IC6 = 74LS10  
 IC7 = 74LS27  
 IC8 = 74LS30  
 IC9 = 74S133  
 IC10, IC16 = 74LS245  
 IC11 = 6845  
 IC12, IC13,  
 IC14 = 74LS157  
 IC15 = 6116  
 IC17 = 74LS175  
 IC18 = 74LS273  
 IC19 = 2732  
 IC20 = 74LS166  
 IC21 = 74LS163

## Miscellaneous

X1 = 15 MHz crystal (for a display configuration of 80 x 24 characters; if this crystal is used C1, C2 and L1 are not needed).

L1 = 4.7  $\mu$ H

64 pin male connector  
 DIN, use the A and C rows

Figure 5. The component layout for the VDU card.

(select inputs of the multiplexers are logic zero). At the same time data bus buffer IC10 is enabled via N14 and N24. The logic level of the R/W line (pin 29c of the connector) ensures that IC15 is enabled via N32, N23 and the WE input.

If the CRTC is addressed from the system bus N38 gives a logic zero to the CS input. The processor then has access to the internal registers of the 6845 via the system bus. Data bus buffer IC16 is then also enabled via N16 and N26.

IC16 is really only needed of a light pen is to be used with the VDU card. If this is not the case, and data is only written from the bus to the CRTC, then IC16 is superfluous and the 6845 can be connected directly to the data lines with eight wire links.

Address decoder N37 resets flip-flops FF1 ... FF4 so that no rubbish appears on the screen when the processor accesses the video RAM.

The timing of the VDU card is controlled by the oscillator based on N17 and N18. This supplies the so-called dot frequency, which is 15 MHz for the screen format used here. A coil is necessary to maintain stability of the oscillator at this relatively high frequency. For optimum performance, a 15 MHz crystal could be used in the oscillator in place of C1, C2 and L1. IC21 divides the oscillator signal by eight. This IC is a synchronous counter which is reset via N30 when the count reaches seven. Because the reset is only processed by the IC on the following clock pulse, the IC then effectively counts to eight. Output QC delivers the character frequency for the controller. The CRTC counts continuously from 000 to 7FF (the whole range of the video RAM) at the frequency of this signal. As the processor now has no access to the video RAM, the address outputs MA0 ... MA10 of IC12 are connected to the address inputs of the 6116



via the multiplexers, so that all the RAM addresses are continually accessed. The RAM then continuously supplies data which is placed into latch IC18. A latch is needed to enable the RAM to get all the data stable on the outputs, and it is not clocked until this condition is fulfilled. The output data of the latch can then be used while simultaneously another address is supplied to the RAM. The clock pulse for the latch is supplied via N21.

The information in the latch now acts as the address for the character generator, IC19. The CRTC simultaneously supplies to the 2732 the row addresses (RA0... RA3) of every character to be displayed so that one row of dots is read out each time for the video line that is to be written on the screen at that time. IC20 converts the dot information from a parallel to serial format. In order to prevent timing faults from occurring with the high frequencies used the shift register is synchronous, and its clock signal is taken directly from the oscillator via N19 and N20. The serial dot information appears at output Y of the IC. The video mixing stage, consisting of N34, N31, N22 and the circuitry around T1 and T2, combines the Y signal from IC20 with the line end retrace synchronization pulses supplied by the CRTC (pins 39 and 40). Presets P1 and P2 can be used to set the size of the synchronization pulses and the dot amplitude. It should be noted that each of the presets has an effect on the other and this will be seen when they are adjusted.

There are two other important signals of the CRTC which have to be dealt with separately. These are DEN and CUR. Output CUR(sor) gives the location of the cursor on the screen and output DEN (Display ENable) indicates when the CRTC is in the active range of the screen (see the section on 'image building' in the descriptive article). The latter signal is needed to keep the screen completely dark outside the active range. These two signals must now be combined with the video signal (via N34 and N31), but that cannot be done directly

because of the time that elapses between an address being supplied to the RAM and the appearance of the dot information at the outputs of the EPROM. The delay time is a few hundred nanoseconds, and that would mean that the cursor end display enable signals would appear too early relative to the dot signal. To alleviate the problem, the DEN and CUR signals are delayed by the two whole character times before being mixed with the dot signal.

The links at pin 12 of N33 enable the user to select a bright (lit) or dark cursor on the screen. This in effect means that the whole image on the screen can be either normal or 'negative' (in the photographic sense of the word), because if we want to use a dark cursor then all the dot signals on the screen are also inverted by N34. Link 'T' is used for a normal image (dark background) and using link 'S' gives an inverted image (light background).

N15, N25, N28 and N29 make up the Z80 interface. These gates ensure that the signals supplied by the Z80 are compatible with the R/W and enable signals from the 6502. If using a Z80, links U-V and X-Y must be used. The dotted link at pin 13 of N28 is made if the refresh (RFSH) of the Z80 is used, or alternatively an external refresh signal can be supplied to this pin. For 6502 and 6800 family processors U-W and X-Z must be linked.

## Construction

Any hobbyist who has already constructed other computer projects (for the Junior Computer, for example) will have no problem building the video card, especially if the Elektor printed circuit board as shown in figure 5 is used. This figure only shows the component overlay for this double sided board.

It is recommended that all the ICs should be mounted in good quality sockets. This is quite important for IC3 and IC20 but these ICs should preferably be soldered directly to the printed circuit board as they deal with high frequency signals. T1 is given in the parts list as BSX 20 but a BC 547B is also suitable. It is important to remember to connect the various wire links (in the Z80 interface end the one to select normal or inverted image), and the same applies for the address decoder connections.

If a crystal is used in the oscillator then L1, C1 and C2 can be omitted from the board. Three EPROMs are needed if the VDU card is to be used with the expanded Junior. These are one 2732 containing the character generator and two 2716s, TMV and PMV, with the video routines. These last two replace the TM and PME EPROMs and, as they contain the TM and PM software, the Junior is none the worse for it.

With the DOS Junior a 2732 with the character generator and one 2716 containing the video routines (DOSVT) are used. The 2716 is mounted in the socket for IC5 on the interface card. A CMOS RAM 6116 is also needed for the DOS Junior and is put in the IC4 socket on the interface card. This interface card requires a few modifications

Da  
RUN=DECECO

OS-650 Tutorial disk five - Sept. 16, 1981

- 1 > Directory
- 2 > Create a new file
- 3 > Change a file name
- 4 > Delete file from diskette
- 5 > Create blank data diskette
- 6 > Create data diskette with files
- 7 > Create buffer space for data files
- 8 > Single or dual disk drive copier
- 9 > Enter OS-650 system

Type the number of your selection  
and depress RETURN ? █

for correct operation with the VDU card, so:

- pin 18 of IC4 is joined to pin 20
- the following connections are made: M-J, G-I, I'-G', J'-L', O'-M'.

The DOS Junior (unlike the expanded JC) requires a few software changes in order to work correctly with the VDU card. For this a V 3.3 diskette suitable for the Junior and an Elekterminal or another serial I/O device are needed.

First of all a copy of the diskette is made via Utility 8 and this copy is placed in drive A. Now the modifications given in table 1 are made and the following is entered on the Junior keyboard:

```
<RST>
<AD> A200
<DA>
```

and the bootstrap modifications from table 2 are given. This is followed by:

```
<AD> A311
<DA> FFFF (video output 1)
      FFFF (video output 2)
      A2FE (serial output 1)
      E1F3 (Centronics output 1)
```

and then carry on with table 3. When that is done we then have a new V 3.3 diskette adapted to the VDU card.

If there is sufficient interest, we will possibly publish a Paperware to deal with this subject in greater depth, especially as regards the

Table 1.

AXCA 0200 = 39,1

AXCA 2000 = 39,2

AXGO 0200

- DISKETTE UTILITIES -

SELECT ONE

- 1) COMPAR
- 2) TRACK 0 READ/WRITE
- ? 2

- TRACK ZERO READ/WRITE UTILITY -

COMMANDS

Rnnnn - READ INTO LOCATION nnnn  
Wnnnn/9999,P - WRITE FROM nnnn FOR p PAGES  
WITH 9999 AS THE LOAD VECTOR

3 - EXIT TO OS-650

COMMAND: RA 200

- TRACK ZERO READ/WRITE UTILITY

COMMANDS

Rnnnn - READ INTO LOCATION nnnn  
Wnnnn/9999,P - WRITE FROM nnnn FOR p PAGES  
WITH 9999 AS THE LOAD VECTOR

E - EXIT TO OS-650

COMMAND? E

AXCA AA00 = 01,1

AX

VDU card  
elektor september 1983

Table 1. This is how track 0 of the floppy disk is transferred to the RAM memory starting at address SA200 and track 1 to RAM starting at address SAA00.

Table 2.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
A200	A9	01	8D	5E	26	20	BC	26	A9	2A	85	FF	20	54	27	86
A210	FE	20	67	29	20	79	2E	A0	8F	20	EC	22	F0	03	88	D0
A220	F8	8C	00	23	A2	01	8E	C6	2A	4C	41	22	EA	EA	EA	EA
A230	EA	EA	EA	EA	EA	EA	EA	EA	EA	EA	EA	EA	EA	EA	EA	EA
A240	EA	A9	00	8D	F7	EF	8D	D2	EF	20	35	F4	20	30	F3	20
A250	81	27	20	73	2D	0D	0A	0A	2A	44	4F	53	20	4A	55	4E
A260	49	4F	52	20	43	4F	4D	50	55	54	45	52	20	20	56	32
A270	2E	30	2A	0D	0A	0A	43	4F	50	59	52	49	47	48	54	20
A280	42	59	20	45	4C	45	48	54	4F	52	00	A9	2E	8D	7C	FA
A290	A9	FF	8D	7D	FA	A9	00	8D	7A	FA	A9	FC	8D	78	FA	4C
A2A0	E6	2A														

Table 2. This is the data needed to modify the bootstrap section.

operation of the CRTIC and the associated software.

The EPROMs are available as a pre-programmed set from Technomatic Ltd-ESS 522 is for the expanded Junior and ESS 521 for the Junior with DOS.

The circuit works from a single supply of 5 V and draws a current of about 450 mA. When the power is switched on the system must be initialized by pressing the reset button. To set P1 and P2, these two presets are first put to their mid positions. Then they are adjusted to get a clear image on the screen. If a TV set is used instead of a monitor the contrast control must be turned back completely as the bandwidth is generally too large. Trimmers C1 and C2 are used to set the frequency so that the image remains stable on the screen. If a 15 MHz crystal is used in the oscillator this last adjustment is unnecessary.

Table 3.

AXGO 0200

- DISKETTE UTILITIES -

SELECT ONE

- 1) COMPAR
- 2) TRACK 0 READ/WRITE
- ? 2

- TRACK ZERO READ/WRITE UTILITY -

COMMANDS

Rnnnn - READ INTO LOCATION nnnn  
Wnnnn/9999,P - WRITE FROM nnnn FOR p PAGES  
WITH 9999 AS THE LOAD VECTOR

E - EXIT TO OS-650

COMMAND? WA 200/2200,8

- TRACK ZERO READ/WRITE UTILITY -

COMMANDS

Rnnnn - READ INTO LOCATION nnnn  
Wnnnn/9999 P - WRITE FROM nnnn FOR p PAGES  
WITH 9999 AS THE LOAD VECTOR

E - EXIT TO OS-650

COMMAND? E

AXSA 01,1 = AA00/8

AX

Table 3. Here we see how the modified bootstrap is written back to the floppy disk.



Manufacturers are always interested in miniaturising receiver circuits and they keep pushing the limits further and further. In a normal receiver set up extreme integration is to be avoided especially as regards tuning coils, ceramic filters, band filters, and trimmers. Coils especially are a problem. Certainly they could be replaced by gyrator circuits, but because of their complexity these also have certain disadvantages at high frequencies, such as low Q factor, limited dynamic range and fairly high current consumption.

So Philips set out to develop a receiver that was less sensitive to the various problems posed by IC technology itself. And they succeeded with an 18 pin chip that needs only an oscillator and a few small capacitors to form an FM receiver. Everything else is internal, from the aerial input right through to the IF filters and demodulator! The breakthrough came when they decided to abandon accepted practice and chose to use an FLL system (a type of feedback PLL). This system works with a low enough IF (intermediate frequency) so that the IF selectivity can be realised with RC filters which, unlike LC filters, can be miniaturised successfully. Moreover, the disadvantages inherent in this low IF were suppressed by using a clever muting system.

Figure 1 shows the block diagram of the IC, complete with the components needed for a bog-standard radio. A very simple affair! We will not go any further into this block diagram at the moment as we will concentrate on how this circuit is expanded into something more interesting.

#### Micro or mini

We are always interested in new ICs and how they can be used and this is the case with the TDA 7000. Now that we've decided we want

# personal FM

miniature  
high quality  
FM receiver

The relatively new TDA 7000 from Philips is an IC that forms the basis of a complete FM receiver just by adding a few passive components. This IC could be described as an 'aerial signal in - low frequency signal out' sort of chip. However, not being satisfied with that, we expanded a little on the basic theme by adding a bit here and there, designed a printed circuit board, and ended up with a high quality mono FM receiver that is quite literally pocket sized!

to use it as the basis for a radio receiver we have to decide what sort of receiver it is going to be. Should it be a normal small FM radio? Or maybe something extremely small? Should the accent be not so much on small dimensions as quality...? The character of the IC is an invitation to make a micro radio... but that's easier said than done! A real micro design does not seem so interesting. There are limits to how small it can be made if it is to be put on a printed circuit board and we would not seriously consider anything else. So what we want is a 'bigger than micro' design with somewhat higher quality and without the disadvantages of the 'as small as possible' design. It must have a suitable low frequency amplifier

1

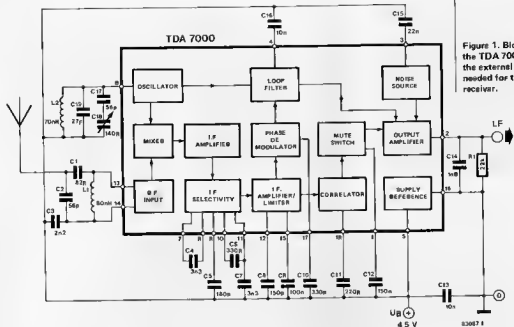


Figure 1. Block diagram of the TDA 7000 including the external components needed for the basic radio receiver.

2

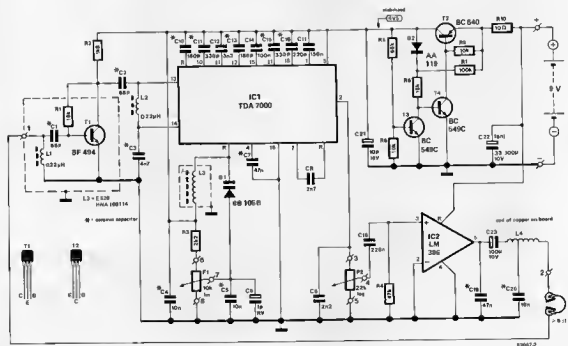


Figure 2. The circuit diagram of our personal FM receiver. The varicap tuning and the extra HF preamplifier improve the reception substantially.

included and the complete unit must all be contained on one printed circuit board so that only a battery, headphones and, possibly, an aerial have to be connected to it.

### The circuit diagram

Let us start by saying that, no matter what

type of receiver is designed around the TDA 7000, a large part of it will always be the same. Almost everything is included in the IC so there is very little designing to be done with external components, and the receiver design cannot really be changed. The similarities between the design of figure 2 and that in figure 1 are clear enough

but there are also a few differences, principally in the input stage and the oscillator. Also the more advanced design (figure 2) includes power supply stabilization and the LF amplifier mentioned before.

Although in principle a small loudspeaker can be used for the output of the radio, it is intended, initially, that small personal cassette type headphones should be used. A secondary advantage of headphones is that the lead can act as an aerial. To avoid making the receiver any bigger and more complicated than absolutely necessary we used a readily available amplifier IC (the LM 386 from National) for the headphone amplifier. This chip supplies very good sound quality and, for a small loudspeaker or headphones, its power output of 0.5 watt is quite sufficient! Furthermore the LM 386 needs only three external components (R4,

C19 and C20).

There are a few qualities of the basic design that we were not entirely happy about. In the first case it was found that the sensitivity of about  $7 \mu\text{V}$  is a bit on the low side for a personal FM receiver. If you walk around with that sort of radio receiver the aerial is not always in the most ideal position and the chances are that the station that you are tuned in to will continually disappear under the squelch.

Therefore we decided to include a HF pre-amplifier (T1). This preamplifier stage is very easy to set up, not at all critical and ensures that the sensitivity is always under  $1 \mu\text{V}$ . As the circuit diagram shows, its input is connected to one side of the headphones so that the lead can act as an aerial. The L4/C21 network has two functions. Apart from suppressing any spurious components



#### Parts list

##### Resistors:

- R1, R8 = 18 k
- R2 = 1k8
- R3 = 2k2
- R4 = 47 k
- R5 = 68 k
- R6, R9 = 10 k
- R7 = 100 k
- R10 = 10  $\Omega$
- P1 = 10 k ten turn pot
- P2 = 22 k log pot

##### Capacitors:

- C1, C2 = 88 p ceramic
- C3 = 4n7 ceramic
- C4, C5, C20 = 10 n ceramic
- C8 = 1  $\mu/6$  V
- C7, C19 = 47 n ceramic
- C8 = 2n2
- C9, C12 = 3n3
- C10, C13 = 180 p ceramic
- C11, C15 = 330 p ceramic
- C14 = 100 n
- C16 = 220 p
- C17 = 150 n
- C18 = 220 n
- C21 = 10  $\mu/6$  V
- C22 = 220  $\mu/10$  V
- C23 = 100  $\mu/6$  V

##### Semiconductors:

- D1 = 88 105
- D2 = AA 119
- T1 = 8F 494
- T2 = 8C 640
- T3, T4 = 8C 549C
- IC1 = TDA 7000
- supplier: Technomatic Ltd.
- IC2 = LM 386

##### Inductors:

- L1, L2 = 0.22  $\mu\text{H}$  (coil on Toko former)
- L3 = E 526 HNA 100114 (Toko)
- L4 = inductance made with copper tracks on the printed circuit board

##### Miscellaneous:

- Lightweight headphones, at least 8  $\Omega$  impedance

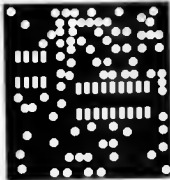


Figure 3. The component overlay for the double-sided board. The large area of copper on the upper side acts as an earth plane for the circuit.

of the output signal from IC2, it also acts as a decoupling circuit between the LF output and the HF input. There are also a few details about the oscillator which should be changed. First of all the coil. To alleviate supply difficulties we used a standard off-the-shelf Toko coil. There are two problems with using a tuning capacitor for this circuit: availability is often a problem and some sort of mechanical gearing must be used in order to make tuning easier. We decided to kill two birds with one stone and used a varicap diode (D1) in combination with a 10-turn potentiometer (P1) for the control voltage. Because the tuning voltage must remain very stable, some form of voltage stabilization must be used. In order to spare the (small) battery as much as possible, the losses (voltage drop and current consumption) of the stabilizer should be small. This explains the use of a discrete circuit here (T2, T3 and T4) in preference to an IC. Even if the battery voltage drops to 5.5 V this stabilizer still supplies a constant 4.5 V. And that is the whole circuit. Note that pin 3 of the TDA 7000 is left unconnected because it was considered that using squelch suppression with artificial noise is going a bit too far. For anybody who wants to use this built in noise generator, a 22 nF capacitor can be connected between pin 3 and the positive supply.

### The printed circuit board

Although it was not intended as a micro circuit, the 50 x 50 mm dimensions of the double sided printed circuit board shown in figure 3 still make it very diminutive for a complete FM receiver. Even when the 9 V battery is included the end result can justly be called a personal receiver. In the case of the HF stage there are absolutely no problems with construction. The worst thing is trying to remember the type number of the oscillator coil, L3. It is an E 526 HNA · 100114 from Toko, and that's quite a mouthful for 'the morning after the night before'. However, L4 is not so difficult as it is already etched onto the printed circuit board. The input and oscillator stages should ideally not be able to 'see' each other. Therefore the area around T1 should be screened, prefer-

ably with mu-metal or copper. Space has been left on the board for these screens and their locations are indicated. The four pieces of screen are soldered into a box and then soldered to the upper side of the printed circuit board. Most of this upper side (or component side) of the board is an 'earth plane'. Therefore, all points which should be connected to earth are soldered to the top of the board and the rest simply connect to the under side. These latter (non-earth) points are of course the copper 'islands'. When construction of the printed circuit board is completed, only the tuning and volume potentiometers (P1 and P2 respectively) have to be connected, not forgetting the battery and headphones of course. The connection points are clearly marked.

### Adjustment

Normally quite a large section of an article describing the construction of an FM receiver would be devoted to setting up, but that is hardly necessary with the TDA 7000. The simple adjustment of L3 to ensure the correct receiver range (87.5 . . . 104 MHz) is all that is required. That can be done with a frequency counter of course but the simple method is to compare it with another receiver!

One final point. Even though it is extremely handy to use the headphone lead as an aerial, it is much better to use a 60 cm (or even 30 cm!) aerial. And that does not apply only for this receiver, but also for any other personal radio. If an aerial is used it should be connected to the junction of L1/C1 (aerial input) and the headphones between the LF input and ground.

We have spent hours listening to our FM receiver (mainly before the morning coffee break? Ed.) and it must be said that it gives a very good account of itself. The sensitivity is reasonable and the quality of the sound is actually very good. The only 'but' is that the TDA 7000 is only a mono receiver. But you can't have everything and who knows, maybe it is only a matter of time before we get a pin compatible version suitable for stereo. In the meantime we have a trick up our sleeve that may be just as good but that will have to wait until — maybe the next issue!

Even today, looking for simple electronic components can give you quite a headache. Take, for example, a simple voltage divider for a voltmeter: when you try to buy the necessary high-stab resistors, the likelihood is that you're told in shop after shop: 'Sorry, we don't stock those'.

precision voltage divider . . .  
elektor september 1983

# precision voltage divider...

. . . for home construction

In the construction of measuring equipment, you normally require a number of precision components. Particularly voltage and current dividers need resistors of 1% tolerance. The simple four-way voltage divider shown in figure 1 has a total resistance of 1 M $\Omega$  and requires four resistors: 900 k $\Omega$ , 90 k $\Omega$ , 9 k $\Omega$  and 1 k $\Omega$ . And that's where your troubles are likely to start. If you're not lucky enough to find a complete divider somewhere, forget about buying the individual resistors. It's extremely unlikely that you'll find the above four values in the high-stab range in one shop.

## Parallel connections

Fortunately, it is possible to make a precision voltage divider with an input impedance of 1 M $\Omega$  from standard value resistors. The solution lies in connecting two high-stab resistors in parallel to obtain the required value as shown in figure 2. If a shop stocks high-stab resistors, it's pretty certain that it has standard values of 1 M $\Omega$ , 100 k $\Omega$ , and so on. And that's what the divider of figure 2 depends on! The resulting resistances are 909.09 k $\Omega$ , 90.909 k $\Omega$ , 9.09 k $\Omega$ , and 1.01 k $\Omega$ . The deviation from the ideally required divide factors is smaller than 0.01% so that in practice the variations are entirely dependent upon the tolerances of the resistors used.

In parallel connections as used in figure 2, not all resistors need be 1% types. Because each combination consists of two resistors of which one has ten times the value of the other, the larger one has a much smaller effect on the result than the smaller one. As a consequence, the tolerance of the larger resistor is of much less importance than that of the smaller one. Even if 5% types are used for the larger resistors in the parallel branches, the overall stability will be sufficient. The same is true of R7 because this is pretty small compared with R8.

As an example of the above: if R2 deviates exactly 5% from its nominal value, the variation of the resultant value of R1/R2 is only 0.4%. You might say that the tolerance of the larger resistor improves roughly by a factor equal to the ratio of the two resistors. Parallel connections have a further advantage: statistically there is only a very small probability that two resistors in a parallel branch both deviate in the same direction. In other words: there is a good chance that the network of figure 2 is more precise than the one constructed from 1% resistors as shown in figure 1.

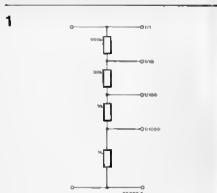


Figure 1. A standard voltage divider with an input impedance of 1 M $\Omega$ . Unfortunately, the resistors used are difficult to obtain.

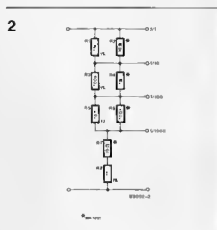


Figure 2. This voltage divider uses standard value resistors. Its input impedance is slightly higher than 1 M $\Omega$ , but this will not matter in most applications. The divide ratios, however, are accurate.

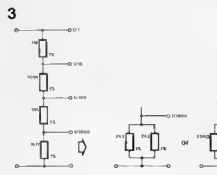
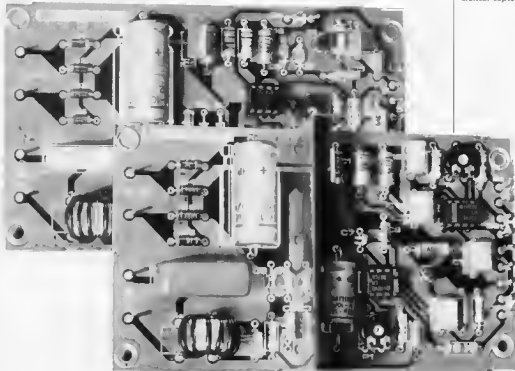


Figure 3. Another possibility, but its input impedance is larger still than that of figure 2.

All in all, the above gives enough reasons to use parallel-connected resistors. Figure 3 gives an alternative which uses fewer resistors. However, its theoretical stability is rather worse than that of figure 2: 0.01% instead of 0.001%.



# alarm extension . . .

The garden party is in full swing . . . Amidst all the happy noises and chatter it is difficult to hear when the telephone rings or a late guest rings the front-door bell. The alarm extension described here will enable you to hear the phone ringing wherever you are, provided there is a mains socket close at hand.

The principle is well-known: an intercom which uses the mains wiring as the transmission channel. This is a very handy gadget which can be used wherever a mains socket is available. Speech facility is not provided: the receiver merely indicates that the transmitter has 'detected' a certain sound, which may come from the telephone bell or from another source.

## General principles

The transmitter and receiver contained in the alarm extension are shown in block form in figure 1. The signal detected by the transmitter is amplified, rectified, passed through a high-pass filter, and then used to switch an astable multivibrator (AMV). This stage generates a 22 Hz square-wave signal which is used to phase-modulate a second AMV. This astable operates at 178 kHz. The output of the modulator is taken via a limiter to a low-pass filter which removes the last traces of any spurious frequencies, so that a 'clean' signal is fed to the mains via a suitable transformer.

The receiver is even simpler than the transmitter. The 'telesignal' is recovered from the mains by means of a suitable transformer. A diode limiter ensures that any high-voltage spikes do not damage the (following) phase discriminator, a phase-locked loop (PLL) with digital and analogue output. The digital output lights an LED to provide an indication when the input signal is locked to the discriminator. The demodulated 22 Hz signal at the analogue output is 'recognized' by a tone decoder which acknowledges receipt of the signal by causing a second LED to light and a buzzer to operate.

## The circuit diagram

*The transmitter (see figure 2)*

The input signal is taken from a telephone adapter coil or simple microphone. A coil does not pick up ambient noise and will therefore give better results. The amplifier, rectifier, and high-pass filter mentioned are shown at the top left-hand of figure 2. They are followed by comparator

. . . over the  
mains



IC4, the threshold of which is set by P1. The output of IC4 is used to switch the astable multivibrator formed by IC1. This AMV can be fed simultaneously with a square-wave signal to provide a facility for the remote control of an external equipment connected to the receiver. Details of this will be featured in a future issue.

The second of the 555 timers is also connected as an astable multivibrator. With values shown, IC2 oscillates at around 178 kHz and IC1 at about 22 Hz. Oscillator IC1 is started by a logic 1 at the output of IC4.

The output of IC2 is phase-modulated with relatively good linearity. Any spurious frequencies produced during the on and off switching of IC1 are filtered out by R3/C9. The network around diodes D6 and D7 prevents any mains-borne interference from reaching the output of IC2. The filter network L2/L3/C5 removes any harmonics from the phase-modulated signal to ensure that a 'clean' signal is applied to the mains via transformer L1.

The power supply for the transmitter is provided by the usual 5 V voltage regulator IC. The supply transformer must be capable of providing 9 V at 100 mA.

#### The receiver (see figure 3)

The receiver draws the phase-modulated signal from the mains via C1 and transformer L1, which is identical to L1 in the transmitter. Diodes D1 and D2 protect the demodulator circuit against interference which may be present on the mains voltage. The phase-modulated signal is applied to phase discriminator IC2 via C3.

Apart from a phase-locked loop, IC2 includes a phase detector, a voltage-controlled oscillator (V.C.O.), an output filter (with C8), and a comparator.

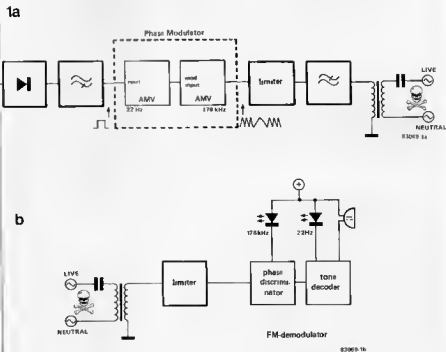
The frequency of the V.C.O. is preset to 178 kHz by means of P1. The input signal at pin 3 is, as usual in a PLL, compared with the oscillator output by the phase discriminator. If the input signal is phase-modulated, the difference between it and the oscillator frequency, that is 22 Hz, appears at pin 2. The internal resistance, together with C7, forms a smoothing circuit for the output signal.

When the PLL is locked to a signal at pin 3, the signals at the inputs of the phase detector are in phase. The consequent output of the detector is a constant-voltage signal, which is applied to the non-inverting input of the comparator. This stage compares the signal with an internally set reference level and switches its output (pin 8) to logic 0. LED D7 then lights, indicating that IC2 has 'received' the 178 kHz carrier. The 22 Hz signal is amplified in T1 and applied to tone decoder IC3. On receipt of this 22 Hz signal, the output at pin 8 switches on the LED D8 and the buzzer. The receiver power supply unit is identical to that of the transmitter.

#### Construction and adjustment

Construction of the alarm extension should present no real problems if our two specially designed printed circuit boards are used. The transmitter board is shown in figure 4, that for the receiver in figure 5. As no special components are used, the construction needs no further explanation. One thing must be borne in mind, however: capacitor C1 in both transmitter and receiver MUST BE 600 V types! On the receiver board a thin metal screen must be soldered to the appropriate soldering points: the screen is shown in the diagram as a dotted line.

Figure 1. The block diagram contains no surprises: The transmitter (1a) comprises a bell amplifier, a rectifier, a comparator, f.m. modulator, and limiter. The receiver (1b) is even simpler, comprising a limiter, f.m. discriminator, and tone decoder.



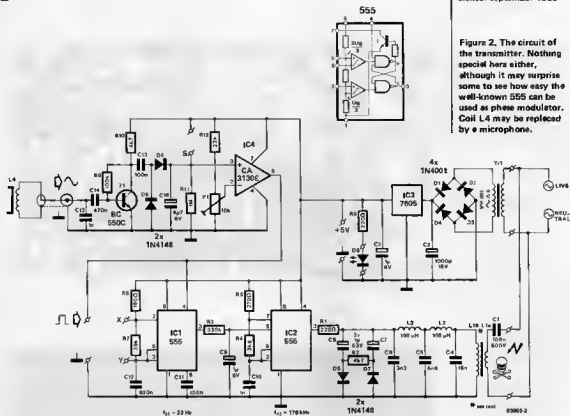


Figure 2. The circuit of the transmitter. Nothing special here either, although it may surprise some to see how easy the well-known 555 can be used as phase modulator. Coil L4 may be replaced by a microphone.

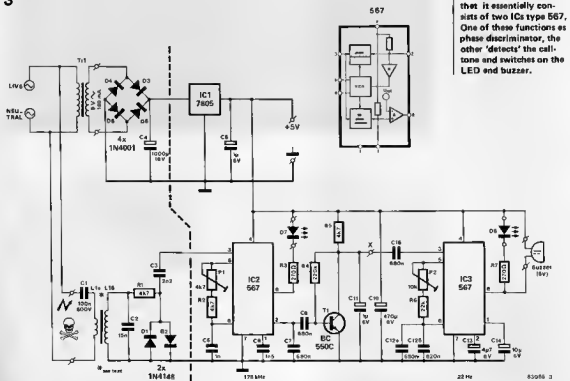


Figure 3. The receiver circuit diagram shows that it essentially consists of two ICs type 567. One of these functions as phase discriminator, the other 'detects' the call-tone and switches on the LED and buzzer.

**Parts list for the transmitter**

**Resistors:**

R1, R8 = 220  $\Omega$   
R2, R10 = 4k7  
R3 = 330 k  
R4 = 3k9  
R5 = 270  $\Omega$   
R6 = 180  $\Omega$   
R7 = 39 k  
R9 = 100 k  
R11 = 1 M  
R12 = 22 k  
P1 = 10 k preset

**Capacitors:**

C1 = 100 n/500 V  
C2 = 1000  $\mu$ /16 V  
C3, C9 = 1  $\mu$ /8 V  
C4 = 18 n  
C5 = 6n8  
C6 = 3n3  
C7, C8 = 1  $\mu$ /53 V  
C10, C13 = 1 n  
C11, C15 = 100 n  
C12 = 820 n  
C14 = 470 n  
C16 = 4  $\mu$ 7/5 V

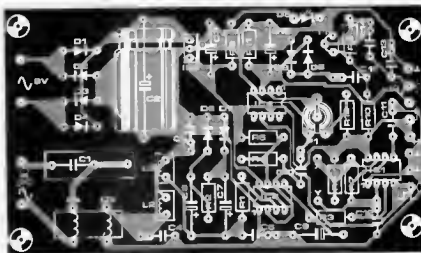
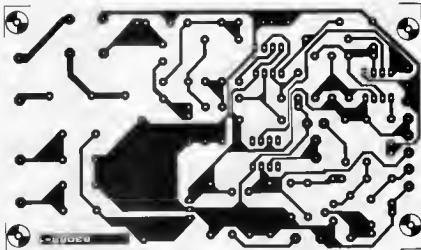
**Semiconductors:**

D1...D4 = 1N4001  
D5 = LED  
D6...D9 = 1N4148  
T1 = BC550C  
IC1, IC2 = 555  
IC3 = 7806  
IC4 = CA 3130E

**Miscellaneous:**

L1a = 10 turns wound evenly spaced onto L1b (see text)  
L1b = 40  $\mu$ H toroidal suppressor choke  
L2, L3 = 100  $\mu$ H  
L4 = telephone adapter coil with suction pad  
Tr1 = mains transformer with 9 V/100 mA secondary  
Plastic case = type BOC 440 (50 mm high) or type BDC 445 (80 mm high) (available from West Hyde Developments Limited)

Figure 4. Layout and foil side of the transmitter printed circuit board. The coupling coil consists of a suppressor choke onto which 10 turns of wire are evenly wound. This additional winding is connected to the mains. Terminals X, Y and S are intended for future extensions.



Each transformer L1 is made by winding 10 turns evenly spaced onto a toroidal suppressor choke (as commonly used in triac circuits). For this purpose enamelled copper wire SWG 18 may be used, but better performance is obtained by the use of insulated stranded wires. The additional winding is connected to mains live: you have been warned!  
When the construction has been completed, set all presets to their mid position. Connect the LEDs, buzzer, and transformers temporarily. Before connecting the coupling transformers to the mains, read the following setting-up instructions.

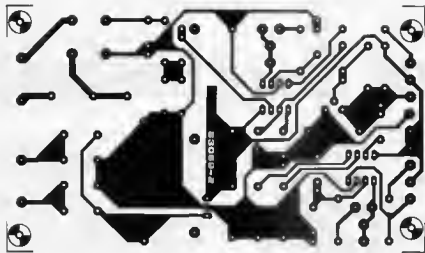
*Setting up the transmitter*

- Connect the mains transformer to the mains and check the supply voltages.

- Connect a good voltmeter or an oscilloscope to the output of IC4.
- Attach the telephone adapter-coil or microphone to the transmitter input, and adjust P1 for maximum deflection on the voltmeter or oscilloscope with the telephone ringing. If the deflection is small, the coil or microphone is located in the wrong place. Better resolution can be achieved by connecting an oscilloscope across C13. The coil can then be placed in a position which gives the greatest amplitude.
- Connect L1 also to the mains.
- Connect 'S' to +5 V by means of a jump wire.

*Setting up the receiver*

- Connect the mains transformer to the mains and check the supply voltages.



## Parts list for the receiver

## Resistors:

R1, R2, R5 = 4k7  
 R3, R7 = 270  $\Omega$   
 R4 = 220 k  
 R6 = 22 k  
 P1 = 5 k preset  
 P2 = 10 k preset

## Capacitors:

C1 = 100 n/600 V  
 C2 = 15 n  
 C3 = 2n2  
 C4 = 1000  $\mu$ /16 V  
 C5, C11 = 1  $\mu$ /6 V  
 C6 = 1 n  
 C7 = 680 p  
 C8 = 1n5  
 C9, C12a, C15 = 680 n  
 C10 = 470  $\mu$ /6 V  
 C12b = 820 n  
 C13 = 4 $\mu$ /6 V  
 C14 = 10  $\mu$ /6 V

## Semiconductors:

D1, D2 = 1N4148  
 D3 . . . D6 = 1N4001  
 D7, D8 = LED  
 T1 = BC550C  
 IC1 = 7805  
 IC2, IC3 = 567

## Miscellaneous:

L1a = 10 turns wound  
 evenly spaced onto  
 L1b (see text)  
 L1b = 40  $\mu$ H toroidal  
 suppressor choke  
 Tr1 = mains transformer  
 with 9 V/100 mA  
 secondary  
 Plastic case = type  
 BOC440  
 (50 mm high)  
 or type BOC445  
 (80 mm high)  
 (available from West  
 Hyde Developments  
 Limited)  
 Buzzer, 6 V

- Connect the coupling transformer L1 to the mains.
- Adjust P1 till LED D7 lights brightly. This LED will already light, but a position of P1 should be sought where it lights twice as brightly as normal!
- Adjust P2 till LED D8 lights brightly. Same remarks as for LED D7 apply.
- Remove the jump wire from 'S'.
- Finally, with the telephone ringing, check the entire alarm extension for satisfactory operation.

## Final notes

- If the sound of the small buzzer is too feeble for your purpose, a relay can be connected (via an isolating diode) in its place. The tone decoder can deliver up to 100 mA output current. The relay can be

used to switch on a bright light, a siren, or a similar optical or acoustical device.

- Although a Government Health Warning is not printed on every mains socket, bear in mind that both L1a windings are at mains potential. Therefore, use extreme care when handling the printed circuit boards with the mains supply switched on. Please, gentle reader, do not become a statistic!

Figure 5. Layout and foil side of the receiver printed circuit board. The coupling coil is made exactly as that for the transmitter. Again, the additional winding is connected to the mains Terminal X is intended for possible future extension.

Nothing generates quite so much interest in computers by raw beginners as a computer that makes noises. This is particularly true with children and especially if the computer can actually play its own tune on command. It can encourage them to take a serious interest in programming and/or computers in general.

# Junior Synthesizer

make your  
 computer play  
 your  
 favourite tunes

When a flood of new musical instruments appeared that could be controlled by a microprocessor, some of the many Junior Computer owners must certainly have combined the two ideas. Actually this computer lends itself quite readily to controlling an analogue synthesizer. However, some people have probably not yet taught their computer to play music and so to make it easier we have written a program to turn your Junior Computer into a Junior Synthesizer.

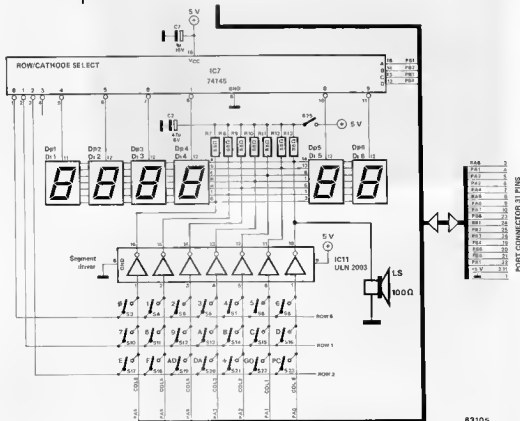
## A singing display

The only 'hardware' needed for this JC to JS conversion is a 100 Ω loudspeaker that is connected between one of the display driver

outputs of IC11 and ground. No other special interface is needed as the only component used is connected directly to the existing circuit. The audio signal that feeds the loudspeaker is produced by the 6532 on the main board of the computer, and consists of a series of pulses whose frequency is determined by the software. The tune to be played is memorized in page \$0300 and is made up of a series of bytes, two of which are needed for each note to be played. The first is placed in an even address and corresponds to the pitch of the note; the second, corresponding to the duration of the note, is placed in the next odd address. The pitch depends on the frequency of the pulses, and the duration depends on how long the signal lasts.

A. Bricart

1



83105

There are four values of duration possible: minim, equal to two crotchets, each equal to two quavers which in turn are each equal to two semi-quavers. The durations are calculated from the computer clock which has a frequency of 1 MHz. For example, the note 'A' at 440 Hz has a pulse length of 2.28 ms. With a symmetrical waveform, the space lasts 1.14 ms. There is already a timing stage available in the computer (DELAY). So for our 'A', this delay has to be executed 81 times before inverting the logic level ( $81 \times 14 \mu s \approx 1.14 \text{ ms}$ ). Thus the hexadecimal value of the pitch of this note is \$51 (81 in decimal).

Because the program is very simple, only the \$0300 page (up to \$03FF) can be used to memorize a melody, so it can only have 127 notes at most. The tempo is fixed by the contents of location MULT (\$0002) which can be changed to increase or decrease the speed of play. The rhythm is determined by the magnitude of the bytes in the uneven addresses, although, of course, the value of the durations also varies with the pitch of the notes.

When the processor finds the value \$00 in an even address (pitch), it is silent for a certain length of time which is normally determined by the contents of the immediately following uneven address. If on the other hand, the value \$00 is in an uneven address the tune is stopped and starts again from the beginning.

In the example given here, the Junior plays the Menuet du Bourgeois Gentilhomme by J. B. Lully, but with a little experimentation you can probably make it play 'Chopsticks' as well!

Table 1

Note	Hz	pitch code	duration code		
E	1318.5	1B		84	42
D#	1244.5	1D	F9	7C	3E
D	1174.6	1E	EB	76	3B
C#	1108.7	20	DE	6F	37
C	1046.5	22	D1	6B	34
B	988	24	C6	63	31
A#	932.3	26	BA	5D	2F
A	880	29	B8	58	2C
G#	830.6	2B	A6	53	2A
G	784	2E	9D	4E	27
F#	740	30	94	4A	25
F	698.4	33	8C	46	23
E	659.2	36	84	42	21
D#	622.2	39	F9	7C	3E
D	587.3	3D	E8	75	3B
C#	554.3	41	DE	BF	37
C	523.2	44	D1	89	34
B	494	48	C6	83	31
A#	466.1	4D	BA	5D	2F
A	440	51	B8	58	2C
G#	415.3	56	AB	53	2A
G	392	58	9D	4E	27
F#	370	61	94	4A	25
F	349.2	66	BC	46	23
E	329.6	6C	84	42	21
D#	311.1	73	7C	3E	1F
D	293.6	79	75	3A	1D
C#	277.2	81	6F	37	1C
C	261.6	89	69	34	1A
B	247	91	63	31	19
A#	233.1	99	5D	2F	17
A	220.6	A2	58	2C	16
G#	207.6	AC	53	2A	15
G	196	B6	4E	27	14
		90	E0	70	38
		90			IC

Table 1. The codes for the pitch and duration of the notes shown here can make the Junior Computer play your favourite tune.

JUNIOR

M

HEXDUMP: 200, 25D

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
0200:	A9	7F	8D	81	1A	A9	28	8D	82	1A	A9	28	85	28	A9	22
0210:	85	22	A6	28	BD	81	23	85	21	F2	E5	A9	43	8D	82	1A
0220:	22	52	22	A6	28	BC	28	23	F2	28	A9	BF	8D	82	1A	22
0230:	52	22	C6	21	D2	E5	C6	22	D2	D8	E6	28	E6	28	A2	FF
0240:	CA	EA	EA	EA	D2	FA	4C	2E	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22
0250:	A6	28	BC	28	23	A2	22	CA	D2	FD	88	D2	F8	62		

Table 2. This is the program which uses the 6532 and the display driver to generate an audio signal that is heard through the loudspeaker. No physical alteration to the existing circuit is needed.

JUNIOR

M

HEXDUMP: 300, 368

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
0300:	51	58	3D	EA	41	DE	3D	75	36	84	51	58	48	63	58	9C
0310:	61	4A	58	4E	6C	84	61	94	79	3A	51	58	3D	EA	41	DE
0320:	3D	75	36	84	51	58	48	63	58	9C	61	4A	58	4E	6C	84
0330:	61	94	79	3A	61	94	58	4E	51	B8	51	58	48	63	48	63
0340:	56	53	51	B2	51	58	3D	EA	48	63	41	6F	41	6F	51	58
0350:	3D	75	3D	75	48	63	41	DE	3D	75	51	58	48	63	58	9C
0360:	61	4A	58	4E	6C	84	79	74	22	72	22	22				

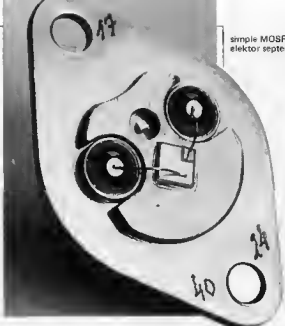
Table 3. The sequence reproduced here corresponds to the notes and rhythm of the Menuet du Bourgeois Gentilhomme by Lully. The even addresses contain the pitches and the uneven addresses are the durations of the notes. Note that in some cases the durations are not exactly minims. The \$00 at \$036B acts as a repeat bar, it indicates that the piece is to be replayed from the start.

All home constructors are constantly looking for simple ways of checking whether electronic components they have in stock are fit for use. This is particularly so in the case of the more expensive transistors, such as the power metal-oxide field-effect transistors, or simply power MOSFETs, as used, for example, in the Crescendo amplifier featured in our December 1982 issue. Although the complete electrical testing of such devices requires complicated, expensive test gear, it is perfectly feasible to check them with a multimeter.

The tests described refer to n-channel devices; by reversing the test leads indicated in the text, p-channel types can also be checked.

#### Gate to source

With the multimeter set to highest resistance range ( $\times 10\text{M}\Omega$  or  $\times 100\text{M}\Omega$ ) check that the resistance between gate and source is infinite. Reverse the test leads and check again.



simple MOSFET check  
elektor september 1983

# simple MOSFET check

#### Drain to source (see figure 1)

- Set the multimeter to the lowest resistance range.
- Connect the (red) lead from the + terminal to the source, and the (black) lead from the - terminal to the gate. The gate is now forward biased.
- Move the black lead from the gate and connect it to the drain. The multimeter should now indicate zero ohms (see figure 1a)
- Connect the (black) lead from the - terminal to the source and the (red) one from the + terminal to the gate. The gate is now reverse biased.

- Connect the - lead to the drain and the positive one to the source (see figure 1b). The meter should not deflect because of the equivalent diode between drain and source. If now the + lead is connected to the drain and the negative one to the source, the meter should deflect.
- If the above checks are satisfactory, the device is perfectly fit for use. As many months of experience with, for instance, the 2SK135 and 2SJ50 MOSFETs has shown that these devices are very reliable, a negative result of the above checks is very unlikely.

1a



b



# technical answers

## Simple phase shifter for bridge circuit

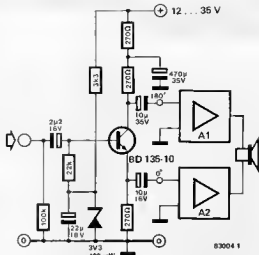
The question is often raised regarding the possibility of obtaining more output power with two identical power amplifiers in a bridge circuit.

According to the basic principle, two amplifiers connected in a bridge circuit theoretically produce four times the output power of a single amplifier at the same supply voltage. The loudspeaker in the bridge is provided with twice the voltage. However, this also means that the power amplifiers must supply twice the output current. A normal, properly rated output stage does not have this current reserve.

When a bridge circuit is used, therefore, the result is not necessarily four times the power, but a somewhat lower figure (depending on the maximum output current of the amplifier). If the amplifier is not equipped with a current limiting circuit, there is also a risk of overloading the output transistors.

Now let us examine the question of drive. The two amplifiers must be driven in phase-opposition; the loudspeaker is then connected between the two amplifier outputs. A suitable phase shifter consists of a transistor stage with emitter end

collector resistors of the same value. The signal at the collector is then identical with that at the emitter, but shifted by 180°. This is exactly what we need to drive two amplifiers in a bridge configuration. Thanks to the relatively high collector current of the 6O135, the output impedance of the phase shifter described here is so low that even amplifiers with an input impedance of only 1 k can be connected without problems. On the other hand, the 20 k input impedance of the phase shifter is high enough to allow the usual preamplifiers to be connected.



83004 1

# missing link

## car PDM amplifier (Summer circuits '83 page 7-36)

We regret that one illustration of the double-plated printed-circuit board of this amplifier was omitted from the Summer Circuits '83 issue. At the same time, the foil-side was omitted from the PC board pages. Both omissions are put right in the PC board pages in this issue.

## morse converter (may 1983 page 5-52)

Owing to an error in our master EPROM, the hexdump (table 4 - page 5-58) needs a correction: in address B68 the byte EB should be amended to 9B. Readers who have an erroneously coded EPROM can carry out the amendment quite simply, because the RAM of the expanded Junior has at address EB6C. The following should be typed in:

```
EB6C 4C
EB6D 6C
EB6E 9B JMP 0B6C
```

After the program has been copied to address 4000 and following, EA must be entered at addresses 4032...4034.

These amendments do NOT apply to the DOS Junior.

## floppy-disk interface for the Junior (December 1982 page 12-48)

Our attention has been drawn to a small omission in the December 1982 article on the OOS Junior. In the 3.3 version of the DOS Junior there is an Extended Monitor which permits, among other things, BREAK points to be placed in a program. Some readers who tried this discovered it was not quite possible. This is because the BREAK vector is not located correctly. All that's needed to put matters right is, after switching on the monitor, to place the following data into the addresses indicated.

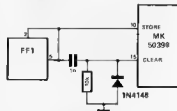
```
$FA7E $25
$FA7F $1B
```

Thus, the BREAK vector points to the routine which controls the BREAK points.

## elektor infocard 70

We regret that several errors and omissions crept into infocard 70. The value of capacitors C1...C16 = 150 pF. FF2 does not have a pin 16: this should be pin 14. The divider/counters are not type 4013 but type 4017.

Finally, an RC combination and diode were omitted: the connection between FF1 and the MK 50398 should be as shown below.



## elektor infocard 55

The formulas for the gain of both the Wien-Robinson bridge and twin-T filters contain errors. The correct formulas are:

Wien-Robinson

$$G = \frac{1 - \beta^2}{3 \sqrt{(1 - \beta^2)^2 + 9\beta^2}}$$

where  $\beta = 1/f_m$

Twin-T filters

$$G = \frac{1 - \beta^2}{\sqrt{(1 - \beta^2)^2 + 16\beta^2}}$$

where  $\beta = 1/f_m$

# coming soon...

Central heating controller  
Basicode  
Simple anemometer  
... and many more!



# market

## Multi-purpose DILswitch

The Erg SDS-1-015 is a low cost, single pole single throw, dual in-line switch. It has a very low profile, 5mm high. The switch is fully base sealed and besides its obvious uses in miniature and submini-



ature equipment, is ideal for on-board programming without the need for board removal from close racking systems. The switches can be stacked on a standard 2.54 mm p.c.b. pitch. Switching capability extends from 1  $\mu$ A to 1 A up to a maximum of 10 VA. Initial contact resistance is typically 20 m $\Omega$ , and insulation resistance 100 G $\Omega$ .

*Erg Components,  
Luton Road,  
Dunstable,  
Bedfordshire LU5 4LJ.  
Telephones: 0582 62241*

(2646 M)

## Multimeter temperature measurement

Anyone who has access to a digital multimeter can now use it as a versatile wide range temperature measuring instrument using standard type K thermocouples, by adding the DVM/TC Interface Unit.

This new device, at considerably lower cost than a dedicated instrument, has a temperature range of -50°C to +1100°C and incorporates automatic cold junction compensation. Thermocouples are attached through a miniature compensated socket. A basic thermocouple and mating

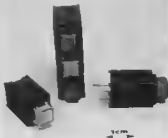


plug are supplied as standard with the instrument. The output of 1mV per degree centigrade is via a 0.75 metre coiled lead fitted with 4mm plugs. Long term stability is excellent and the low battery drain allows it to be used for continuous monitoring if necessary. Since the accuracy is not affected by the output loading, it may also be used to interface low output impedance instruments such as chart recorders.

*Graham Bell Instrumentation,  
PO Box 230,  
39 Derbyshire Lane,  
Sheffield, S8 0TH.  
Telephones: 0742.582370*

## LED switches

Ambit has added to its range of ALPS switch products with the new SPAE series of LED illuminated switches. The switch is available with a choice of red, green, orange and yellow LEDs, with corresponding diffuser caps (plus a clear diffuser option).



Either self locking or momentary action is available, with 120 gm pressure to operate the single pole contacts. LED illumination is independent of the switching action.

The switch is carefully designed with a sealed base as a result of the use of insert molding techniques.

*Ambit International,  
200 North Service Road,  
Brentwood,  
Essex CM14 4SG.*

(2641 M)

## Ultra violet exposure unit

Electronic Assistance Ltd. announce their new UV800 ultra-violet exposure unit. Using four 15 watt high efficiency Acrylic UV lamps, it is capable of photo etching over 800 sq cms of pre-sensitized circuit boards or labels in less than 3 minutes.

Timing for the UV fluorescent tubes is based on the ZN 1034E precision timer which achieves 0.1% repeatability over a wide temperature range.

The flame retardant foam pressure pad has been designed to follow a large radius arc



(2649 M)

when being closed thus preventing relative displacement of artwork and subject.

A positively interlocked microswitch prevents UV emission reaching the operator's eyes when the pressure pad is raised.

Also available is the smaller UV-300 unit which dispenses with the timer but retains the safety features

*Electronic Assistance Ltd.,  
Unit 1,  
Brynberth Industrial Estate,  
Rhydrafar,  
Poysy L06 5EN.  
Telephone: 0597.810711*

(2637 M)

## Power booster amplifiers

In addition to their existing 15 Watt (Rms) mono power booster amplifier ILP introduce the NEW low priced STEREO 15 Watt (Rms) per channel version.

Both modules are designed to increase the output power of existing low wattage car radio/cassette players giving the advantage of being able to overcome road and engine noise without introducing annoying distortion. In addition to their being compact and robust (and in encapsulated modular form), they have many important features such as easy two-hole fixing, screw ter-



mination connection blocks for easy wiring-up, automatic supply on switch-on, selectable input level facility and output protection circuitry.

*ILP Electronics Ltd.,  
Graham Bell House,  
Roper Close,  
Canterbury,  
Kent CT2 7EP  
Telephone: 0227.54778*

(2653 M)

### DILswitch

Dual in-line switch type SDDS-10-023 is the first in a new series from Erg. Pins are spaced on a 0.1in metric in such a way as to allow a saving of 30% of p.c.b. area. Containing 10 on/off switches, the module can be edge-mounted to allow programming without removing a p.c.b. from equipment. Front panel switching can easily and economically be achieved by simply edge-mounting the switch on the front edge of the p.c.b., and cutting a small, matching, rectangle in the panel. No additional mounting hardware is required. Each switch in the module can reliably switch from 1  $\mu$ V/1  $\mu$ A up to 10 VA. It is purpose designed for use on modern flow tooling and solvent cleaning assembly lines.



The base is totally sealed and the top is factory sealed with a removable, transparent tape. All SDDS switches meet BS 9565 and exceed MIL-S-83504. Colour-coded and numbered switch members show clearly the status of each individual switch at a glance. All switching contacts have one micron minimum of cobalt hardened gold over 2.5 microns nickel barrier for long and reliable switching life. The nylon case is flame proof to BS 2011 Pt2.1 Pz. The total SDDS range will include switches from 2 to 18-way.

*Erg Components,  
Luton Road,  
Dunstable,  
Beds LU5 4LJ,  
Telephone: 0582.62241*

(2730 M)

### Rugged calculator

Already tried and tested by users in eleven different countries, the HD 2202S executive calculator and HD 9000S scientific calculator are now available in the UK from Lawtons Limited. Tailor-made to withstand the rigours of daily use in factories, offices and on site, the Lawco HD calculators have been developed and perfected over a period of six years and feature a unique robust cover case support.

Protecting the calculator like a turtle in its shell, the hinged plastic cover is kept firmly locked by six strong moulded hooks, yet folds back to form a calculator support for table or desk top use. The 20° angle of the folded cover means the calculator is easy to read and operate even at a distance, thus leaving more desk space for working documents and notebooks. A

special machine, built to test the strength of the cover hinges, has opened and closed the cover case 2,739,416 times and is still trying to break it!

Specially constructed with a stainless steel plate reinforcing the LCD display area, both calculators are strongly built with battery springs made of hard stainless steel and connections between battery springs and circuit boards of soldered wires.

Designed for maximum simplicity in use the executive calculator has all the usual mathematical functions which might be required. The automatic power shut-off 8-9 minutes after the last entry ensures an operating life of 10,000 hours on one leak-proof lithium battery.

The more sophisticated scientific calculator with full statistical functions features true algebraic operating with no less than 8 pending operations. A unique display of the current number of pending operations and parentheses prevents most common errors. The 11 digit internal precision ensures accurate results under all circumstances. One leak-proof lithium battery ensures 3,000 hours of trouble free operation.



Guaranteed for 18 months the executive calculator is priced at £9.95 and the scientific calculator at £13.65 ex VAT with quantity discounts available.

*Lawtons Limited,  
Stationery & Storage Division,  
60 Vauxhall Road,  
Liverpool L69 3AU,  
Telephone: 051-227.1212*

(2741 M)

### New 'Z' multiswitch

Contraves Industrial Products Limited of Ruislip, Middlesex, have introduced a new 'Z' Series to their range of Multiswitch thumbwheel switches. Designed as a more compact version of the well established 'D' switch, the 'Z' Multiswitch is a step index, 10 position switch with BCD or decimal output codes. Its size: 15 mm



high x 7.82 mm wide x 18 mm diameter makes it ideal for use in compact instrumentation where space is at a premium. Basic technical data includes: -rated current (resistive load) 1-100 mA; maximum current carrying capacity 0.5 A; maximum working voltage 50 V; test voltage 500 V; contact resistance 100 m ohms; permissible ambient temperature -10...+60°C.

*Contraves Industrial Products Limited,  
Times House,  
Station Approach,  
Ruislip,  
Middlesex HA4 8LH,  
Telephone: 08956 30196.*

(2736 M)

### New Books

'Practical Design of Digital Circuits' by Ian Kempel (Newnes Technical Books). This is one of the more interesting books which reached us during the summer months. Newnes Technical Books has a name for publishing good-value-for-money works and the present one is no exception. 'Practical Design of Digital Circuits' is, true to its title, eminently practical in its approach. To quote the author in his foreword: 'There is no need for the designer to know how particular ICs function internally, for he uses them as black boxes.' The book is in three parts: the first gives a clear, well thought-out, introduction to basic logic, the second is concerned solely with digital design practice, and the third is dedicated to microprocessors. A number of useful appendices complete the book. A 'must' for the practising and aspiring designer of digital circuits alike.

# market

## Modular case system

Eltra Products Limited announce the introduction of a new modular case system for the construction of housings for electronic assemblies and instrument displays. Developed from the range of 'BEC cases, the new system is designed for use by manufacturers in the electronics industry or by D.I.Y. enthusiasts.

The new system comprises pre-formed body panels, faces and moulded end cheeks, which make up a wide variety of cases, ranging in size from 2 in. by 5 in. by 8 in. up to 2 in. by 5 in. by 13 in. All case sections are pre-punched for instant assembly and are available in a choice of white or black, with natural aluminium or black face panels. Polished teak veneered end cheeks are also available.



The cases are manufactured in plastic coated metal which is antistatic with high insulation and screening properties, and cheeks are in textured high impact resistant polystyrene.

Eltra Products Limited,  
Lyon Works,  
Capel Street,  
Sheffield S6 2NL,  
Telephone: 0742.339774

(2739 M)

## Digital plotter

House of Instruments announce a new drum plotter from Houston Instruments. The DMP 40 occupies a space of little more than one square foot yet combines sophisticated firmware options, plotting precision, speed, rugged reliability and ease of operation.

Sizes up to and including A4 and A3 are available on inexpensive media, and perforated or special sheets are not required. Plots, maps, formulae, graphs, script, block letters, drawings, geometric patterns and charts are all available, mistake-free, on ordinary bond paper, drafting vellum, acetate and mylar from data supplied by your mini, micro, mainframe computer, or by both novice and experienced operators. Routines within OM/PL 111 can automatically generate curves, arcs, ellipses and circles of any size. Eleven different line types (solid, dotted or dashed) are provided. Straight and slanted (italic) characters can be drawn at any of 360 possible angles and 255 sizes. Aspect control, in which one axis may be lengthened, as well as the capacity to plot only a portion of a



drawing (viewport), and to scale drawings up or down as required, are possible.

While manual entry and control are via a membrane keyboard, a built in RS 232C allows for interface with most current computers. An extensive self test and diagnostic repertoire enable the operator quickly and easily to determine the plotter status.

Exact registration during mono or multi-colour plots is achieved by a new paper drive system. Reliable, quiet and accurate stepper motors, controlled by dedicated microprocessors, drive both pen and drum. With both axes plotting in in-

crements of 0.005 inches, virtually step free traces are easily obtained. Stepper motors and associated logic have been refined by Houston Instruments over the years to provide highly reliable operation, generating repeatable plots of precisely defined resolution and high accuracy.

Quiswood Limited,  
30 Lancaster Road,  
St. Albans,  
Hertfordshire AL1 4ET,  
Telephone: 0799.24922

(2738 M)

# readership survey

## first results!

We are still busily counting and evaluating the response to the readership survey in our July/August edition. Although this work is by no means completed, some findings are already obvious. In the first place, some 80 per cent of the replies express a genuine interest in the results, while only a few per cent consider it 'a waste of paper'. Several readers remarked that 'the competition should be interested, too!' True enough, and most of them have a free subscription. So here's something for them to chew on.

We printed the PC board layouts on special pages (mirror image, with the reverse side blank) as an experiment. We thought this would make life easier for everyone who reproduces the boards with photosensitive material. Apparently, we scored a hit: over 30 per cent of our readers ticked the box 'Those special pages

are a great help!' As of now, those pages are no longer an 'experiment' - they are a standard Elektor feature!

One reader even described how he had been using a similar technique for years. Evidently, he erases the printing on the reverse side with emery paper ('very carefully'), and uses sewing-machine oil to make the paper transparent. He sent us a board he had produced in this way and, believe it or not, it proved to be extremely good!

The other results? It's early days yet: we haven't completed the evaluation. But we will publish them as soon as they're available - possibly even next month. Just one more is worth noting: against 'Editorial introduction/opinion?', most readers ticked 'I'm neutral'. So, this is not an introduction, nor is it an opinion.

## PC board pages

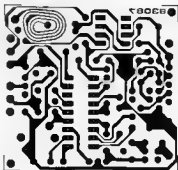
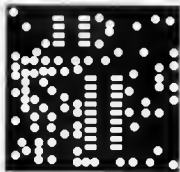
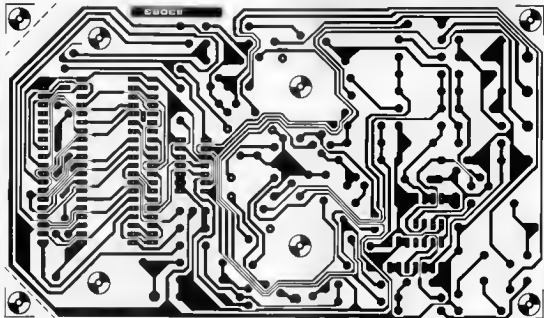
- In view of the enthusiastic response from our readers, we have decided to continue the experimental provision of the special PC board pages. We will, however, review their inclusion from time to time on the basis of readers' interest. The pages contain the mirror images of the track layout of the printed circuit boards (excluding double-plated ones as these are very tricky to make at home) relating to projects featured in this issue to enable you to make, that is, etch, your own boards.
- To do this, you require: an aerosol of 'ISOdraft' transparentizer (available from your local drawing office suppliers; distributors for the UK: Cannon & Wrin), an ultraviolet lamp, etching sodium, ferric chloride, positive photo-sensitive board material (which can be either bought or home made by applying

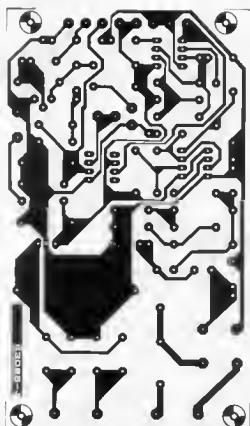
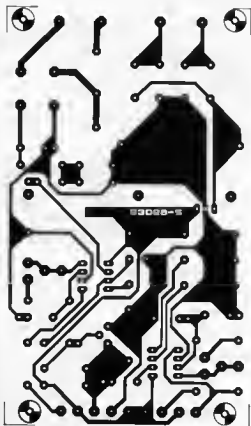
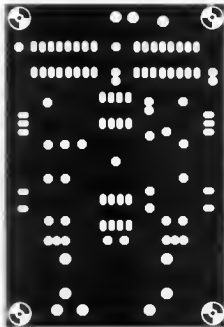
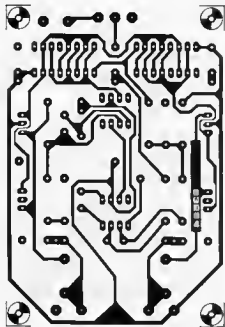
a film of photo-copying lacquer to normal board material).

- Wet the photo-sensitive (track) side of the board thoroughly with the transparent spray.
- Lay the layout cut from the relevant page of this magazine with its printed side onto the wet board. Remove any air bubbles by carefully 'ironing' the cut-out with some tissue paper.
- The whole can now be exposed to ultra-violet light. Use a glass plate for holding the layout in place only for long exposure times, as normally the spray ensures that the paper sticks to the board. Bear in mind that normal plate glass (but not crystal glass or perspex) absorbs some of the ultra-violet light so that the exposure time has to be increased slightly.
- The exposure time is dependent upon the ultra-violet lamp used,

the distance of the lamp from the board, and the photo-sensitive board. If you use a 300 watt UV lamp at a distance of about 40 cm from the board and a sheet of perspex, an exposure time of 4...8 minutes should normally be sufficient.

- After exposure, remove the layout sheet (which can be used again), and rinse the board thoroughly under running water.
- After the photo-sensitive film has been developed in sodium lye (about 9 grammes of etching sodium to one litre of water), the board can be etched in ferric chloride (500 grammes of  $FeCl_2$  to one litre of water). Then rinse the board (and your hands!) thoroughly under running water.
- Remove the photo-sensitive film from the copper tracks with wire wool and drill the holes.







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**RAMS**, set of 8, 4118, £5. EPROMS, 5 V, 2718, 2532, 2 of each, all for £7. 6502 CPU, 6522 PIA, both for £4. Bench meter 6" scale, £20. Mr R. Minchin, 51 Thurlfeigh Road, London SW12 8TZ.

**WANTED**, circuit and pinout of SN 76489. Want to make contact with friendly Elektor readers for corresponding on electronics and computing. Write me soon. Hamid Reza-Tajzadeh, 4th floor, no. 11, Street no. 3, Noarmack, Tehran 16479, Iran.

**ACORN ATOM** fully expanded 6V7A PSU. Twin A/O. Fully proportional joystick. All in custom task cabinet, £200 o.n.o. Tel. 0264 54748 (Andover).

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**HELP!** Need instructions to build 'CY — ENOFIELD' Micro-writer. B. Schlatter, Shin-ogawa-Machi 6-18, Edogawa-Aparto 56, 162 Tokyo, Japan.

**WANTED**. ZX — Spectrum circuit diagram, advise TMS4532 — 20NLA ORAM equivalent replacement. Uri Sela, Kibutz Lehavot-Habshah, 12125 Israel.

**WANTED**: Circuit diagram and workshop info, for Leak Stereo 30 amplifier. Your price or borrow for copying, Philip West, 2/26 Stirling Road, Birmingham B16 9BB.

**STEREO DISCO MIXER-2** magnetic p.u.s + aux + micoutfads. deck switches etc. great sound £50. o.n.o. Tel. Rochdale 0706 50223

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**WANTED** Circuit diagrams for TRD 522 Reel-to-reel tape and pre-amplifier unit. Will pay cost and postage. D. Jones, 60 Sutton Lane, Balla Vaa, Shrewsbury, Shropshire SY3 70Q. Tel. Shrewsbury 59932.

**WANTED** AY-3-8610, ZX81 kit or ready-built. V. Vitovec, Pilestredet 31/3/20, Oslo 1, Norway.

**WANTED** CCT diagram of Motorola MPU System using 6800, 6830, 6821, 6850 with Hex I/O. Hand drawn CCT O.K. E.G. Awororo, 28 Eboho Road O/L, Warri Bendel, Nigeria.

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\*Projects for Book 8 were in an advanced state at the time of writing, but contents may change prior to publication (due 13th August 1983)

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