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A REED BUSINESS PUBLICATION FOR DISTRIBUTION

## Class-T audio power: switching hi-fi at last?

**Uses for log  
amplifiers**

**Current conveyors  
made simple**

**Simple  
millivoltmeter  
works to 5MHz**

**Mega Circuit  
Ideas section**

**Life and times  
of JLH**

**Room acoustics**

**See the famous  
Williamson valve  
amp on p. 328**



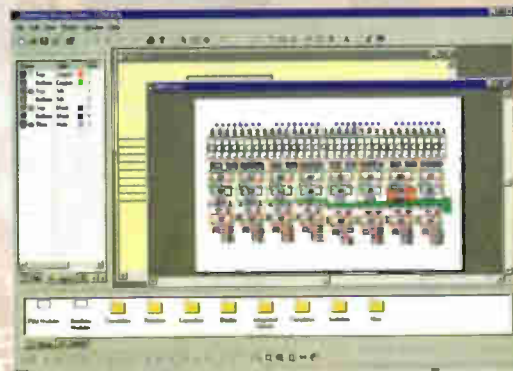
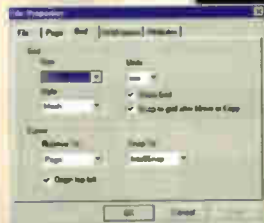


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CIRCLE NO. 101 ON REPLY CARD



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## 281 MEASURE AC MILLIVOLTS TO 5MHZ

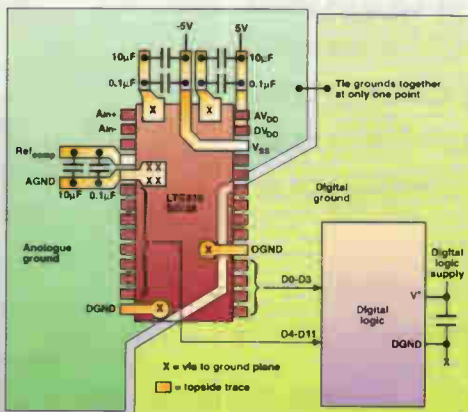
**Cyril Bateman's** high-performance millivoltmeter has a wide dynamic range and bandwidth. It even indicates a couple of millivolts at 5MHz, yet it is easy to put together and calibrate as an add-on or as a stand-alone meter.

## 290 CIRCUIT IDEAS

- Wide-range  $h_{FE}$  tester uses no meter
- Photoelectric tilt sensor
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- Solid-state relay, EMC-friendly
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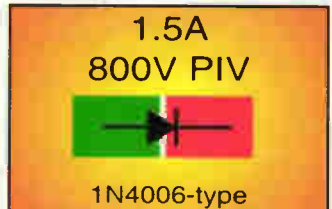
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*Do your a-to-d converter circuits never seem to perform as they should? Steve Bush presents an easy to assimilate analysis of the problems involved on page 304.*



Illustration **Hashim Akib**



### FREE WITH THIS ISSUE:

Free with this month's issue\* is a pack of four SS4006 power rectifier diodes. Similar to the 1N4006, but with a 1.5A current handling capability as opposed to 1A, these diodes are excellent general-purpose rectifiers. Turn to page 287 for more details.  
\*UK readers only.



*IBM researchers have found a way to project information using the wave nature of electrons to replace wires in tomorrow's ultra-high density chips. See page 272.*

*Ever tried to measure a few millivolts at 5MHz? Cyril Bateman's meter can, and it does so with a wide dynamic range – turn to page 281.*



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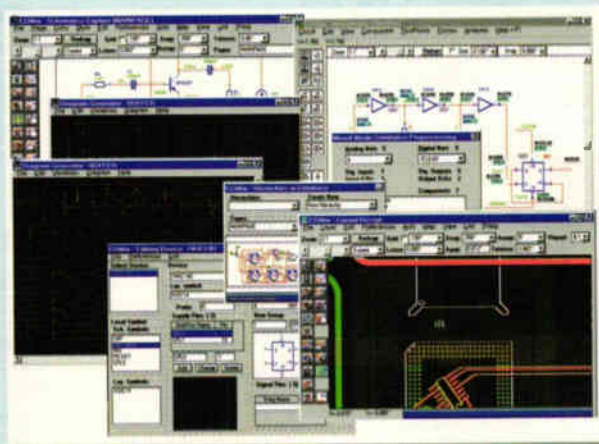
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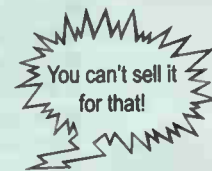
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# Matters of perception

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020 8261 7704

ISSN 0959-8332

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**G**reed and stupidity often go together. And for product and service providers targeting the consumer market this is no bad thing. The painless extraction of money from happy punters is a tricky pursuit, and their insatiable desire for bargains and greater sophistication in technical goodies makes the task of marketing such products a lot easier.

Such a crude and cynical assessment may offend some sensibilities, but it's not far from the truth. It's also demonstrable that as consumers willingly assimilate this heady diet of high technology, their desire is stimulated for even more. This suits the vendors, who clearly wish to do nothing that might obstruct their customers' maturing aspirations.

Unfortunately, although customer aspirations may be agreeably mature, vendors are not always possessed of the ability or the willingness to fulfil them. And this is where problems start to appear. However dumb we imagine Joe Public to be, he's not stupid and doesn't like being sold a pup.

All too often now vendors make promises they clearly cannot fulfil. Take cable modems for example. They've been trumpeted as the bringer of low-cost, high-bandwidth data connectivity to the home.

Here in Britain we've been promised cable modems since autumn 1996 and apart from a few pilot schemes, we're still waiting. Not that they're worth waiting for necessarily; many pundits are convinced that data rates will plummet once everyone starts surfing so perhaps the modems won't be so magical after all.

Digital television is another case in point. For two years or more, cable operators have been promising digital cable to viewers, with stunning interactive services and hundreds of channels. Taking the country as a whole, the reality is just not here yet. So why make empty promises?

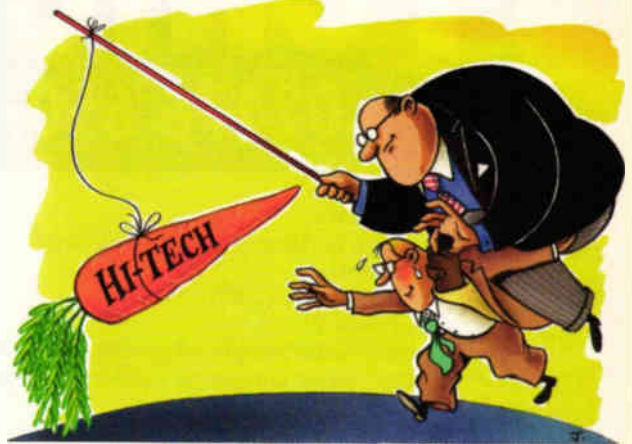
'Always on' Internet access is another holy grail being touted – in the form of ADSL – but it's a mighty long time coming.

Actually there's a good reason why BT is holding back on rolling out this technology; it is neither cheap nor mature and early adopters may find reality different from the dream. BT is already discovering this, with a scenario painfully similar to when KiloStream was installed back in 1983.

Insiders relate that ADSL works fine over freshly installed cabling, but it's a very different story using real-world line plant, with dry joints, damp manholes and aluminium cable. A significant proportion of residential lines will be totally unsuitable for this transmission technology and if you thought the 3km limiting line length of Home Highway was a drawback, just wait till you see the demands that ADSL puts on line plant.

From all this the clear – but apparently unheeded – message is that vendors and service providers who promise much but deliver less, and late, run the risk of alienating customers.

Those of you with long memories may recall the lengthy and relentless run-up before Citizens' Band radio was legalised. The product flopped soon after consumer launch –



a classic case of an offering that brought little or no genuine public benefit.

Ionica's telephone service delivered by radio was also high on hype and low – and slow – on delivery; the promised ISDN capability missed two annual deadlines and never materialised, while in areas of high demand the company was unable to provide service to all comers.

One of the factors behind customers' enthusiastic desire for these oversold goodies is the largely ill-informed consumer press that prints any old flannel that equally ill-informed PR types send out.

British Satellite Broadcasting's original mini-Squarial was a case in point. The men in suits insisted their tiny dish was capable of receiving satellite transmissions, even though the technical press pointed out this was scientifically unfeasible.

Eventually the techies were shown to be right and the suits were proved wrong. But until then the public deception continued. The tragedy is that if you print the same drivel often enough, people will eventually believe it.

We're seeing this currently with the Campaign for Unmetered Telecommunications – a remarkable example of commercial self-interest promoted under the guise of benefiting the public at large. Make no mistake: the chief beneficiaries of unmetered, or untimed, local calls will be big business, subsidised by an ignorant public.

Business organisations, which make the bulk of local calls at present and correctly pay for them at expensive daytime rates, will see their bills plummet. Internet service providers too will cash in on a colossal increase in business.

Meanwhile you, me and the rest of the great public will be paying for this, with the cost burden shifted from those with lots of money to those with far less.

Taking the public for a ride is not difficult; these issues all prove it. Truth comes out eventually, however, and bitter memories can influence future purchasing decisions. When it comes to grappling with technology, the public deserves better information from those in the know. ■

Andrew Emmerson

*Electronics World* is published monthly. By post, current issue £2.65, back issues (if available) £3.00. Orders, payments and general correspondence to **L333, Electronics World, Quadrant House, The Quadrant, Sutton, Surrey SM2 5AS. Tlx:892984 REED BP G.** Cheques should be made payable to Reed Business Information Ltd. **Newstrade:** Distributed by Marketforce (UK) Ltd, 247 Tottenham Court Road London W1P 0AU 0171 261-5108.

**Subscriptions:** Quadrant Subscription Services, Oakfield House Perryman Road, Haywards Heath, Sussex RH16 3DH. Telephone 01444 445566. Please notify change of address. Subscription rates 1 year UK £36.00 2 years £58.00 3 years £72.00. Europe/Eu 1 year £51.00 2 years £82.00 3 years £103.00. ROW 1 year £61.00 2 years £98.00 3 years £123

**Overseas advertising agents:** France and Belgium: Pierre Mussard, 18-20 Place de la Madeleine, Paris 75008. United States of America: Roy Barnes, Reed Business Publishing Ltd, 475 Park Avenue South, 2nd Fl New York, NY 10016 Tel: (212) 679 8888 Fax: (212) 679 9455

**USA mailing agents:** Mercury Airfreight International Ltd Inc, 10(b) Englehard Ave, Avenel NJ 07001. Periodicals Postage Paid at Rahway NJ Postmaster. Send address changes to above.

**Printed by** Polestar (Colchester) Ltd, **Filmsetting by** JJ Typographics Ltd, Unit 4 Baron Court, Chandlers Way, Southend-on-Sea, Essex S52 5SE.

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## Chip firms encourage distributor Web sites

Top semiconductor manufacturers are urging their distributors to put more of their services on the Internet.

Infineon Technologies' managing director Paul Rozier wants to see distributors putting prices, quotes, lead-times, sample ordering and business tracking onto the Web. "We'd also like to know who's accessing that information so we can follow up," said Rozier. Implementing it could be two years away though.

At STMicroelectronics, Ollie Althorpe, said: "Our product range is so broad that the Internet is a very viable methodology for touching our end customers." ST is working towards having distributors Web sites linked to ST's Web sites so ST can publish

and update information on distributors' Web sites.

Motorola is developing a web-interface with all its distributors worldwide and hopes to have it up and running by June. When Rosetta-net – the standards for Web-based distribution – is completed, Motorola is one of a number of suppliers intending to adopt it.

National Semiconductor also expects to have its distributors on a Web-based system within six months' time. "When Rosetta-net becomes a reality everyone will use it, but it's maybe a year away. We don't want to wait for it: we'll go ahead without it," said Ray Sinclair, European distribution manager.

"We don't have any set

requirements for distributors – it's up to them," said Elaine Burroughs sales boss at ON Semiconductor, "the ones we would be most concerned about being strong on the Internet are the catalogue people."

At Mitsubishi, deputy divisional managing director for semiconductors, Stephen Manley said: "Locally we have put together a task-force to see where we're going."

Samsung Semiconductors remains relaxed. "We don't request much from our distributors in the way of Internet-based services and I'm not sure we're going to request much in the future," said Yves Leonard, senior manager for distribution and e-commerce.

*David Manners Electronics Weekly*

## Electronic ID on your mobile phone

Mobile phones could be used as a means of electronic identification if a pioneering project in Finland proves successful.

Sonera SmartTrust, a division of Finnish telecoms operator Sonera, and the Finnish Population Register Centre (FPRC) are aiming to place all the information normally held on an electronic ID card onto a mobile phone SIMcard.

SmartTrust will be providing the secure wireless technology for the project while FPRC will provide the electronic certificate that contains the cardholder's electronic identity needed for secure identification. Use of the electronic ID is backed up by a personal identification number.

The scheme will allow a user to identify themselves on Internet, WAP and telephone services. The certificate will be read when the phone connects to the service provider and transactions are carried out using the text based short message service, SMS.

"Identification without physical documents will be one of the basic elements of the future information society," said Harri Vatanen, Sonera SmartTrust's CEO. "This solution will be quick and easy to implement as there are over three million card readers, namely mobile phones, in Finland."

The technology is compatible with GSM as well as future mobile standards and it is claimed it could be used anywhere in the world.

Electronic ID cards were introduced to the public in Finland in December 1999.

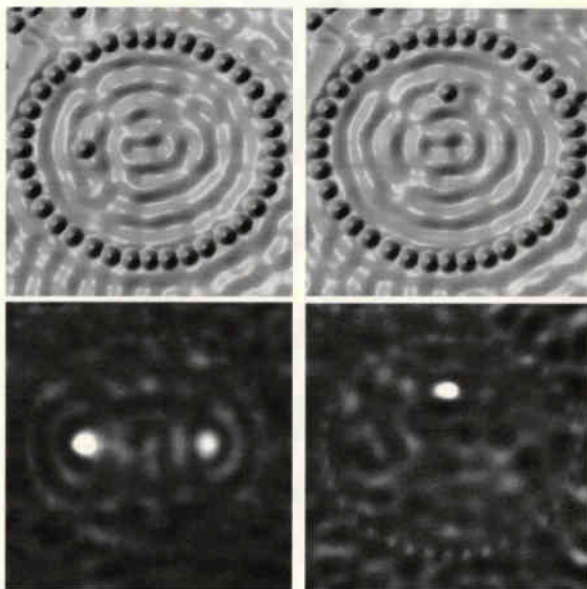
### Why not buy two mobile phones?

A frightening prospect was advanced by several people at the GSM World Congress – a world where people have more than one mobile handset.

According to Val Jervis, a principal consultant at Netcom Consultants, this has already happened in Finland in the 18 to 25 year old age group where mobile penetration has reached 150 per cent.

Andy Craigen from Lucent Technologies believes people owning more than one device is going to be the way forward for the industry, maybe one device for work and one for social use. "If they want to continue to grow, what they are going to try and look at doing is build different products for different lifestyles."

Hans Snook, CEO of Orange prediction went even further: "Penetration rates reaching 300 per cent and perhaps beyond."



*Wireless ICs... IBM scientists claim to have perfected a technique known as 'quantum mirage' where information is projected using the wave nature of electrons rather than a wire. The upper left picture shows a magnetic cobalt atom placed at a focus point of an elliptical corral, some of its properties also appear at the other focus, lower left, where no atoms exists and appears as a bright spot at each focus. When the cobalt atom is placed elsewhere within the ellipse, but not at a focus point, upper right, the mirage disappears, lower right, and the effect is detected only at the cobalt atom itself. It has the potential to enable data transfer within future nanoscale electronic circuits so small that conventional wires do not work.*

*See page 272 for more...*



## European drive for a black box recorder in your car

Black box data recorders are set to become a standard feature of cars in the next decade.

The benefits of accident data recorders were outlined at a government conference on February 9 by Peter Needham, product and training manager for VDO Kienzle.

"It [the black box] significantly affects driver behaviour," Needham explained.

VDO has fitted recorders in fleets of

vehicles across Europe, including police cars and taxis.

"The Berlin police saw a 20 per cent reduction in accident rate," said Needham. A series of spectacular crashes led the police to fit the recorders, which led to a 25 per cent drop in costs.

"Inevitably the private motorist will have one of these black boxes in the future," Needham predicts. "It may require legislation to ensure that all vehicles have one."

There are two forms of black box: journey recorders and accident data recorders. The former is used for fleet management, continually logging times of use and speeds.

"An accident data recorder will store the last 30 seconds before the accident and 15 seconds after," said Needham.

Data can be downloaded to a PC to find out what the vehicle was doing during the accident, and pinpointing who was at fault.

## Well rattle my DSP...

A digital signal processor so energy efficient that it can be powered by mechanical vibration has been developed at MIT.

"The focus [of the work] is on a picoJoule DSP for a broad spectrum of sensor applications," said Professor Anantha Chandrakasan of MIT's Microsystems Technology Laboratory.

Adding a micro-electromechanical system (MEMS) transducer and a conversion IC, and the DSP can be run using mechanical vibrations as

the energy source.

The DSP is aimed at security applications and the processing of heartbeats. Using all three devices makes self-powered machine-mounted sensors and the like become possible.

The MEMS transducer works by converting the external vibrations into a voltage. It has a central mass whose movement, due to a linkage mechanism, is confined to the horizontal. Fingers are etched on the mass and onto two fixed combs such that when they slide past each other, a variable area capacitance results.

Charge is placed on the capacitor when it's at its peak value. As the external vibration prisms the fingers apart, the voltage and the energy stored in the capacitor increases. Once the fingers stop, the charge is removed at a higher voltage and returned to the energy source.

"You need to know when the capacitance is at the maximum," Chandrakasan says. The conversion IC evaluates the capacitance to generate the necessary timing. It uses the generated energy to produce a stable voltage for the DSP.

As for the 190 000 transistor DSP, it comprises a distributed arithmetic unit, a non-linear filtering unit and a

programmable microcontroller. When processing heartbeat signals from an acoustic sensor, for example, the distributed arithmetic unit (DAU) match-filters the incoming signal.

Since low-bandwidth signals are processed, the input data is clocked into the DSP at 1.2kHz. Processing the data requires a faster 250kHz clock.

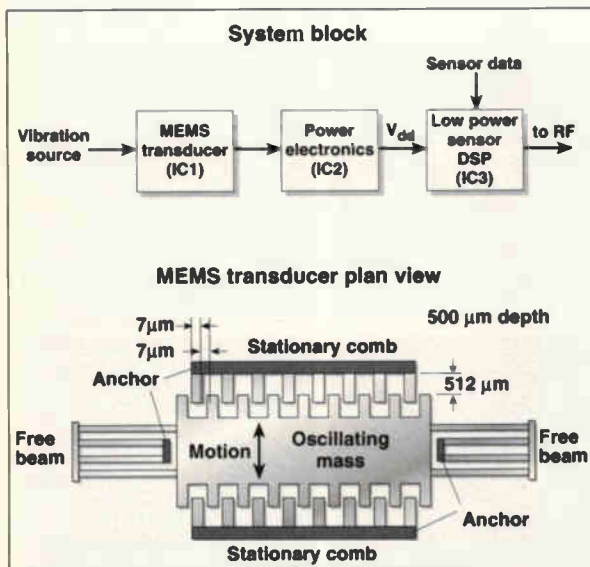
"Because the circuit doesn't operate fast, the supply voltage can be reduced right down," said Chandrakasan. The result is a 1.5V operating voltage with a power consumption of 560nW.

The DAU is designed such that the input data can be processed with varying bit-length accuracy, starting with the two most significant bits first. Using less bits saves on the overall switching but at a cost of processing accuracy.

The match-filtered output is divided into time segments that contain events to be processed by the classifier. It is the on-chip microcontroller that performs the feature extraction and classification.

MIT has fully tested the DSP and controller IC while the MEMS part has just been fabricated. "The fingers move when you excite it," said Chandrakasan. The full system will be tested in the next few months, he added.

*A digital signal processor so efficient it can be powered via mechanical vibration.*



## BBC awaits decisions on digital funding

Government ministers and the BBC are close to deciding on how the nation will pay for the development of the Corporation's plans for digital TV. Discussions are nearing completion on which of three options should be adopted.

The BBC, Ten Downing Street, the Treasury, and the Department of Culture Media and Sport have been involved in protracted negotiations over the government's response to the inquiry into the funding of the BBC chaired by economist Gavyn Davies.

While they accept the BBC needs more money, the argument is over how much and how it should be raised.

The three options are:

- To make a one off higher than inflation increase in the basic licence fee for analogue television to find the money.
- To peg the main licence fee to inflation or less and impose a special extra fee on digital sets.
- Increase the main licence fee by a smaller amount and impose a smaller surcharge on digital sets.

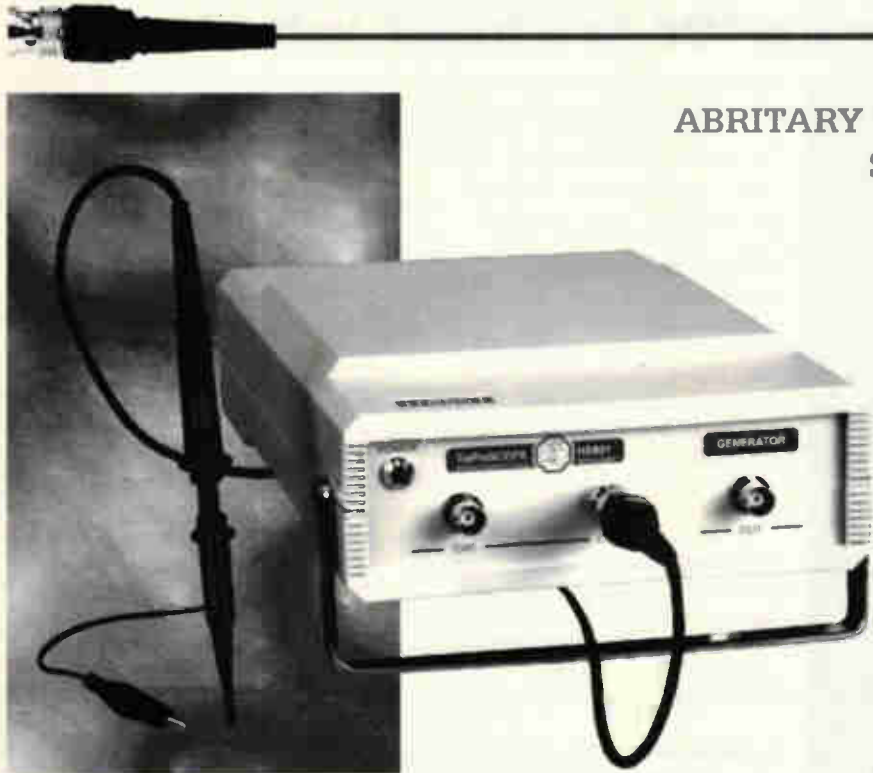
The last two options face problems as there is currently no technology to allow TV detector vans to distinguish between analogue and

digital equipment while the Data Protection Act prevents the government requiring BSkyB, On-Digital and any other operators to hand over subscriber lists. They would require either technical advances or new legislation to go ahead.

But a major increase in the main licence fee for analogue sets would be politically unpopular with a general election now on the horizon. Any increase by the government would ignore the recommendations of a cross-party Culture, Media and Sport committee which believes there should be no extra money for BBC digital services.



# TiePieScope HS801 PORTABLE MOST



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# Reliability

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- The versatile software has a user-defined toolbar with which over 50 instrument settings quick and easy can be accessed. An intelligent auto setup allows the inexperienced user to perform measurements immediately. Through the use of a setting file, the user has the possibility to save an instrument setup and recall it at a later moment. The setup time of the instrument is hereby reduced to a minimum.
- When a quick indication of the input signal is required, a simple click on the auto setup button will immediately give a good overview of the signal. The auto setup function ensures a proper setup of the time base, the trigger levels and the input sensitivities.
- The sophisticated cursor read outs have 21 possible read outs. Besides the usual read outs, like voltage and time, also quantities like rise time and frequency are displayed.
- Measured signals and instrument settings can be saved on disk. This enables the creation of a library of measured signals. Text balloons can be added to a signal, for special comments. The (colour) print outs can be supplied with three common text lines (e.g. company info) on three lines with measurement specific information.
- The HS801 has an 8 bit resolution and a maximum sampling speed of 100 MHz. The input range is 0.1 volt full scale to 80 volt full scale. The record length is 32K/64K samples. The AWG has a 10 bit resolution and a sample speed of 25 MHz. The HS801 is connected to the parallel printer port of a computer.
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## Inter-chip data transfer without wires



Scientists at IBM have discovered a way of transferring information at the atomic level which could enable data transfer in ICs without using wires.

IBM's researchers in Almaden, California discovered the effect, called 'quantum mirage', when shifting atoms around with a scanning tunneling microscope.

"This is a fundamentally new way of guiding information through a solid," said Donald Eigler, IBM's lead researcher on the project. "We call it a mirage because we project information about one atom to another spot where there is no atom."

At the atomic level, an electron's behaviour changes from the classical physics description to a wave-like, quantum mechanics version.

So shrinking electronic circuits comes up against a law of diminishing returns as speeds

reduce. In the long term future new techniques will be needed to transfer data within a chip.

In order to create the quantum mirage, a few tens of cobalt atoms are placed in an ellipse shape on a copper surface. Each ellipse is up to 20nm long and 10nm wide.

When a magnetic cobalt atom is placed at one focus of the ellipse, its quantum wave function is reflected by the 'quantum corral' of cobalt atoms. An image of the atom is seen at the other focus of the ellipse, even though no atom is actually there.

The intensity of the mirage is about one-third of the intensity around the cobalt atom.

"We have become quantum mechanics - engineering and exploring the properties of quantum states," Eigler said. "We're paving the way for the future nanotechnicians."

*Quantum corral... This energy plot shows the effect of placing a magnetic cobalt atom at one focus of an elliptical ring of 36 cobalt atoms. Some of the atom's properties suddenly appear at the other focus point of the ellipse, where no atom exists. Thus information is transmitted, without the need for wires or other physical links.*

## At last, three-dimensional TV without specs

Philips is shipping prototypes of its 3D television system which does away with those silly plastic glasses, which have been a feature of 3D viewing since the 1950s.

Developed over the last six years at Philips' research centre in Redhill, Surrey, the system uses a set of lenticular lenses in front of

liquid crystal displays (LCDs).

This type of autostereoscopic display uses the lenses to create 'segments' of different pixels. Each eye is within a different segment, and so sees a different set of pixels and image.

"We use lenticular lenses over the LCDs. These cylindrical

microlenses make specific pixels visible only from specific angles," said Cees van Berkel, from Philips Research Labs. "Our eyes look at the LCD/lenticular under different angles and therefore see different images. The software of course has to provide the right pixel pattern."

By providing not two but as many as nine different views, the image can be viewed from almost any angle or distance, said van Berkel.

A high number of images also makes the image changes smoother as the head is moved through the segments, although it reduces resolution.

Back in 1996 the firm was using VGA screens, but has now increased resolution by using 15in. XGA and 18in. SXGA displays driven by PCs.

The lenticular sheet of lenses is bonded to the front of the LCD, adding just millimetres to the display's thickness.

The main barrier to commercial products is developing software to provide the correct pixel patterns. The firm is shipping prototypes to application developers and academic institutions.

*Richard Ball Electronics Weekly*

### Wireless home networking gets a boost

Two new extensions to the HomeRF wireless networking standard will be considered at a working group meeting to be held in Dallas, Texas late in February.

The home networking additions are HomeRF Multimedia and HomeRF Lite. Philips Semiconductors, one of the companies that make up the HomeRF working group, is proposing that the multimedia extension has a data rate of at least 20Mbit/s.

"This is the minimum rate needed for high-definition TV," said Craig Conkling, Philips' marketing manager for wireless connectivity.

HomeRF Lite, meanwhile, is being proposed as a low cost, low data rate - around 128kbit/s - networking scheme for such items as thermostats, home security and PC peripherals.

Extending the data rate of the HomeRF

standard is key if it is to keep pace with such standards as HiperLAN 2 and IEEE 802.11a. "IEEE 802.11a is pushing 54Mbit/s as the data rate of choice," said Conkling.

### Some relief for small businesses

A new bill introduced by Secretary of State for Trade and Industry Stephen Byers is designed to encourage entrepreneurship and risk taking.

The Insolvency Bill proposes the introduction of Company Voluntary Arrangements, which will give a breathing space to small businesses in difficulty, allowing them a chance to organise a rescue plan.

Byers said: "Promoting entrepreneurship and responsible risk taking in the UK is a key element in fostering a more competitive nation. The new regime proposed in the Insolvency Bill would help to achieve that."



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- FCT, F, FC, HCT, L, LS, S.
- Add additional parts as they come out
- Now you can store a symbol to the database after editing it in the workshop, alternatively create your own parts
- Change a device's symbol quickly and easily

The image displays several screenshots from the B<sup>2</sup> SPICE 2000 software. On the left, there are circuit diagrams, including one labeled 'Multiple Feedback HPF'. In the center, a 'Manufacturers Simulation View' window lists various manufacturers such as Advanced Linear Devices, Amp, Analog Devices, Apex, Burr Brown, and others. On the right, there is a graph titled 'Filters c04-Small Signal AC-1' showing a frequency response curve. Below the graph is a component list with columns for 'A1', 'A2', 'A4', 'A8', and '000'. At the bottom left, another graph shows a time-domain waveform with a y-axis ranging from -1200 to 1000 and an x-axis labeled 'TIME'.

### New Analogue Models and functions

gain, summer, multiplier, divider, piecewise linear controlled source, analogue switch, limiter, zener diode, current limiter, hysteresis block differentiator, integrator, s-domain transfer block, slew rate block, inductive coupling, magnetic core, controlled sine wave oscillator, controlled triangle wave oscillator, controlled square wave oscillator, controlled one-shot, capacitance meter, inductance meter, controlled limiter.

### New Digital Models

There are so many we have not enough room here to list them. Please see our web site at [www.looking.co.uk/spice](http://www.looking.co.uk/spice) for a full list.



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# Is Class-T hi-fi?

For some time now, designers have been striving to design hi-fi amplifiers that waste less power. Ingenious solutions have appeared, but the holy grail of low distortion combined with high efficiency has proved elusive. Ian Hickman has been investigating a new approach to the problem – the Class-T. Do we finally have a switching amplifier that can be called hi-fi?



**M**y first real h-fi amplifier, which in the late fifties replaced an earlier puny transistor 'power' amplifier, was that classic design – a Williamson. Its Gilson output transformer had 43% screen grid tapings, and was driven by KT66 output valves.

In the early sixties, in search of something smaller and less like an electric heater, the Williamson was replaced by a well known class B design, due to Tobey and Dinsdale.<sup>1</sup> Like all Class-B audio amplifiers, this was set up with the optimum amount of forward bias to minimise crossover distortion, making it in effect class AB.

Later, I experimented with a Class-D amplifier, which was also published originally in these pages.<sup>2</sup> For readers not familiar with Class-D operation, or who might want to experiment with it, its circuit is reproduced here as Fig. 1. Note that the original circuit is reproduced here verbatim – R<sub>7</sub> should have read 1.5kΩ.

**Class-D operation**

Briefly, the circuit works as follows. Positive feedback from Tr<sub>4,5</sub> emitters via R<sub>12</sub> to the base of Tr<sub>2</sub> causes Tr<sub>2,5</sub> to act as a bistable latch. Consequently, the output connection to the loudspeaker is driven to one or other supply rail.

However, negative feedback is applied from the output, via R<sub>8</sub>, to the base of Tr<sub>1</sub>. This transistor acts as an

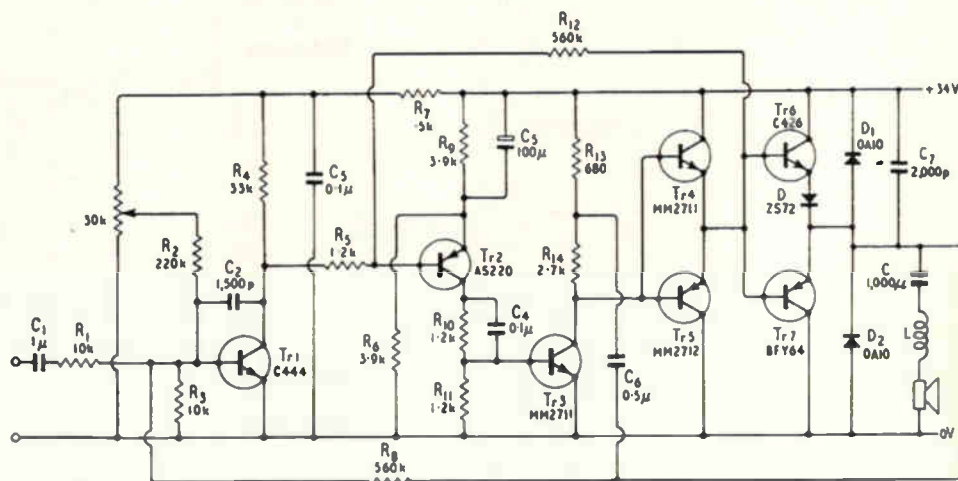


Fig. 1. Class-D amplifier design from 1967. With no signal input, drive to the loudspeaker is a supersonic square wave. An input signal modulates the mark:space ratio of the drive to the speaker. For more on this particular circuit, see ref. 2.

integrator due to C<sub>2</sub>, and its output rapidly slews until it reaches the point where it sets the bistable latch to the opposite state, whereupon the sequence repeats in the reverse direction.

In the absence of any input signal, the output applied to the loudspeaker is a supersonic square wave, which produces no audible output. An audio signal applied to the input, at C<sub>1</sub>, modifies the mark-space ratio, resulting in a corresponding audio component in the output.

The output transistors experience negligible dissipation. Regardless of the presence or absence of any audible signal, they are at all times either bottomed or cut off; only their mark-space

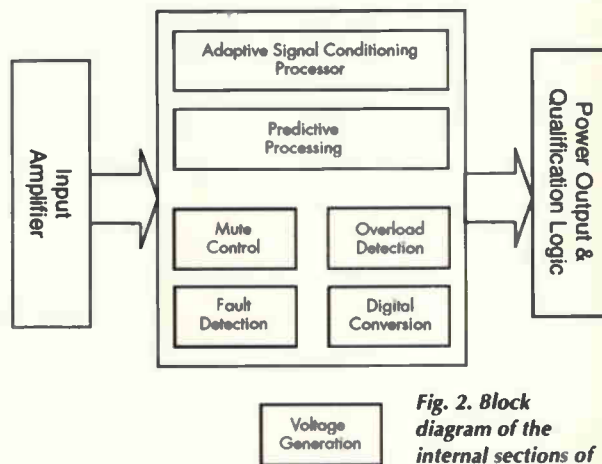
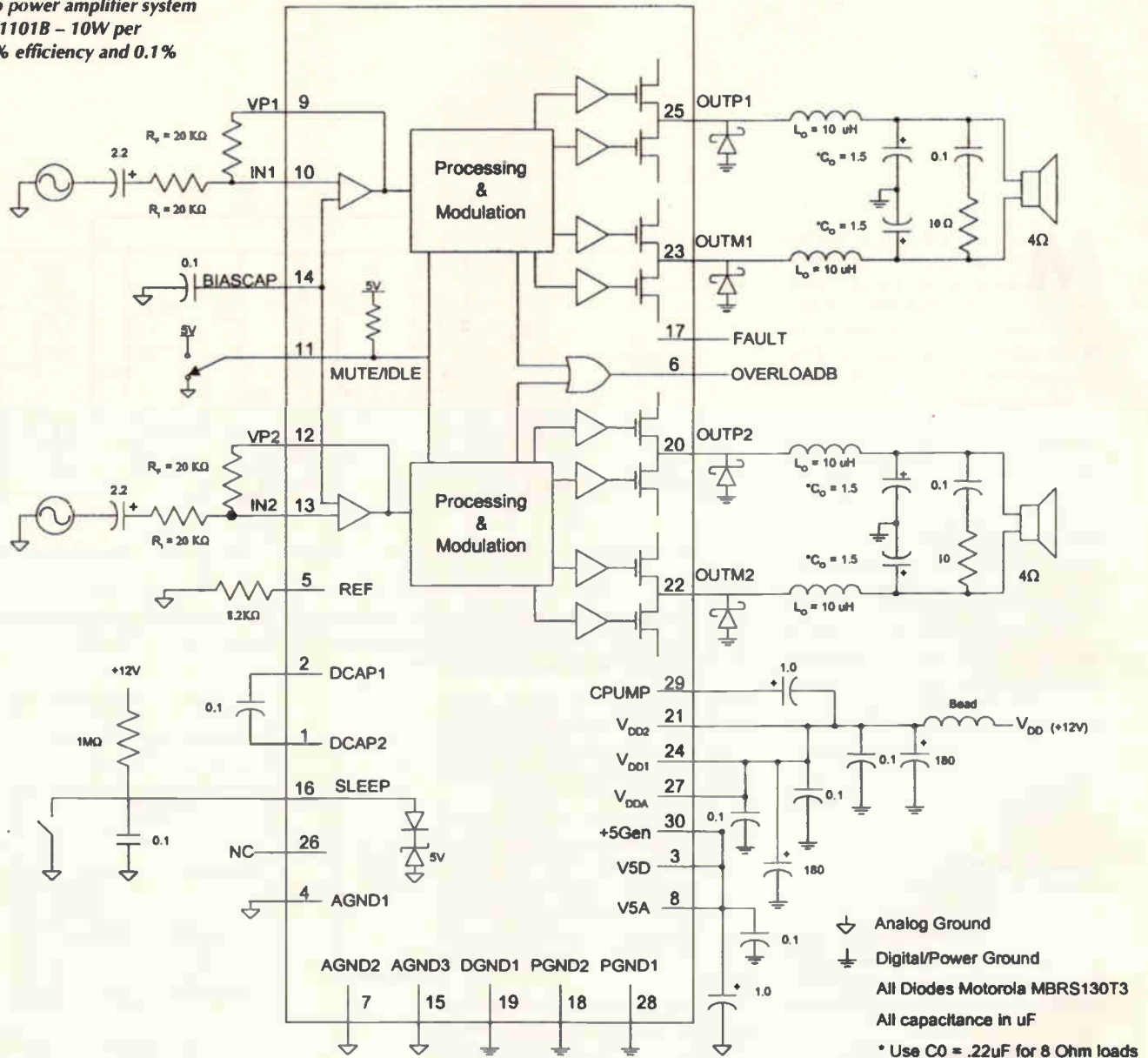


Fig. 2. Block diagram of the internal sections of the new TAx series 'Class-T' power amplifier building blocks.

Table 1. Characteristics of the TAx range of Class-T power amplifiers. Note that only the 1101 and 2020 incorporate output power drive devices.

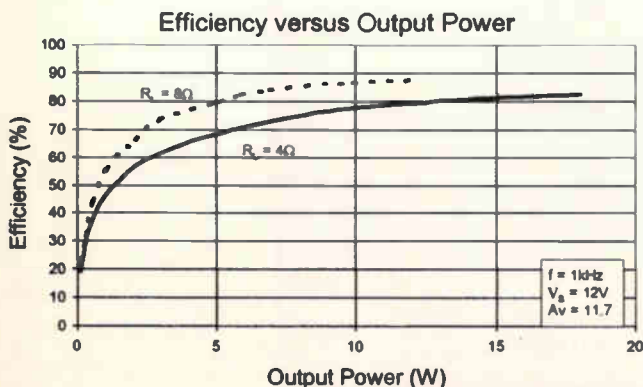
| Device     | Power/channel (W) | into imp. (Ω) | at thd+n (%) | at supply rail, (V) | efficiency (%) |
|------------|-------------------|---------------|--------------|---------------------|----------------|
| TA1101B    | 10                | 4             | 0.1          | 12                  | 78             |
|            | 9                 | 4             | 0.04         | 12                  | 77             |
|            | 6                 | 8             | 0.1          | 12                  | 82             |
| TA2020-020 | 12                | 4             | 0.1          | 13.5                | 77             |
|            | 10                | 4             | 0.04         | 13.5                | 75             |
|            | 8                 | 8             | 0.1          | 13.5                | 83             |
| TA0102A    | 150               | 4             | 0.1          | ±45                 | 78             |
|            | 80                | 8             | 0.1          | ±45                 | 89             |
|            | 20                | 8             | 0.05         | ±45                 | 70             |
| TA0103     | 250               | 4             | 0.1          | ±54                 | 83             |
|            | 140               | 8             | 0.1          | ±54                 | 83             |
| TA0104     | 500               | 4             | 0.1          | ±90                 | 82 (@ ±75V)    |
|            | 350               | 8             | 0.1          | ±90                 | 90 (@ ±75V)    |

Fig. 3. Stereo power amplifier system using the TA1101B – 10W per channel, 78% efficiency and 0.1% thd+n.



ratio varies. A more detailed treatment of Class-D operation can be found in reference 3.

Fig. 4. Efficiency of the TA1101B versus output power, with speaker impedance as parameter.



**Recent developments**

Over the past year or so, there has been renewed interest in high-efficiency audio amplifiers, with some important

players coming into the field.

One of the first to catch my eye was Texas Instruments. When this major semiconductor manufacturer enters a field, you may be sure it is seen as an important one.

The company's TPA005D02 is billed as, 'the first-ever stereo Class-D audio power amplifier'. It is aimed at 'portable, battery operated applications, including notebook computers, hand held PCs, PDAs, boom boxes and cellular phones'.

Operating from a single +5V supply, the device will drive 2W continuous into a 4Ω bridge-tied load speaker on each channel of its stereo output – if that is what you want from your PDA or cellular phone. And it does so with a total harmonic distortion plus noise figure of less than 0.5%.

Clearly, the TPA005D02 is a triumph of semiconductor engineering in squeezing 4W at high efficiency out of

a 5V supply. But it does illustrate the difficulty of achieving hi-fi levels of thd with a Class-D architecture.

**Hi-fi from a switching amplifier?**

Understanding the difficulties of achieving high fidelity using Class-D, I was intrigued to see a range of high-efficiency audio power amplifiers advertised that was claimed to be of 'superior fidelity' and to operate in a mode akin to Class-D.

Made by Tripath,<sup>4</sup> these devices operate in a proprietary mode the manufacturer calls 'Class-T'. Called the TAx series, the family includes devices covering a wide range of power levels, as indicated in Table 1.

I was fortunate in being able to borrow an EB-TA1101B evaluation board, complete with TA1101B and all associated circuitry, from Tripath's UK agent.<sup>5</sup>

I chose the TA1101B device for test-



ing as it contains all the active circuitry needed for a complete power amplifier. The EB-TA1101B evaluation board consists of the device itself, mounted on a high quality PCB, together with all the necessary passive components for gain setting, output filters, decoupling, etc.

Stereo input connections to the board are made via two 'RCA' connectors, better known in this country as phono sockets. There's also six 4mm banana plug sockets. Of these, two pairs are for the bridge-tied load left and right channel speakers, one for a +12V supply and one for 0V ground.

The TA1101B device comes in a special thirty-lead power SOP surface-mount package having a metal area showing on the underside. This metal must be sweated to a suitable area of copper on the PCB, which acts as the heat sink.

Application data supplied gives full details for calculating the required area of copper, depending upon the required output, the speaker impedance and the envisaged top temperature.

Should the maximum temperature limit be exceeded, damage is prevented as the device is shut down by the device's comprehensive protection circuitry. This includes overcurrent/short circuit protection, and turn-on and turn-off 'pop' protection.

The next device up in the power range is the TA2020-020, which comes in a 32 pin SSIP package. Like the TA1101B, this device includes all the necessary active components. It is designed to mount upright at the edge of a PCB though, so that the device's case can be bolted to a finned heat sink.

Higher power devices in the range all come in a 38-pin quad package, but require the addition of separate discrete N-channel mosfets.

Two mosfets are required per channel, as the loudspeakers are driven single ended from positive and negative rails, rather than as bridge-tied loads from a single supply.

These higher power devices also provide a programmable choice of dead time between the turn-off of one device, and the turn-on of the other. This is to avoid 'shoot-through' current due to overlap on the one hand, or excessive dead-space with neither device 'on', on the other.

**Inside the TA1101B**

Understandably, the manufacturer is reluctant to release all the secrets of the device's operation, but some information is available.

Figure 2 shows a block diagram of the internals of the device. It contains an adaptive signal conditioning pro-

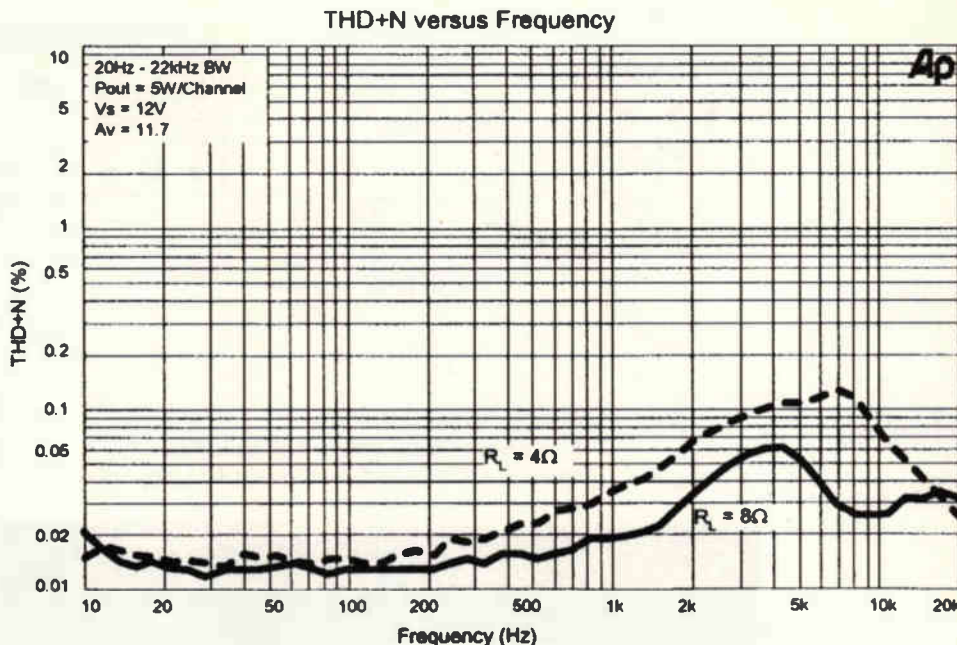


Fig. 5. Distortion - thd+n - at 5W output power per channel versus frequency, with speaker impedance as parameter.

**Intermodulation Performance**  
RL = 4Ω

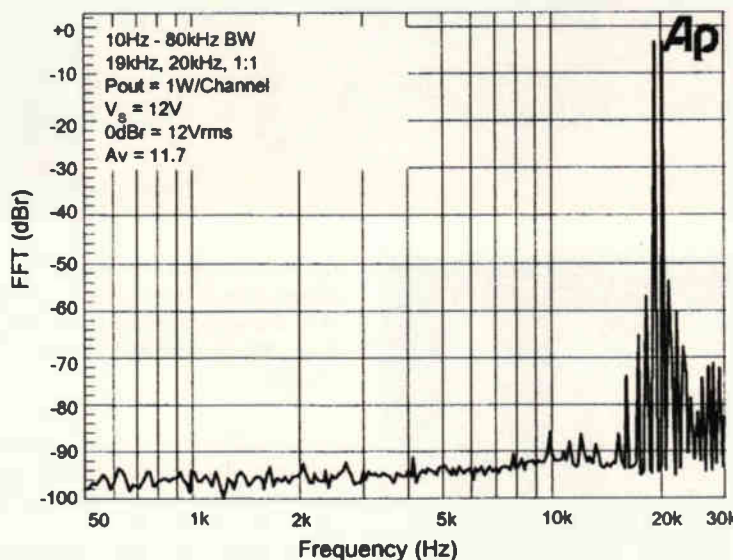


Fig. 6. Intermodulation at high audio frequencies - or IHF IM - at a test level of 1W per channel.

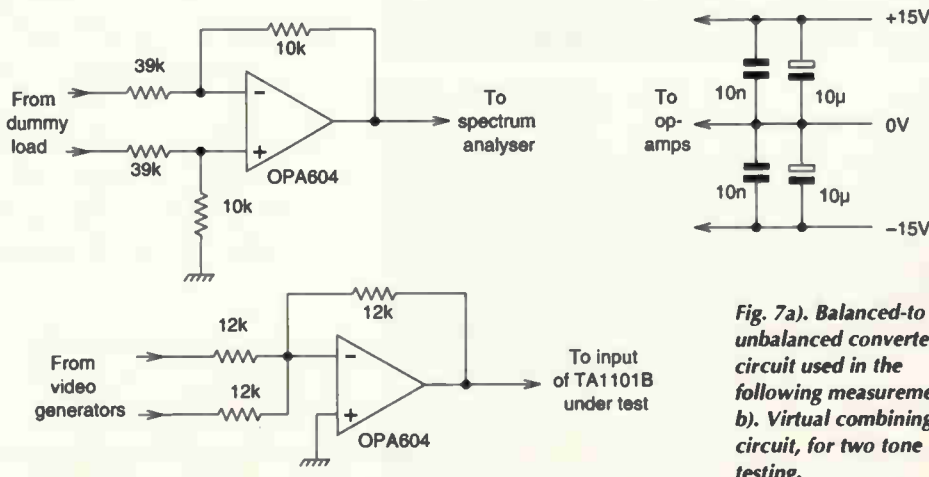


Fig. 7a). Balanced-to-unbalanced converter circuit used in the following measurements. b). Virtual combining circuit, for two tone testing.

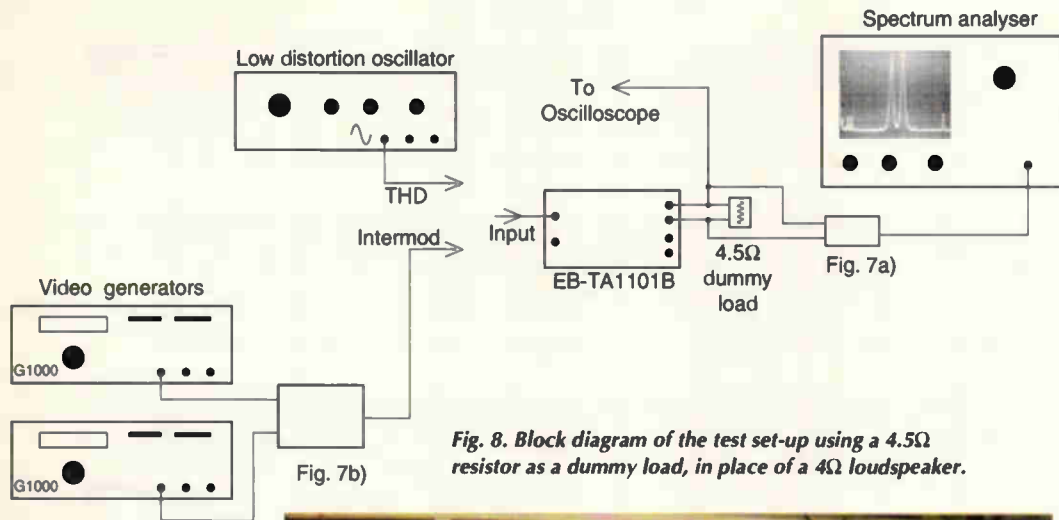


Fig. 8. Block diagram of the test set-up using a 4.5Ω resistor as a dummy load, in place of a 4Ω loudspeaker.

used in some direct-digital-synthesiser chips to spread out and thus suppress the energy of discrete line spurs.

Figure 3 shows a TA1101B used to construct a stereo power amplifier. The gain of each channel can be set as required by means of  $R_f$  and  $R_f$ .

On the EB-TA1101B, with which I was about to experiment, this is all done for you. But first, it was necessary to make up a balanced-to-unbalanced test circuit, so that the balanced output to the bridge-tied load could be applied to the unbalanced input of my various audio frequency test instruments.

I used a Burr-Brown OPA604 op-amp for the test circuit. Its specified distortion of 0.0003% ensured that the instrumentation added a negligible amount of distortion of its own to any measurements.

**The TA1101B on test**

While I wanted to conduct some tests of my own on the TA1101B, there is a great deal of performance data already available in the data sheet, and there was clearly no point in simply repeating this.

Figure 4 shows the efficiency of the device versus output power, with speaker impedance as parameter. Since the output FET  $R_{ds(on)}$  is a lower percentage of the load resistance when using an 8Ω speaker, the efficiency is then of course higher. But with the limited voltage swing available from a 12V supply, the maximum output power is obviously lower.

Figure 5 shows the distortion, i.e. THD+N, at 5W output power per channel versus frequency, again with speaker impedance as parameter.

Figure 6 shows the intermodulation distortion at high audio frequencies. The test level is 1W per channel, i.e. 10dB below full output, and I assume this refers to the average power. The PEP or peak envelope power is of course higher than this, and given the frequency of the two tones, 19kHz and 20kHz, this is quite a severe test of linearity.

As the plot shows, all intermodulation products, including the third order terms, are 50dB or more below either tone, i.e. 56dB or more below PEP.

Next, I wanted to test the linearity of the amplifier, in particular seeing the distribution of the distortion among the various harmonic frequencies – information which is not available from a simple THD+N test.

The balanced-to unbalanced converter circuit mentioned earlier is shown in Fig. 7, together with a two-tone combining circuit, also using an OPA604, for intermodulation testing. Figure 8 shows a block diagram of the test set-up. A 4.5Ω resistor – actually

Fig. 9. General view of the test set-up with the EB-TA1101B evaluation board and load resistors in front, and to their right the circuits of Fig. 7.

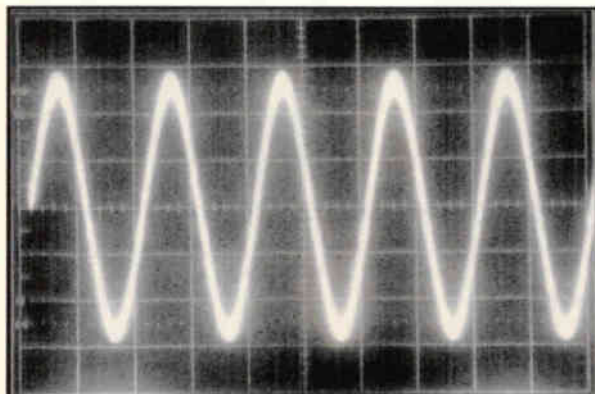


Fig. 10. Waveform at one end of the dummy load, OUTP1 of Fig. 2, with a 1kHz test signal applied. Horizontal: 0.5ms/div. Vertical: 0.5V/div., ac coupled.

cessor, a digital conversion function, mute control, overload handling, fault detection, predictive processing and qualification logic functions.

The result is to produce switching drives to the output devices, which are mark/space modulated like a Class-D amplifier, but differ from the latter in that the switching frequency is not fixed.

In fact, a Class-T amplifier switches its output transistors at a variable rate, up to 1.5MHz, but averaging out at about 600 to 700kHz. Operation is similar in some respects to spread-spectrum working, or to the arrangement

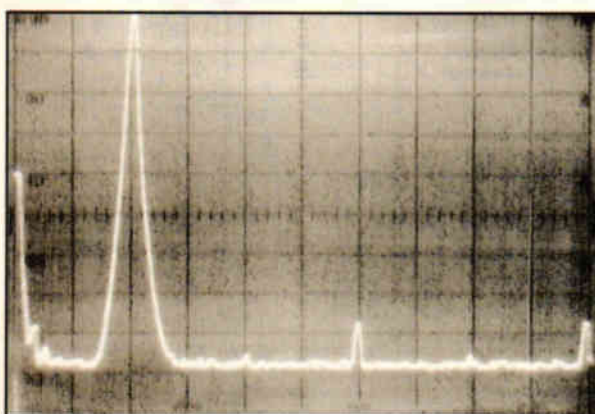


Fig. 11. The output spectrum with a 1kHz test signal. Vertical: 10dB/div. Ref. level (top of screen): -6dBV. Horizontal: 0-5kHz span, 5s/div sweep, 10Hz resolution bandwidth, PDS (post-detector smoothing) off.



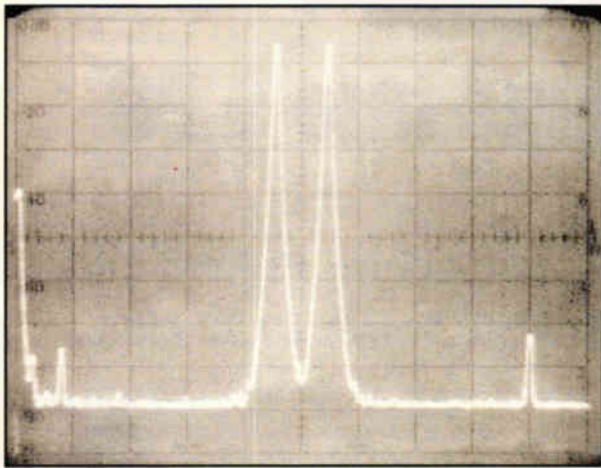


Fig.12. Two-tone test signal, tones combined by circuit of Fig. 6b). Vertical: 10dB/div. ref. level 0dBV, horizontal: span 0-2kHz, 5s/div sweep, 10Hz resolution bandwidth, PDS (post-detector smoothing) off.

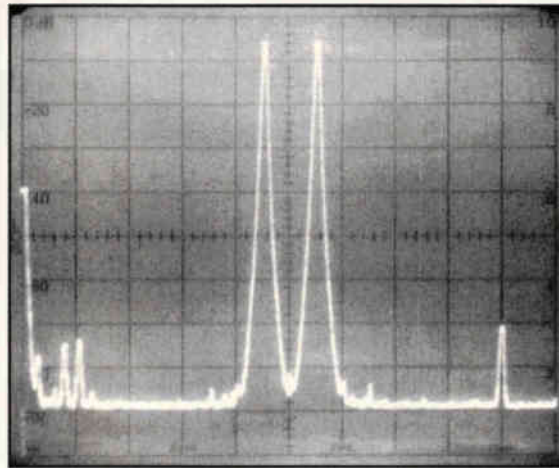


Fig. 13. As above, but measured at the amplifier output, via the circuit of Fig. 6a).

three 1.5Ω wirewound resistors in series – was used as a dummy load, in place of a 4Ω loudspeaker.

Figure 9 is a general view of the unit on test. In the front is the EB-TA1101B evaluation board and load resistors, with to its right the circuits of Fig. 7. Behind them is a low distortion audio frequency generator<sup>6</sup> and to the right of that, an HP3580A audio frequency spectrum analyser. The analyser has had its CRT screen escutcheon and blue filter temporarily removed to allow an oscilloscope camera to be attached.

Figure 10 shows the waveform at OUTP1 of Fig. 3, with a 1kHz test signal applied. It is not blurred or out of focus, the broadening of the trace being due to the residual switching frequency ripple.

Figure 11 shows the spectrum of the voltage across the dummy load, with a 1kHz test signal. A previous check on the test signal itself showed all harmonics below the -88dB noise floor of the analyser.

A modest output power level of some 800mW was chosen, to illustrate how the low level of distortion is maintained as the signal amplitude is reduced. In this respect, the TA1101B resembles a Class-A amplifier, rather than a class AB amplifier, where crossover effects result in an increase in THD at low levels, compared to full output.

Figure 11 demonstrates that the even harmonics, second and fourth, are barely visible above the noise floor, as would be expected with a bridge-tied load drive.<sup>7</sup>

Third and fifth harmonics are both about -78dBc, or 0.013% each. These are the worst harmonics, and this level is probably just not achievable with Class-D operation.

Figures 12 and 13 show a two tone

intermodulation test. In contrast to Fig. 6, the test was carried out with tones in the middle of the audible range, where intermodulation products would be most noticeable.

Equal level tones at 900Hz and 1100Hz were provided by two Linstead type G1000 video oscillators, which cover 10Hz to 10MHz. These exhibit a modest THD of around 0.05% at audio frequencies – not exactly hi-fi, but of no consequence for the test in hand.

Figure 12 illustrates the two-tone test signal at the output of the OPA604 combining circuit. Note that as the PEP is 6dB above either tone, the tones have been set at 6dB below the top-of-screen reference level, to avoid overloading the spectrum analyser.

The second harmonic of the lower tone is visible at 1800Hz, while the only other significant responses are a little pick-up at 50, 100 and most noticeably 150Hz at the left hand end of the trace.

I applied the two tone test signal to the EB-TA1101B test bed and adjusted its amplitude to give an amplifier output just below clipping level, as determined by observing the waveform at one end of the dummy load, with the oscilloscope.

Given the 4.5Ω resistance of the dummy load, this corresponded to rather less than 10W. The resultant spectrum is shown in Fig. 13. The third-order intermodulation products are visible at 700 and 1300Hz, at about 80dB down on either tone, or 86dB down on PEP. This is a truly excellent performance.

The difference tone of 200Hz is also visible, at a little under 70dB down on either tone. As this is a second-order product, it suggests that the drive signal was pushing one of the

four output mosfets a little too close to clipping.

#### In summary

Published data on the TA1101B, together with my own tests, demonstrate that it is possible to construct an amplifier with comparable efficiency to that of a Class-D circuit, but with substantially lower distortion. In particular, the percentage distortion does not rise as the amplitude is reduced – unlike a class AB amplifier with its inherent crossover distortion.

For those of you wishing to design-in the device, a comprehensive collection of data sheets and application notes is available. These include one giving data on the arrangements for driving a subwoofer in addition to the left and right-channel speakers. Another provides information on FET selection for the higher power alternatives, which need additional discrete output devices.

My thanks to Unique UK – formerly Ambar Components – for the loan of a TA1101B evaluation board, and to Tripath Technology for permission to reproduce Figs 2-6. ■

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2. G. Turnbull & J. Townsend, 'Efficiency Considerations in a Class-D Amplifier, Part II', *Wireless World* May 1967, pp. 214-217. (Part I appeared in the issue of the previous month)
3. 'Analog Electronics', Ian Hickman, Newnes (Butterworth-Heinemann) 2nd Edition 1999, ISBN 0 7506 4416 8.
4. Tripath Technology Inc., 3900 Freedom Circle, Suite 200, Santa Clara, California 95054 408-567-3000.
5. Tripath's UK agent is Unique UK, Rabans Close, Aylesbury, Bucks HP19 3RS, Tel. 01296 397396, fax 01296397439.
6. Ian Hickman, 'Low distortion audio oscillator', *Electronics World and Wireless World*, June 1994, pp. 370-376.
7. Ian Hickman, 'Zero distortion?' *Electronics World*, March 1999, pp. 224-228.

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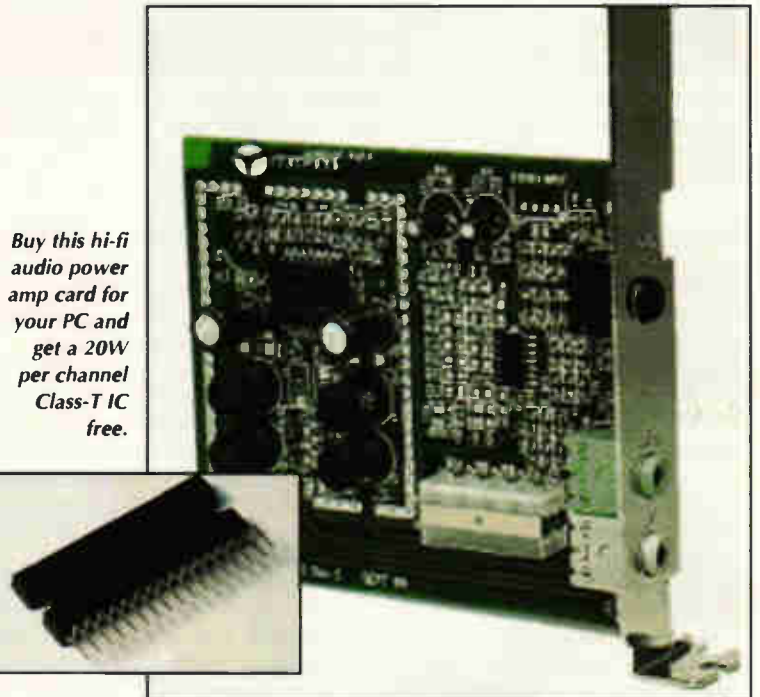
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# Measure AC millivolts to 5MHz

**General-purpose digital multimeters are fine for DC, but most of them are poor at measuring AC signals much above mains frequency. Cyril Bateman's high-performance millivoltmeter has a wide dynamic range and bandwidth. It even indicates a couple of millivolts reliably at 5MHz, yet it is easy to put together and calibrate. You can add the circuit to your DMM or implement it as a stand-alone meter.**

**M**odern low-cost hand-held digital voltmeters measure DC millivolts with excellent accuracy. With many of them though, measurements of small AC voltages are inaccurate and severely bandwidth limited. I found one otherwise good DVM to be more than -3dB down by just 4kHz when measuring a sinewave of 250mV.

I already have a Hewlett Packard bench AC voltmeter measuring from a few microvolts to 300V. While flat to 1MHz, its response is 3dB down before 5MHz. It also exhibits measurable peaking between 2 and 3MHz.

Recently, I had a job that involved measuring AC from 10mV up to 200mV with reasonable precision up to 5MHz. Readings had to be free from any significant peaking and it had to be possible to make them without switching ranges. In addition, I wanted a portable low cost instrument that could be used with conventional switchable divide-by-10/x1 oscilloscope probes, or within a 50 $\Omega$  system.

A search of my library files, the Internet and back issues of *Electronics World* revealed a number of published designs. Most designs were intended to measure higher voltages and there was no indication of their accuracy when measuring millivolt levels. Others did not provide an input impedance suited for use with oscilloscope probes.

One which did provide an input for

use with conventional oscilloscope probes was designed by Chester Simpson and published in May 1996<sup>1</sup>. Using only three low-cost integrated circuits, he claimed less than 0.2dB error up to 800kHz when measuring a 2V input. This performance equates well with that offered by the well-established, high performance HP3468B and HP34401A bench meters.

However since Chester's design made no performance claims for lesser voltages, I decided to look further. One

suggestion I found used the excellent Maxim 435 transconductance amplifier. Having two pairs of matched HP5082-2080 low-voltage Schottky diodes, I breadboarded this circuit<sup>2</sup>.

I found its response with 0.5V drive was flat from 1kHz to 1MHz. While it looked initially promising, when I tested it with a 50mV drive, I found it was 0.5dB down by 1MHz, and much worse at higher frequencies. I needed far better small signal performance.

In my Hands-on-Internet article in the March 99 issue, I discussed using

## Diode matching

When building the prototype board, I used a number of matched resistors in order to evaluate circuit behaviour. These were simply selected from normal 1% stock using a DMM.

I found that the offset voltages at the +Out and -Out terminals depended more on diode matching than on the MAX457 amplifier's offset voltage.

To facilitate choice of diodes, the printed board has been laid out to accommodate both normal wire-ended diodes and dual surface-mount packaged diodes. Such dual diodes offer good matching and low costs.

Already having several HP5082-2080 diodes, I decided to match these myself. The HP5082-2080 reference indicates they are batch matched HP5082-2835 types.

To select pairs of diodes, I daisy chained ten diodes in series with a 15k $\Omega$  current-limiting resistor and applied a voltage in turn such that currents of 10 $\mu$ A, 100 $\mu$ A, and 1mA passed through the diodes.

After stabilising for a few minutes, I measured and noted the voltage dropped across each individual diode. Three well matched pairs were selected from this batch of ten.

To date three circuits have been built using these diode pairs. All provided similar small offset voltages and measurement accuracy with frequency.

the AD630 and the OPA678 'SWOP' amps to rectify fast AC signals. I breadboarded a circuit using an OPA678 amplifier<sup>3</sup> and repeated my tests. At low frequencies the circuit behaved impeccably but even at the 0.5V level its response was 0.25dB down by 1MHz. At the lower input voltage - due to the small but inevitable delays incurred while switching between input channels and switching transients - this error increased.

**Time to rethink**

Since I already have a very good true RMS meter built in 1992 using the AD637 and AD845 integrated circuits, I returned to an earlier plan to upgrade this design. The high-precision AD637 circuit provides excellent sine-wave performance up to 2MHz, but at this

frequency its dynamic range is much reduced. For 1dB accuracy it should only be used to measure signals in the range 0.7 to 7.0V.<sup>4</sup>

Since I needed to measure from a few millivolts up to 200 millivolts, the circuit would require some 30dB of pre-amplifier gain, combined with rescaling of the AD637 output. I explored the various op-amps that were readily available and might be suitable but decided this circuit was now becoming over complicated and too expensive for my present needs.

I then recalled comments from my January Internet article about the improved performance when using a MAX435 transconductance amplifier to drive opto-coupler diodes.

So why were the results I obtained with my breadboarded MAX435 circuit so disappointing? I decided to

rebuild this circuit and explore further by examining the diode waveforms using a divide by ten oscilloscope probe.

When driven with the higher input voltage at 1MHz, the circuit rectified cleanly with almost no dead time. As the input voltage was reduced, the diode waveform became visibly more and more distorted, so explaining my earlier results.

After some thought I wondered whether the MAX435 itself was limiting these results. The MAX435 is a wideband transconductance amplifier with a bandwidth of 275MHz and slews at 850V/μs. Its gain is fixed by the value of a resistor connected between its Z+ and Z- pins. Consequently while it was very fast and provided the benefits of a current drive to the diodes, it was not able to go 'open loop' and so reduce the time taken to cross the diodes' threshold voltages.

Was this the answer I was seeking? Did I need a transconductance amplifier which has its gain controlled by an external feedback network, as used with a conventional voltage drive, op-amp precision rectifier?

**Less speed, more haste**

I recalled the high-gain circuit, also featured in the January Hands on Internet, which used the MAX457 dual op-amp. The MAX457 is a 70MHz transconductance CMOS video amplifier that slews at 150V/μs. It can drive a 1V signal into 75ohms. While much slower than the MAX435, its uses an external feedback loop so could go 'open loop' while crossing the diode threshold voltages. Would this chip provide acceptable performance?

To find out I replaced the MAX435 with the MAX457 dual transconductance amplifier. This being a dual

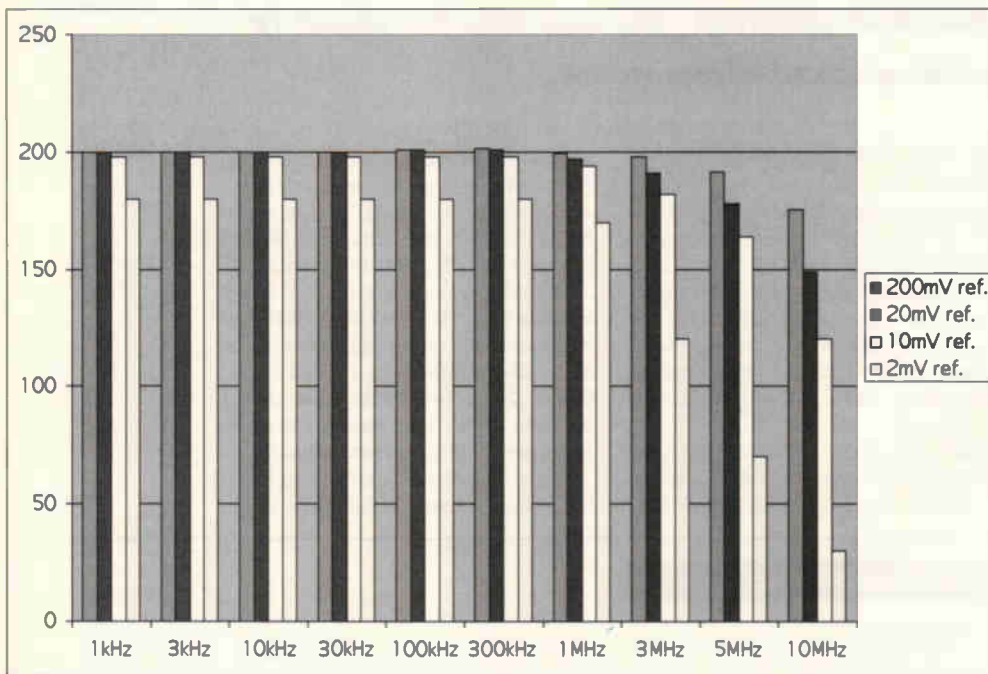


Table 1. Performance of the wide-band AC millivoltmeter. Try making such a table for your DVM! The graph above shows relative roll-off with each reference input voltage.

| Frequency (Hz) | Reading    | Error (dB) | Reading   | Error (dB) | Reading   | Error (dB) | Reading  | Error (dB) |
|----------------|------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|----------|------------|
|                | 200mV ref. |            | 20mV ref. |            | 10mV ref. |            | 2mV ref. |            |
| 1kHz           | 200.0      |            | 20.0      |            | 9.9       | -0.09      | 1.8      | -0.92      |
| 3kHz           | 200.0      |            | 20.0      |            | 9.9       | -0.09      | 1.8      | -0.92      |
| 10kHz          | 200.0      |            | 20.0      |            | 9.9       | -0.09      | 1.8      | -0.92      |
| 30kHz          | 200.0      |            | 20.0      |            | 9.9       | -0.09      | 1.8      | -0.92      |
| 100kHz         | 200.8      | +0.035     | 20.1      | +0.04      | 9.9       | -0.09      | 1.8      | -0.92      |
| 300kHz         | 201.6      | +0.07      | 20.1      | +0.04      | 9.9       | -0.09      | 1.8      | -0.92      |
| 1MHz           | 199.5      | -0.02      | 19.7      | -0.13      | 9.7       | -0.26      | 1.7      | -1.41      |
| 3MHz           | 198.0      | -0.09      | 19.1      | -0.4       | 9.1       | -0.82      | 1.2      | -4.44      |
| 5MHz           | 191.4      | -0.38      | 17.8      | -1.0       | 8.2       | -1.72      | 0.7      | -9.1       |
| 10MHz          | 175.4      | -1.14      | 14.9      | -2.6       | 6.0       | -4.44      | 0.3      | -16.5      |



Fig. 1. Final schematic as built, measured and photographed. The minimum cost version requires only those parts to the left of the +Out and -Out terminals, the measurement point for the results table.

amplifier I used the first amplifier simply as a voltage follower, the second amplifier driving a full-wave diode bridge and repeated my measurements.

Driven with the lower test voltage at 1MHz, the diodes' waveform was now visibly much less distorted than for my previous tests.

I swept a 1V signal from 1kHz to 1MHz and found no measurable change in the diodes' output voltage as frequency increased. With the input voltage reset to 100mV, the diode output was equal at both frequencies. A final reduction to 10mV found output down less than 0.8dB at 1MHz.

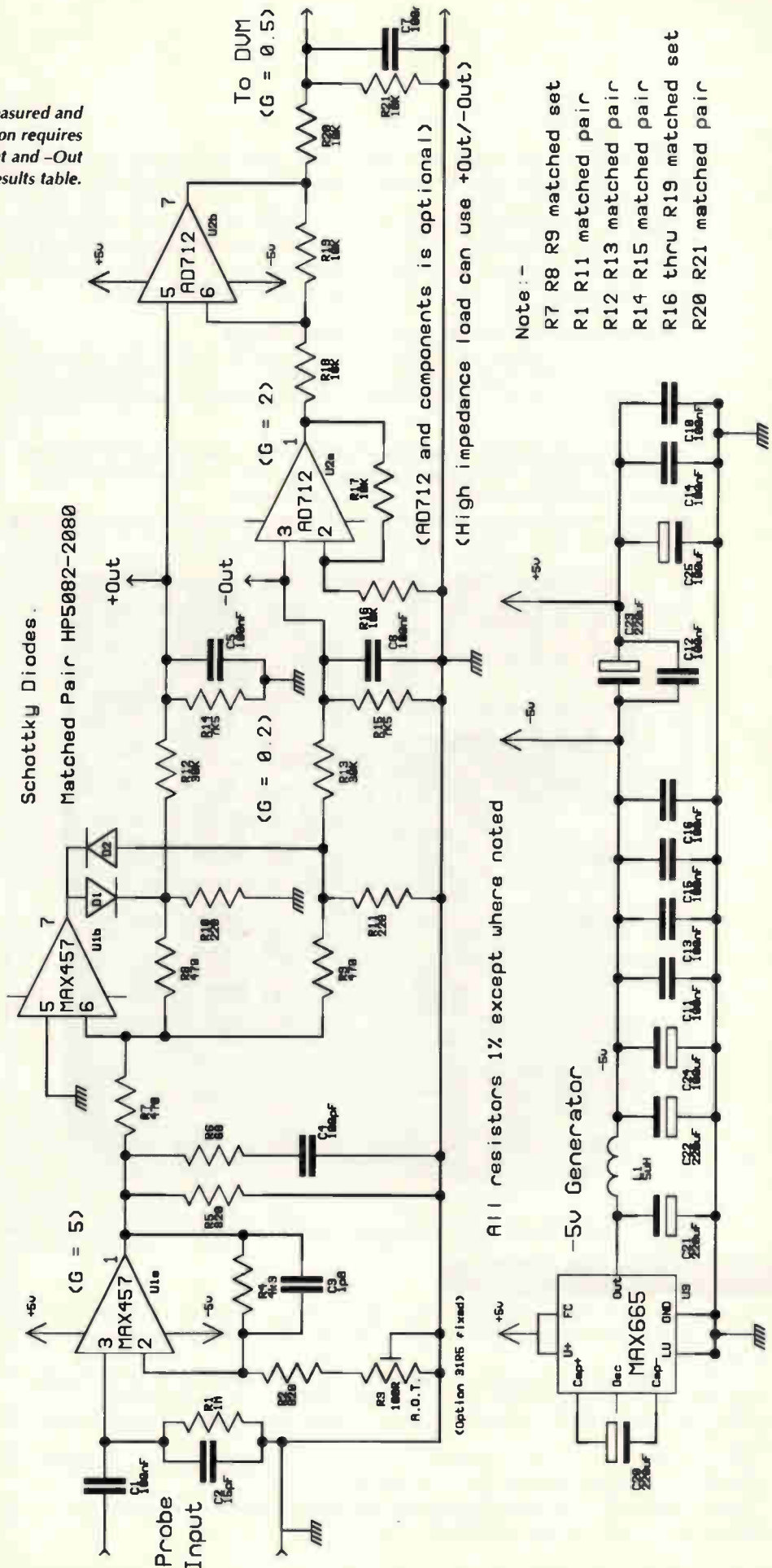
With this circuit still on a breadboard, I re-configured the first amplifier to provide an input circuit suitable for use with an oscilloscope probe. To improve diode linearity with small signals, I increased its gain so that my desired 200mV AC input signal pro-

**Why the MAX457 video amplifier?**

The Maxim 457 integrated circuit was part of a family of video amplifiers and buffers featured in Maxim's Design News publication, March 1989. It is a unity-gain-stable dual op-amp with low input bias current and small input capacitance. Standard dual amplifier pinning is used for the device, yet it provides a high isolation between its two amplifiers of 72dB at 5MHz.

Designed specifically as video amplifier it provides good differential gain and differential phase. It can drive  $\pm 2.5V$  into a back-terminated 75 $\Omega$  cable yet draws only 35mA supply current.

The device's unique features, which suit this meter project, are its transconductance output and a gain bandwidth product that increases with load impedance. This increasing open-loop gain minimises dead-band time when crossing the diodes' threshold voltages.



- Note :-  
 R7 R8 R9 matched set  
 R1 R11 matched pair  
 R12 R13 matched pair  
 R14 R15 matched pair  
 R16 thru R19 matched set  
 R20 R21 matched pair

vided a 1V rectified output from the diodes. Attenuated by five this would drive a 200mV meter to full scale.

With this single op-amp's minimal circuitry, I could perhaps provide a 0-200mV measurement with the probe switched to times one and 0-2V while using the probe set to divide by 10.

One possible drawback of this circuit is that the diodes provide an output of  $\pm 100\text{mV}$  around 0V and not a +200mV output referred to ground. This  $\pm 100\text{mV}$

output could however be converted to ground referred form using an instrumentation amplifier. The AD712 dual op-amp is arranged as a low cost, simple, times two instrumentation amplifier. Halving its output provided the necessary +200mV ground-referred final output.

**Final design**

It is possible to build the final circuit design shown in the schematic as a minimum-cost DVM adapter by deleting the

AD712 and its components. Using the full schematic as shown, it makes a stand-alone, ground referenced, millivoltmeter, Fig. 1.

Encouraged by the results from my breadboarded circuit, I designed and built a printed circuit board version for my final performance tests. This board also included a low drop-out +5V linear stabiliser and the -5V converter as used in my tan $\delta$  meter design, Fig. 2.

The board design was sized to easily fit into either of two commercial plastic cases. Using the same style V155 OKW Shell case, as used for my tan $\delta$  meter, the board, a PM128 display meter and two PP3 batteries are easily fitted, Fig. 3.

Alternatively, the board and batteries can also be fitted into the smaller 80mm by 150mm 'Veronex' case from Vero. If this option is chosen, a different meter display must be used. The low cost PM128 display is too large to fit into this particular Vero case.

To date, I have built three prototypes and all performed equally well. While IC sockets are probably best avoided for these frequencies, my prototypes were built using low profile Augat turned-pin sockets. If different sockets are used, the value of  $C_3$  should be adjusted to compensate for change in socket capacitance, Fig. 4.

**Performance**

I deliberately provided gain reduction above 5MHz in the final circuit for two reasons. One is that the roll-off ensures circuit stability when the MAX457 gain falls off at very high frequencies. The other is that with the test instruments I have available, I would not be able to calibrate the meter with sufficient accuracy at higher frequencies.

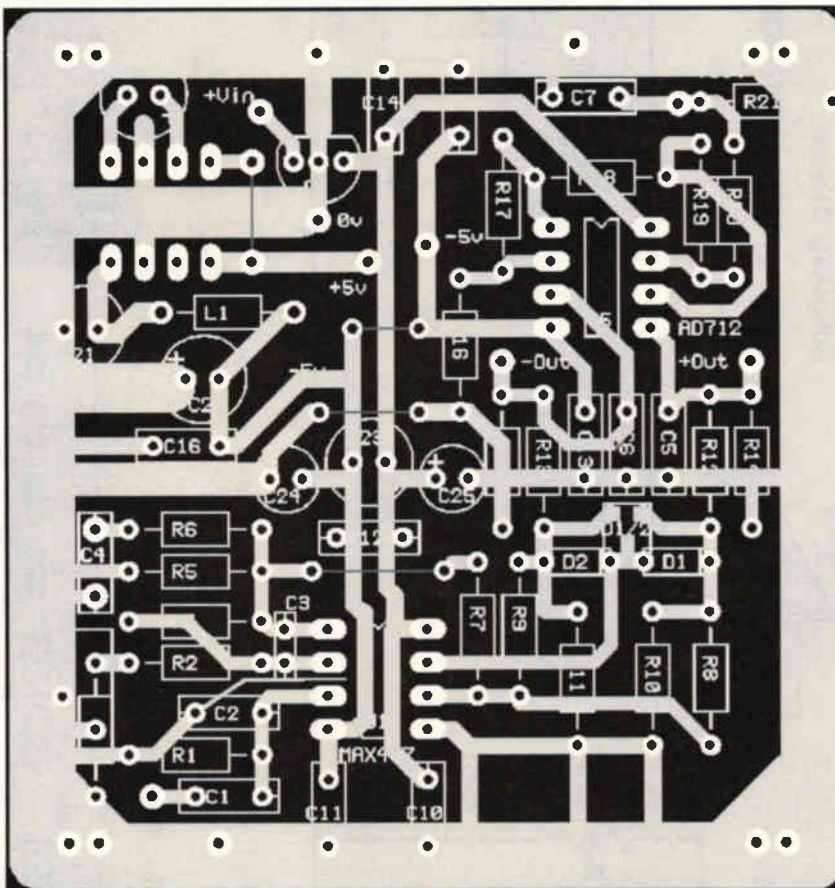
I intend to use this meter with a 50 $\Omega$  'through-termination' at its input as well as with my regular M12SW oscilloscope 1M $\Omega$  probes. These have a 250MHz bandwidth when set to divide-by-ten, but are -3dB at 10MHz when switched to times one, limiting the highest input frequencies for small signals.

No doubt this circuit is capable of good results to even higher frequencies, but rather than risk any higher frequency gain peaking, I choose to deliberately roll off the gain. The circuit's low cost and its measured results are more than sufficient for my present need. Reading errors are better than  $\pm 0.5\text{dB}$  to 5MHz at 200mV and better than  $\pm 1\text{dB}$  at 20mV.

**Measured results**

To eliminate any oscilloscope probe induced errors, I tested the meter using a

*Fig. 2. My prototype PCB measures only 65mm by 67mm making it easy to fit into many different box options. The +Out and -Out terminal pins have been spaced to suit the input terminal spacing used for most portable voltammeters.*



**Instrumentation amplifier**

The arrangement used here of dual op-amp as an instrument amplifier, was chosen to provide similar, high input impedances for both inputs, good performance and easy resistor matching.

As with the popular three op-amp configuration, this amplifier's gain can be increased using only one additional resistor, without affecting the common-mode rejection performance of the circuit. This resistor would be connected between pins two and six of the AD712.

Using equal value resistors the circuit has a gain of two. Higher gains are easy, when using the extra resistor, but unity gain is not possible.

Readers interested in more details, together with design equations should refer to application note AN-244 from Analog Devices.



## Calibration

As with all my designs I wanted the simplest possible calibration routine. For this design, providing the flattest possible frequency response ensures easy calibration. A flat response allows calibration – if necessary – to be performed at low frequencies only using only a conventional multimeter.

Obviously, when higher frequency comparisons are possible, they should be made. But with my three prototypes, I found acceptable performance could be obtained without using a comparison meter simply by setting the value of  $R_3$  to 31.5 $\Omega$ .

The calibration routine used for the measured result table was to supply a known test voltage from a 50 $\Omega$  signal generator to the millivoltmeter, via a 10dB attenuator connected to a 'T' adapter. This was fitted to the millivoltmeter's temporary input BNC connector.

This T adapter was also connected to the high-impedance input terminal of my Hewlett Packard voltmeter, then to my oscilloscope via a 50 $\Omega$  'lead-through' termination, thus minimising any line reflections.

For consistent 50 $\Omega$  system measurements – even at these relatively low frequencies – a 10dB attenuator should be inserted adjacent to the device under test. This attenuator reduces any reflections fed back to the generator by 20dB, optimising the signal generator's output stability with change in frequency.

Allow the circuits to warm up, then with no signal input, connect a DMM across +Out and –Out terminals and check the offset voltage. If this is satisfactory, apply a signal at as near 200mV as possible from the signal generator.

At this point, I adjusted  $R_3$  until both the HP voltmeter and the DMM read the same voltage. If you don't have a suitable high-frequency voltmeter available for comparison, apply a suitable low test frequency. Measure the input voltage on the BNC inner contact using an appropriate AC multimeter. Reconnect the multimeter across the +Out and –Out terminals, read the DC voltage and adjust  $R_3$  as before.

correctly-terminated 50 $\Omega$  system. Signal input to the millivoltmeter was from a –10 dB coaxial attenuator. This connected to the signal generator via a Hatfield 50 $\Omega$  attenuator and a short 50 $\Omega$  coaxial cable.

Initially, the switchable attenuator was set to 0dB, then –20dB, –26dB and –40dB in turn. With the attenuator switched to 0dB, the signal generator output was set to provide 200mV at the input to the millivoltmeter

I monitored the actual voltage input at the millivoltmeter circuit up to 1MHz using my Hewlett Packard voltmeter, with the attenuator switched to 0dB. At 1MHz and above, I used my HP8405 vector voltmeter.

As an additional check, I also cross-checked the peak-to-peak amplitude at all frequencies using my 100MHz oscilloscope, which completed the system. Measurement frequencies were checked using a Racal 9918 frequency counter. Results are shown in Table 1.

All the output voltages shown in the Table were measured using a 3 3/4 digit DMM across the +Out and –Out terminals marked on the schematic drawing. With no input signal, the offset at these terminals measured 0.1mV while that at the AD712 output measured –0.1mV. The AD712 output voltage closely followed the above readings after correcting for these measured offsets. ■

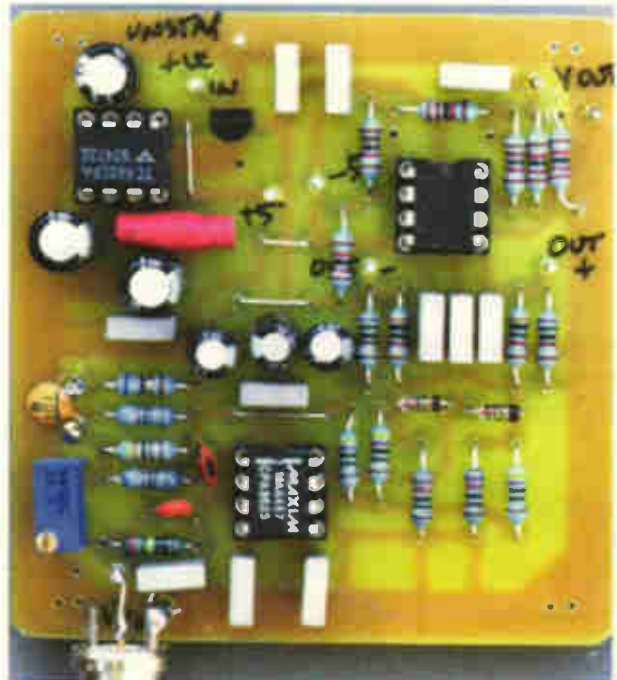
## References

1. Simpson, Chester, 'Fast amplifiers simplify ac measurement', *EDN Design Ideas* May 9 1996
2. May, Peter, 'Fast full-wave rectifier', *Electronics World*, p. 413 May 1993.
3. Wideband Switched-input Operational Amplifier, <http://www.burr-brown.com>
4. Special Linear Reference Manual, Analog Devices, Norwood MA, USA.

**Fig. 4.** The prototype hand-etched board, complete with the temporary BNC socket exactly as used for the measured results table. The value of  $C_3$ , which is visible adjacent to pins 1 and 2 of the MAX457, should be adjusted to compensate for capacitance change if using a different IC socket.



**Fig. 3.** This photograph illustrates one possible packaging option, in an OKW 'Shell' case, resulting in a battery powered, self contained, portable AC millivoltmeter. This case provides a removable aluminium front panel able to support a panel mounting BNC socket and on/off switch.





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**Specifications**

**Switch position 1**

|                   |                               |
|-------------------|-------------------------------|
| Bandwidth         | DC to 10MHz                   |
| Input resistance  | 1MΩ – i.e. oscilloscope i/p   |
| Input capacitance | 40pF+oscilloscope capacitance |
| Working voltage   | 600V DC or pk-pk AC           |

**Switch position 2**

|                    |                                     |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Bandwidth          | DC to 150MHz                        |
| Rise time          | 2.4ns                               |
| Input resistance   | 10MΩ ±1% if oscilloscope i/p is 1MΩ |
| Input capacitance  | 12pF if oscilloscope i/p is 20pF    |
| Compensation range | 10-60pF                             |
| Working voltage    | 600V DC or pk-pk AC                 |

**Switch position 'Ref'**

Probe tip grounded via 9MΩ, scope i/p grounded



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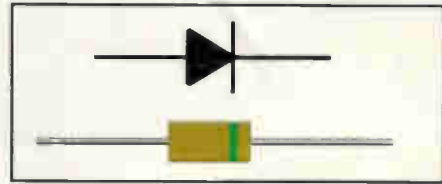
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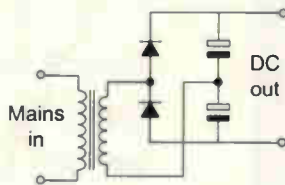
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## SS4006 specifications

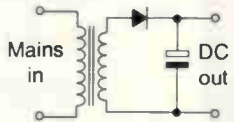
Forward current  $I_o$  1.5A  
Peak inverse voltage PIV 800V  
Forward voltage @1A 1.6V



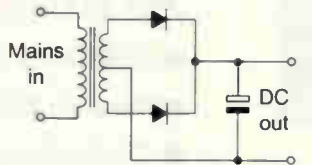
## Simple power supplies



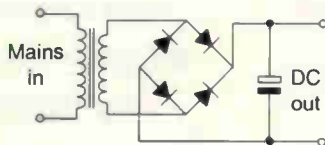
*Voltage doubler. High ripple and poor regulation but useful for low-current applications where a suitable transformer isn't available.*



*Half-wave rectifier – use where simplicity is paramount and high 50Hz ripple isn't a problem.*



*Full-wave rectifier needs a centre-tapped transformer but produces an output with much less ripple than the half-wave rectifier. Ripple is 100Hz, assuming 50Hz mains, hence easier to smooth.*



*Bridge rectifier doesn't need a centre-tapped transformer to produce a clean output and although it uses four diodes, these only need to have a voltage rating of half those needed for an equivalent full-wave rectifier.*

### Outline rectifier circuit characteristics.

| Circuit   | Input voltage (rms) | Output voltage no load | Approx. output voltage full load | Rectifier peak inverse voltage | Rectifier current |
|-----------|---------------------|------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------|
| Half wave | E                   | $\sqrt{2} \times E$    | E                                | $2\sqrt{2} \times E$           | I                 |
| Full wave | E+E                 | $\sqrt{2} \times E$    | 1.2E                             | $2\sqrt{2} \times E$           | 0.5I              |
| Bridge    | E                   | $\sqrt{2} \times E$    | 1.2E                             | $\sqrt{2} \times E$            | 0.5I              |
| Doubler   | E                   | $2(\sqrt{2} \times E)$ | 2E                               | $2\sqrt{2} \times E$           | I                 |



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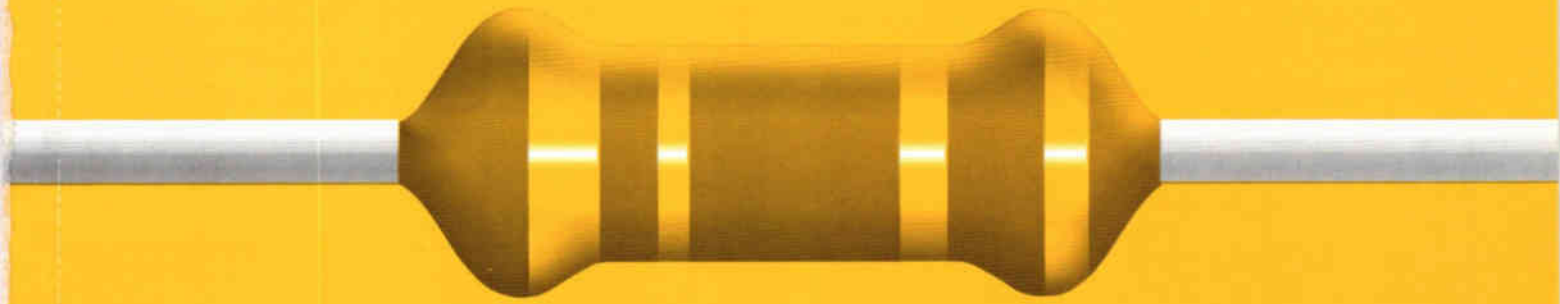
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# CIRCUIT IDEAS

Winner of the second National Instruments digital multimeter worth over £500

## 'A' scope target tracking

In radar and sonar applications, the A scope display – received signal vertically versus range horizontally – is popular.

Range  $R$  is given by  $R=c\Delta t/2$ , where  $\Delta t$  is the time from the transmitted pulse to the reception of the echo, and  $c$  is the speed of light. Fig. 1. A target tracking system can follow a given target, providing range information continuously. Figure 2 shows a circuit to perform this function.

Two monostable multivibrators  $M_2$  and  $M_3$  of Fig. 2 produce adjacent time slots, the early gate and late gate. Fig. 3. The target echo blip on the CRT display is sampled by these gates, each of width  $\tau/2$ .

If the areas of the portions of the echo in each gate are equal, then the position of the gates – i.e. the delay  $\Delta t$  relative to the 'tr' pulse, Fig. 4 – indicates the range.

Monostable device  $M_1$  is triggered by the tr pulse, its delay being determined by its timing components. These include an FET, controlled by feedback from the SUM amplifier.

Analogue switch  $SG_1$  gates the received echo to  $SG_2$  and  $SG_3$ . The area of the echo under the early and late gates is thus integrated by  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  respectively.

The inverted early gate output is summed with the late gate output, the result controlling the period of  $M_1$ , waveform b) of Figure 4.

Integrators  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  are reset by the transmit pulse tr each sweep, so that the SUM output is always updated to

correspond to the current position.

Tracking is initiated by setting switch SW to A, applying a fixed voltage  $V_1$  to the gate of the FET. Potentiometer PR is adjusted to centre the bright-up cursor, g) of Fig. 4, on the selected target, and SW returned to position B. The output of

OR<sub>2</sub>, f), gives the range in PWM form, and the negative edge detect NED output, g), in PPM form.

**K. Balasubramanian**  
European University of Lefke,  
Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus  
D96

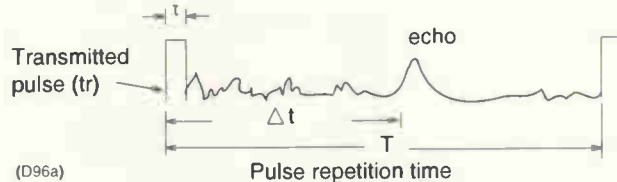


Fig. 1. Echo delay  $\Delta t$  gives the target range.

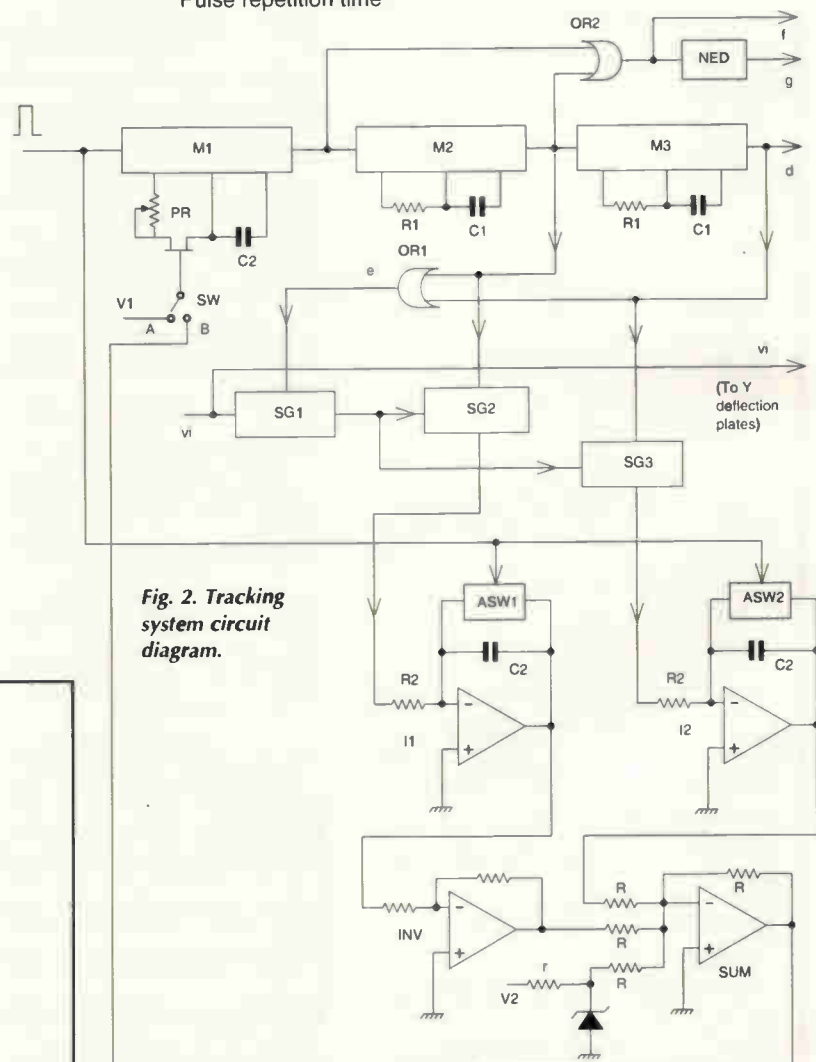


Fig. 2. Tracking system circuit diagram.

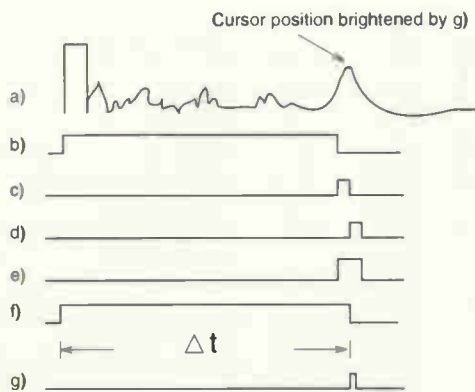


Fig. 4  
a) 'A' scope trace  
b)  $M_1$  output  
c)  $M_2$  (early gate)  
d)  $M_3$  (late gate)  
e) OR<sub>1</sub> output  
f) OR<sub>2</sub> output (PWM range)  
g) NED output (PPM range)

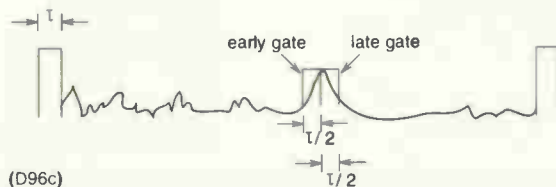


Fig. 3. Showing gates centred on target return.



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## NI4050

The NI 4050 is a full-feature digital multimeter (DMM) for hand-held and notebook computers with a Type II PC Card (PCMCIA) slot. The NI 4050 features accurate 5<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub> digit DC voltage, true-rms AC voltage, and resistance (ohms) measurements. Its size, weight, and low power consumption make it ideal for portable measurements and data logging with hand-held and notebook computers.

- DC Measurements: 20mV to 250V DC; 20mA to 10A
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- Up to 60 readings/s
- UL Listed
- 5<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub> Digit Multimeter for PCMCIA

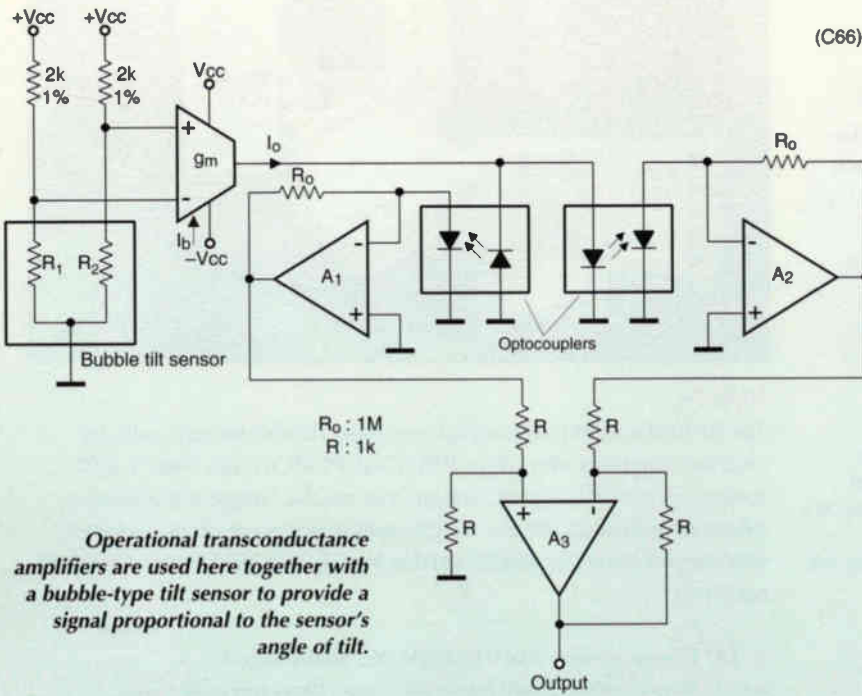
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# Photoelectric tilt sensor



Operational transconductance amplifiers are used here together with a bubble-type tilt sensor to provide a signal proportional to the sensor's angle of tilt.

Angle of tilt information is extracted from an electrolytic tilt sensor in this circuit. The sensor is connected in a Wheatstone bridge arrangement so that the tilt angle and direction is sensed due to the varying resistances  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ .

Differential output of the bridge connects to an operational transconductance amplifier. The magnitude of the transconductance amplifier's output current is determined by the transconductance  $g_m = I_b / 2V_T$ , where  $I_b$  is the auxiliary bias current and  $V_T$  is the thermal voltage.

Magnitude and direction of the output current depends on  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  and thus flows in the LED of one or other optocoupler. Transconductance of  $A_1$  or  $A_2$ , and hence resultant output voltage, is determined by the value of  $R_0$ , typically  $1M\Omega$  or more.

Outputs of  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are applied to  $A_3$ , connected as a differential amplifier, thus rejecting any common mode errors due to temperature effects on the photodiodes or other causes. The output of  $A_3$  represents the wanted direction and angle of tilt.

Current  $I_b$  can be manipulated to alter the angle-to-voltage scaling factor.

**M Abuelma'atti**  
Dahran  
Saudi Arabia  
C66

# Telephone light switch

This circuit switches on an electric light in the vicinity of a telephone when it rings, if natural light is insufficient. It is built around two monostables,  $IC_{1a,b}$ ,  $R_1$ ,  $C_1$ ;  $IC_{1c,d}$ ,  $R_2$  and  $C_2$ .

When the telephone rings, voltage at point 2 falls, triggering both monostables, assuming the photodiode

has not pulled point 1 low. The period of monostable 2, waveform 4, is longer than that of monostable 1, waveform 3.

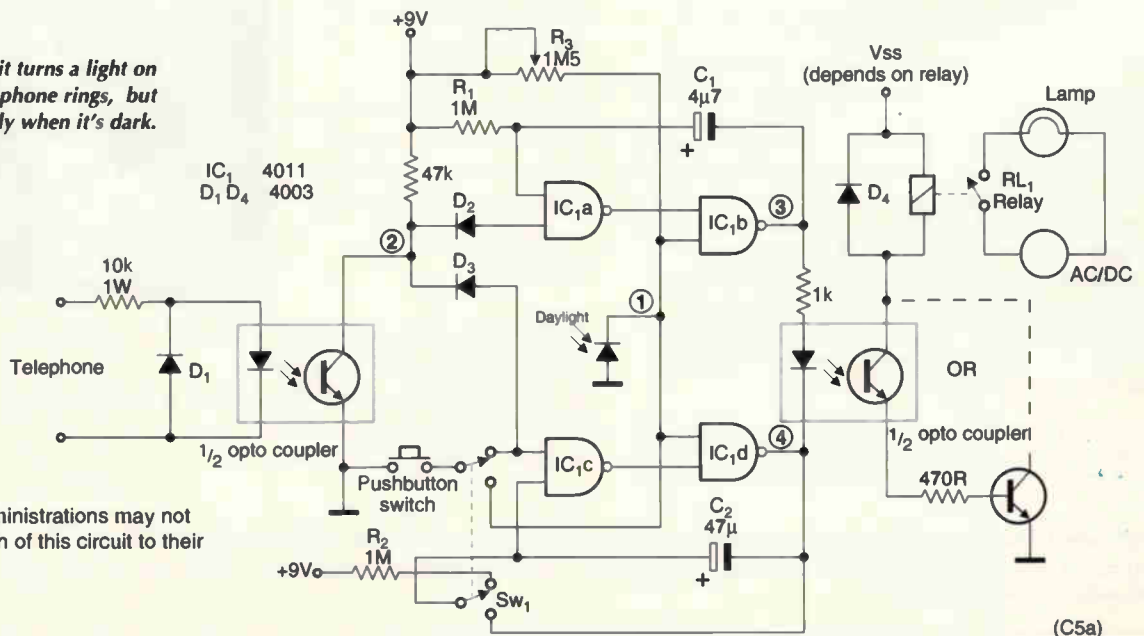
During the period when waveform 4 is low but waveform 3 has returned high, the second optocoupler is activated and the lamp is on.

The period for which the lamp is lit can be extended via the push-button

switch. Assuming  $Sw_1$  is in its 'up' position, setting  $Sw_1$  to 'down' lights the light continuously, but it can be extinguished by pressing the push-button.

**Vasiliy Borodai**  
Zaporozhje  
Ukraine  
C5a

This circuit turns a light on when the phone rings, but only when it's dark.



Some telephone administrations may not permit the connection of this circuit to their lines. Ed.



# Low noise solid-state relay

In most commercial solid-state relays, zero crossing detection is by a standard opto-coupled triac. The 'zero point' thus sensed is somewhere between 20 and 35 volts, and the load waveform is therefore distorted, resulting in harmonics.

These harmonics can cause EMC problems of about 120dB at 100kHz, requiring filtering. This is bulky, and not always effective in reaching the required specification.

Shown is an improved solid-state relay. A thyristor requires about 0.8V cathode to gate bias before latching on, and here, this is bypassed by a low forward conduction Schottky diode.

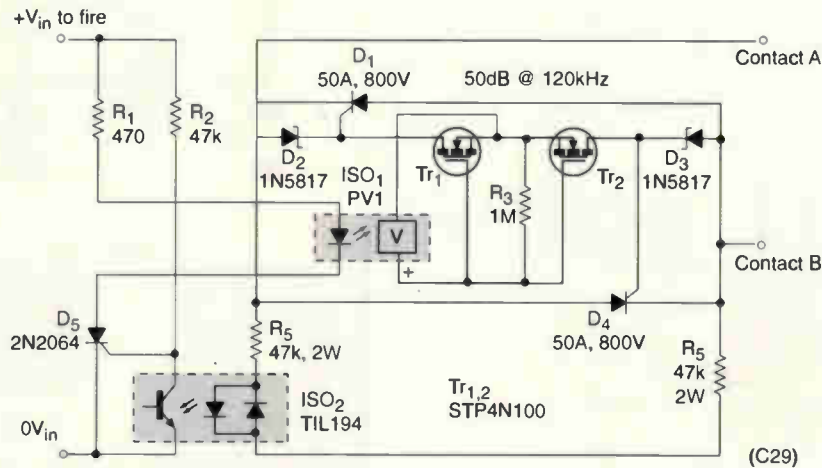
Zero crossing detection is by an optocoupler and a pilot thyristor. When the voltage across  $ISO_2$  falls to too low a level to maintain current in the LED, the opto transistor turns off. Thus, assuming  $+V_{in}$  has been asserted to turn on the relay, pilot triac  $D_5$  turns on, and current flows in the photovoltaic coupler  $ISO_1$ . This produces a high enough voltage to turn on the source coupled FETs  $Tr_1$  and  $Tr_2$ .

In this configuration, both FETs are conducting, one in the forward direction and the other in the reverse, not as might be supposed via the body diode. The total  $R_{ds(on)}$  is about  $7\Omega$ , and the thyristor turns on at some 30mA gate current. Up to this point, current flows in parallel with the thyristor, via the FETs and the Schottky diode, reducing harmonic distortion and the consequent

RFI/EMC to the 50dB level.

Removing the control signal  $+V_{in}$  causes the FETs, and hence the thyristors, to turn off. Due to the storage time in the FETs, this in fact takes about one to one and a half cycles.

**Colin Wonfor**  
Dumfermline  
Scotland  
C29



*Relays that incorporate zero-crossing actually switch at zero volts, resulting in EMI. This alternative switches at much nearer 0V, significantly reducing EMC problems.*

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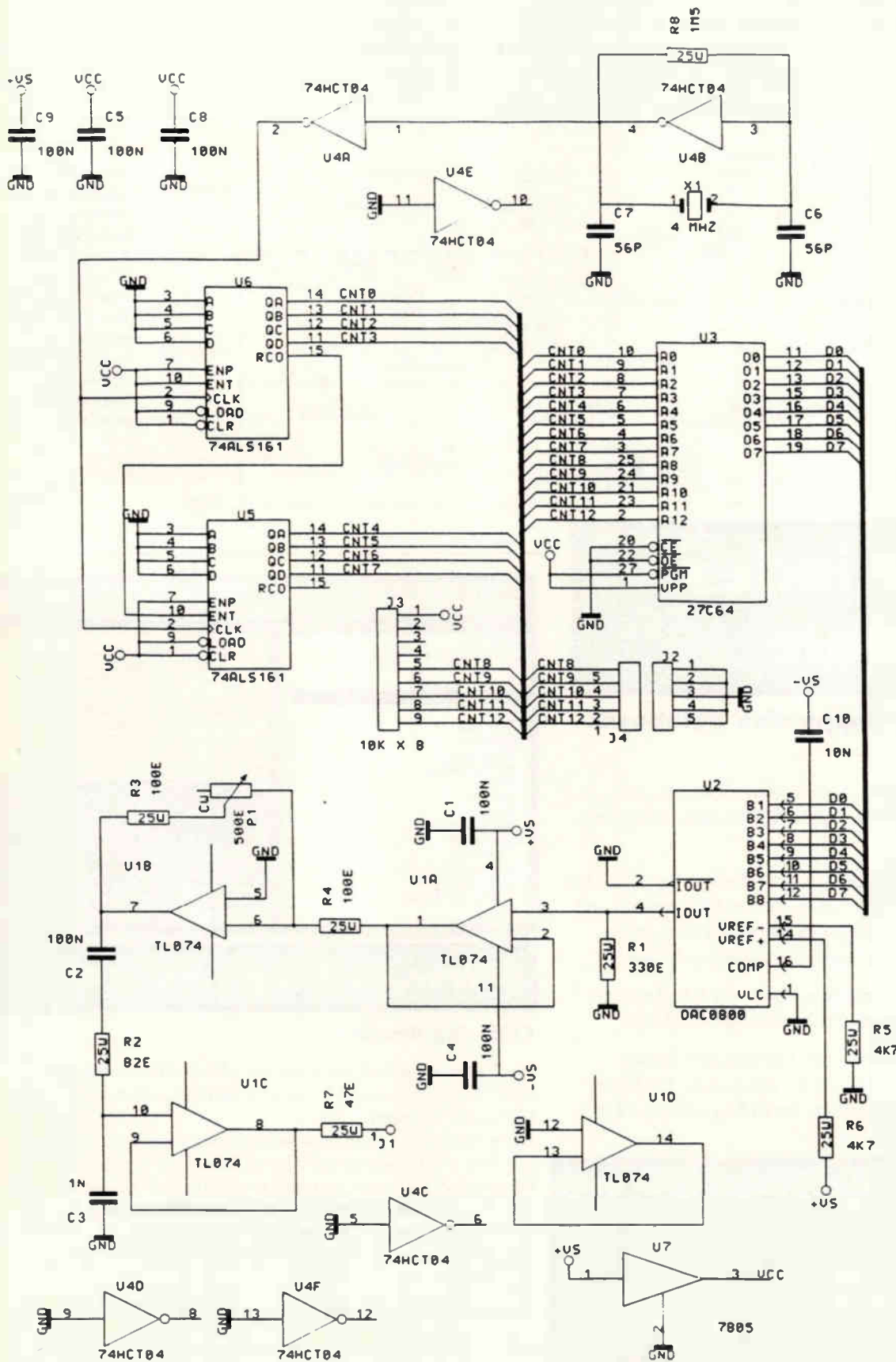
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# A low-cost function generator



A simple flexible function generator can be built using a single EPROM, a standard d-to-a converter and a counter. The principle is based on direct digital synthesis, or DDS, where the digital samples of the required function are stored in a memory, an EPROM for example, and read out in a cyclic manner.

The digital samples are spaced in time by the memory clock frequency period  $T$ . The digitised signal is converted to the analogue domain by the d-to-a converter and a low-pass filter selects the base-band signal (the first Nyquist window, from 0 to  $F_s/2$ , where  $F_s = 1/T$ ).

Most commercially available DDS chips have a sinewave output, the output frequency being set by the user clock. By using an EPROM, you can build whatever signal you want, as long as the signal is cyclic. To avoid distortion, the first sample and the last sample should be the same, so that as the sequence repeats, there is no discontinuity in the output.

The setup as shown on the schematic will generate the required sequence, between frequency limits of 16kHz and 500kHz. Four-bit counters  $U_5$  and  $U_6$  form the 8-bit count word, which generates addresses for the memory EPROM,  $U_3$ , together with the 8-bit d-to-a converter for the analogue conversion.

An inverter generates the 4MHz clock for the counter. The address range of the 8-bit wide EPROM is 256 samples per stored waveform. The sample frequency of the signal is the frequency of the CNT0 signal, being 2MHz (LSB of the counter).

There are five jumpers allowing selection of 32 different sequences of 256 samples in the EPROM. To select the first bank, bank0, all five jumpers should be present, as each address pin from CNT8 to CNT12 is pulled-up with a 10k resistor.

The d-to-a converter is a standard DAC0800, where the reference resistor  $R_6$  sets



the reference current to 2.55mA. Full-scale output-current of the converter is therefore  $(255/256) \times I_{ref}$ . Resistor  $R_1$  sets the full-scale voltage at 840mV and  $P_1$  allows the gain to be adjusted between 1 and 6.

Components  $R_2$  and  $C_3$  set the low-pass filter cut-off frequency at 2MHz. Output impedance of  $U_1$  is 50 $\Omega$ , suitable to drive coaxial lines.

Voltage  $V_s$  is 12V and  $V_{CC}$  is +5V.

Contents of the EPROM are generated with a simple C program,

as per the listing. As shown, this generates 32 sequences. The source code, executables and EPROM content are freely available at [apollonia@skynet.be](mailto:apollonia@skynet.be).

Further extensions are possible. Two EPROMs and further address counters can be added to provide 16-bit resolution. The EPROM may be replaced by a RAM, loaded via buffering from a PC parallel or serial port. Higher clock frequencies can then be used, and a programmable

function generator implemented.

By using a larger counter and addressing more address lines of the EPROM, longer sequences can be generated. For these extensions, the C code for the mapping of the sequence samples in the EPROM needs to be changed accordingly.

**Martin Van De Weghe**  
9620 Zottegem  
Belgium  
E3

#### Listing in C for the PC-controlled function generator.

```

*/ An array of 256 samples is used to generate the
sequence. In total, 32 sequences can be defined to be
stored in the EPROM. The format of the EPROM is absolute
binary and the first samples should start on address 0.
Two functions are shown to make ramps (make_ramp) and to
make sines (make_sine)
*/
#include <math.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <conio.h>
#define samples 255
#define pi 3.1415
void output_to_new_file (unsigned char *signal, char
*FileName)
{
    FILE *outstream;
    int i;
    if ((outstream = fopen(FileName, "wb")) == NULL)
    {
        printf("\nThe outputfile could not be opened");
    }
    else
    {
        printf("\n");
        for (i=0; i<=samples; i++)
        {
            if ((signal[i]>=0) & (signal[i]<=255))
            {
                fputc(signal[i], outstream);
            }
            else
            {
                printf("Data exceeds range [0..255] !!");
                fputc(255, outstream);
            }
        }
        fclose (outstream);
    }
};

void append_to_file ( unsigned char *signal, char
*FileName)
{
    FILE *outstream;
    int i;
    if ((outstream = fopen(FileName, "ab")) == NULL)
    {
        printf("\nThe outputfile could not be opened");
    }
    else
    {
        printf("\n");
        for (i=0; i<=samples; i++)
        {
            if ((signal[i]>=0) & (signal[i]<=255))
            {
                fputc(signal[i], outstream);
            }
            else
            {
                printf("Data exceeds range [0..255] !!");
                fputc(255, outstream);
            }
        }
        fclose (outstream);
    }
};

void make_ramp ( unsigned char *signal, unsigned char
factor)
/* Variable factor determines No of ramps per sequence:
the more 'ramps', the steeper they are.
*/
{
    int i, j;
    for (i=1; i<=factor; i++)
    {
        for (j=(i-1)*(256/factor); j<=(i*(256/factor))-1; j++)
        {
            signal [j]=j*factor;
        }
    }
};

void make_sine ( unsigned char *signal, unsigned char
factor)
/* Here the variable factor determines the sine frequency
= (4MHz*factor)/256.
*/
{
    int i, j;
    double x;
    for (i=1; i<=factor; i++)
    {
        for (j=(i-1)*(256/factor); j<=(i*(256/factor))-1; j++)
        {
            x = 127*sin(2*pi*j*factor/256);
            signal[j]=(unsigned char)(x+128);
        }
    }
};

void main()
{
    unsigned char signal [samples];
    /* Four ramps */
    make_ramp(signal,1);
    output_to_new_file(signal, "test.abs");
    make_ramp(signal,2);
    append_to_file(signal, "test.abs");
    make_ramp(signal,3);
    append_to_file(signal, "test.abs");
    make_ramp(signal,4);
    append_to_file(signal, "test.abs");
    /* Four sines */
    make_sine(signal,1);
    append_to_file(signal, "test.abs");
    make_sine(signal,2);
    append_to_file(signal, "test.abs");
    make_sine(signal,3);
    append_to_file(signal, "test.abs");
    make_sine(signal,4);
    append_to_file(signal, "test.abs");
    make_sine(signal,5);
    append_to_file(signal, "test.abs");
    make_sine(signal,6);
    append_to_file(signal, "test.abs");
    make_sine(signal,7);
    append_to_file(signal, "test.abs");
    make_sine(signal,8);
    append_to_file(signal, "test.abs");
}

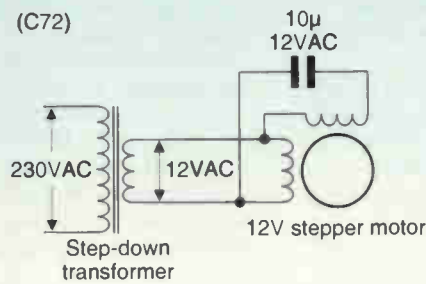
```

## Simple fixed-speed stepper motor driver

In some applications where position control is not required, this inexpensive stepper motor drive arrangement may be used. The micro-stepper drive motor is driven by sine and cosine waveforms, using a step-down transformer and a capacitor. The capacitor generates the phase-shifted cosine wave.

The limitation is that the motor speed is fixed at synchronous speed, given by  $120f/p$ , where  $p$  is the number of poles and  $f$  the mains (line) frequency.

**Vikas Meshram**  
Indore  
India  
C72



If you need a fixed rotational speed but have only a stepping motor, this simple sine/cosine drive may be the answer.

Note: stepper motor should be of permanent magnet type

## $h_{FE}$ tester uses no meter

This is a test set for measuring the  $h_{FE}$  of transistors, either n-p-n or p-n-p. It is completely self contained and very low cost, as it does not use a meter. The arrangement is an improved version of a scheme published some years ago.<sup>1</sup>

Base current bias for the transistor is supplied from its own collector circuit. The base current therefore flows through the collector resistor  $R_c$ , and thence via base resistor  $R_b$  ( $RV_1$ ) and another resistor of value equal to  $R_c$ .

Op-amp  $IC_{1a}$  produces a buffered reference voltage equal to the transistor's base voltage. Thus the non-inverting input of  $IC_{1b}$  is held at a potential midway between base voltage of the transistor under test

and the supply rail.

Potentiometer  $RV_1$  is adjusted so that the voltage across its collector resistor  $R_c$  is equal to its collector-base voltage. This condition is indicated by one LED just extinguishing and the other lighting. The change-over point is clearly loop, without any negative feedback.

When this condition applies, the collector current  $I_c$  and the base current  $I_b$  are related as follows.

$$V_{load} = V_{cb}$$

so,

$$R_c(I_b + I_c) = (R_b + R_c)I_b$$

The term  $R_c I_b$  appears on both sides of the equation and therefore cancels

out, leaving the relationship,

$$R_c I_c = R_b I_b$$

from which,

$$h_{FE} = I_c / I_b = R_b / R_c$$

A pointer knob on the 100k $\Omega$  potentiometer  $RV_1$  is used to indicate the resistance setting, which is marked directly on the panel of the instrument. Two  $h_{FE}$  ranges are provided. If  $S_1$  is used to select  $R_c = 100\Omega$ , then  $RV_1$  provides a range of  $h_{FE}$  readings up to 1000, while with the 1k $\Omega$  collector load selected, values up to  $h_{FE} = 100$  are indicated.

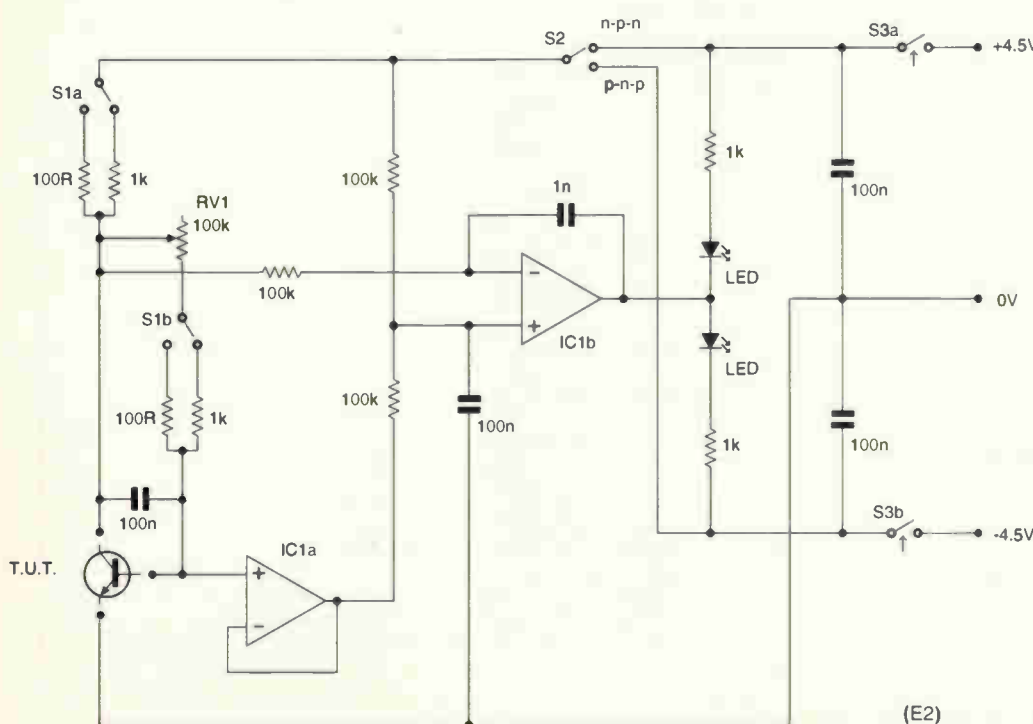
For  $IC_1$ , a BiCMOS or CMOS type should be used, with negligible bias current  $I_{bo}$ . A TL082 proved satisfactory, although a more modern type designed for  $\pm 5V$  supplies would be even better.

Switch  $S_2$  permits either n-p-n or p-n-p devices to be tested. Note that when testing an n-p-n transistor, as in the diagram, if the setting of  $RV_1$  is too high the upper LED will be lit, or the lower LED if the setting is too low. When testing a p-n-p device, the situation is reversed.

The tester is designed to be powered from two 4.5V flashlamp batteries, type 703 or 1289. IEC designation 3R12. Assuming a biased toggle is used as indicated at  $S_3$ , to prevent the instrument being accidentally left switched on, the batteries should last almost indefinitely.

**Ian March**  
Waterlooville  
Hampshire  
E2

Ref. 1. 'Novel direct reading  $h_{FE}$  Tester,' *Electronic Engineering*, April 1988, page 28.



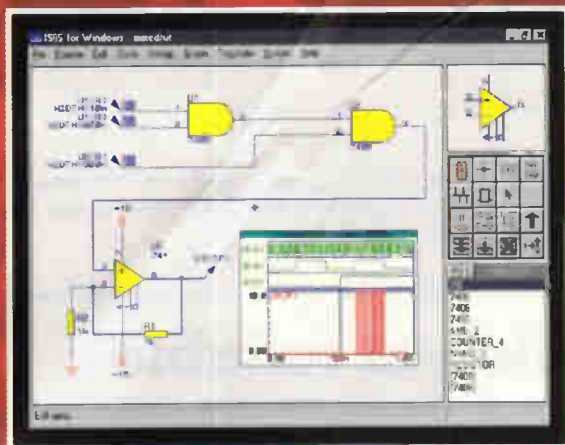


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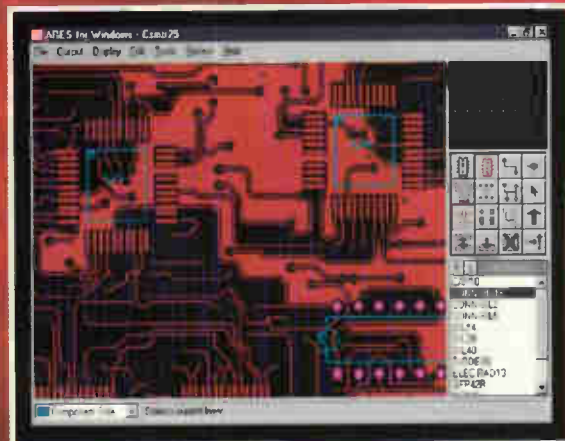


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# Isolated power-on switch

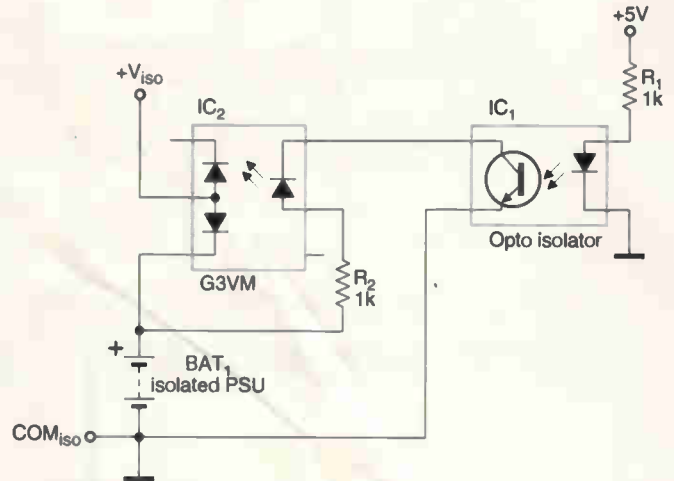
This circuit was developed to switch on an isolation amplifier when the unit's serial interface supply was turned on.

Due to mounting problems associated with the unit's enclosure, the use of two separated switches was ruled out. The solution was to use a photo-relay connected in series with the isolation amplifier's battery.

Current for the photo-relay's LED is formed by the  $I_{ce}$  current of an optoisolator transistor. The optoisolator's LED is supplied from the serial interface power supply. Thus when the serial interface supply is turned on, the isolation amplifier is powered up.

In the power-off state, the optoisolator current drawn from the isolation battery power supply is very small, and only a few milliamps in the powered state.

**W. Maggs**  
Bedminster Down  
Bristol, U.K.  
C73



Designed to power up an isolation amplifier when the +5V supply powering a serial interface is sensed, this circuit consumes very little battery power when in the 'off' state.

# Capacitive keypad is simple yet reliable

A simple and reliable keypad – or switch – sensor can be made using the propagation delay and high input impedance of the CMOS digital family.

This circuit uses four 4011 NAND gates and an octal D-type flip-flop designated 74HC374. Two of the gates operate as a clock oscillator, while the other two provide a clock to the octal D-type flip-flop, delayed

by the time  $T$ , see the timing diagram.

When a finger is placed on a touch plate, the increase in its effective capacitance is sufficient to delay the rising edge at the corresponding D input, so that a logic 'one' is latched, instead of a logic 'zero'.

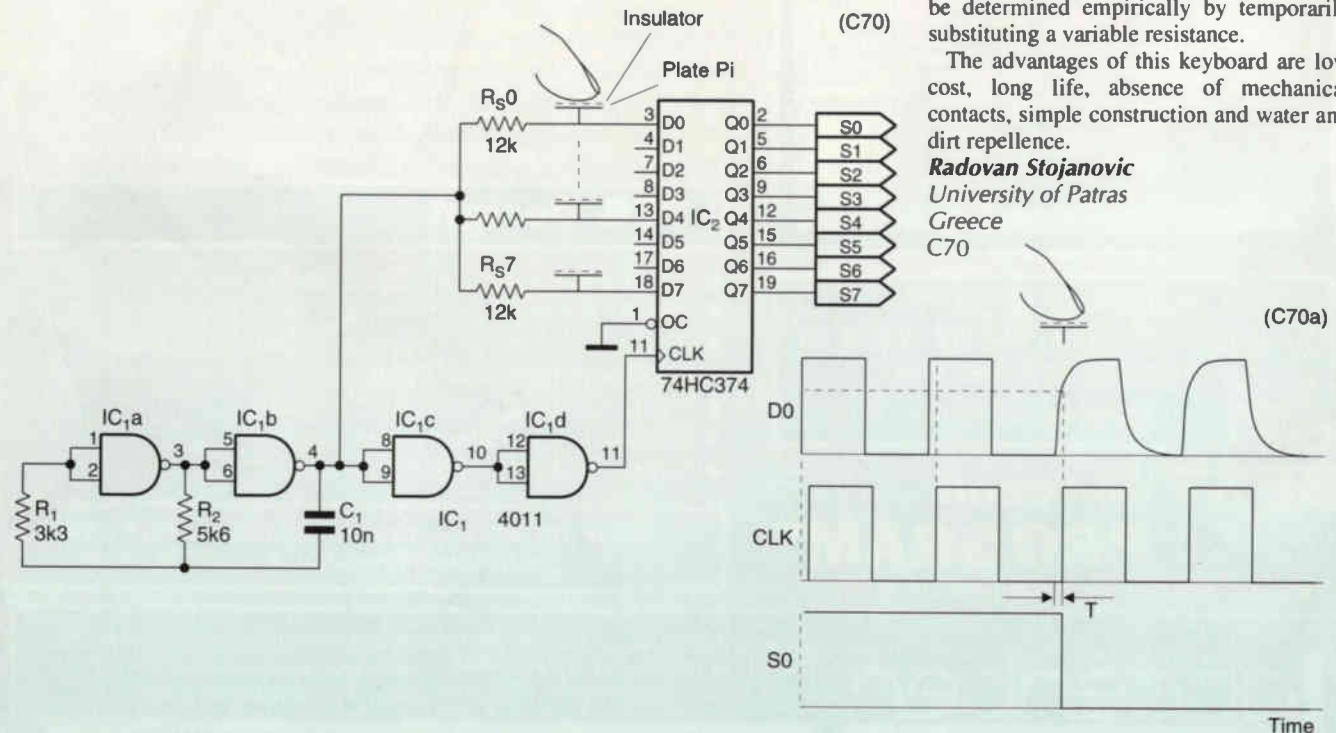
Value of resistors  $R_{s0-7}$  are given by the inequality,

$$R_{s0} \times C \ln \frac{V_{cc}}{V_{cc} - V_{IL(max)}} \geq T_{max}$$

where  $C$  is the total capacitance associated with each D input with finger present,  $V_{IL(max)}$  the maximum input low voltage and  $T_{max}$  the maximum delay between the D and clock signals. The minimum value of  $R_{s0}$  can be determined empirically by temporarily substituting a variable resistance.

The advantages of this keyboard are low cost, long life, absence of mechanical contacts, simple construction and water and dirt repellence.

**Radovan Stojanovic**  
University of Patras  
Greece  
C70



Touch keypad with eight contacts works off finger capacitance and needs only two ICs to provide logic-level output.





## Automatic gain control for audio

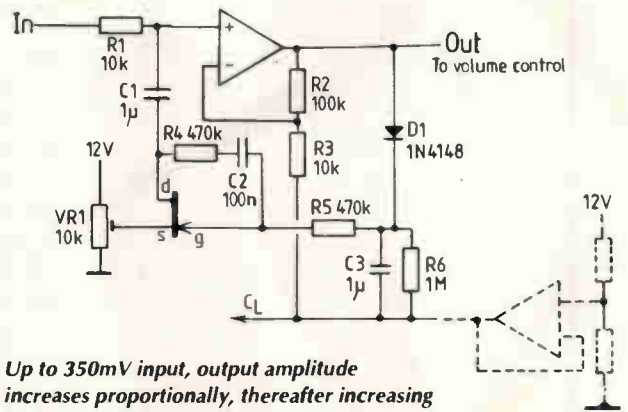
This audio AGC circuit is an improved version requiring only one op-amp. With inputs increasing up to 350mV, the output rises pro rata, increasing up to 1.5V. With larger inputs, increasing by up to a further 30dB, the output increases by less than 0.5dB.

Sensitivity may be increased by reducing  $R_3$ . When  $R_3$  equals 5.6k $\Omega$ , limiting commences at 125mV. Components  $R_4$  and  $C_2$  prevent audio distortion when in limiting.

The prototype used an MEF103 FET, adjust preset  $VR_1$  allowing for device selection tolerance. For single-rail applications, the centre-rail generator, shown dotted, may be used.  $R_2/R_3$  sets the small signal gain.

**John Hey G3TDZ**

Leeds  
E1



Up to 350mV input, output amplitude increases proportionally, thereafter increasing by only 0.5dB for a further 30dB input.

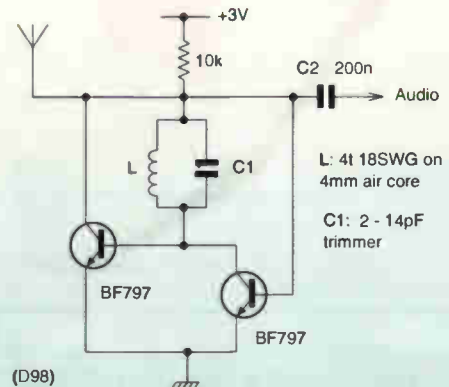
## Simple FM broadcast receiver

This simple FM radio receiver uses only two transistors. They function as a low power oscillator, the frequency being determined by  $L$  and  $C_1$ .

When the frequency of oscillation is the same as that of the wanted signal, the recovered audio is available at the output. The audio signal is dc blocked by  $C_2$  and fed to an audio amplifier.

**Rajik Gorland**  
(address not supplied)  
D98

*This synchronised oscillator recovers the audio from a broadcast FM station.*



(D98)

## Simple glass-fibre receiver monitors laser pulses

The circuit shown uses a low-cost multimode glass fibre and receiver to monitor the shape of pulses from a copper vapour laser. The laser gives optical pulses of approximately 45ns FWHM and at 510nm and 578nm wavelength.

The set-up uses an HP HFBR2406 receiver, mounted near an oscilloscope and coupled to a 100/140 $\mu$ m multimode glass

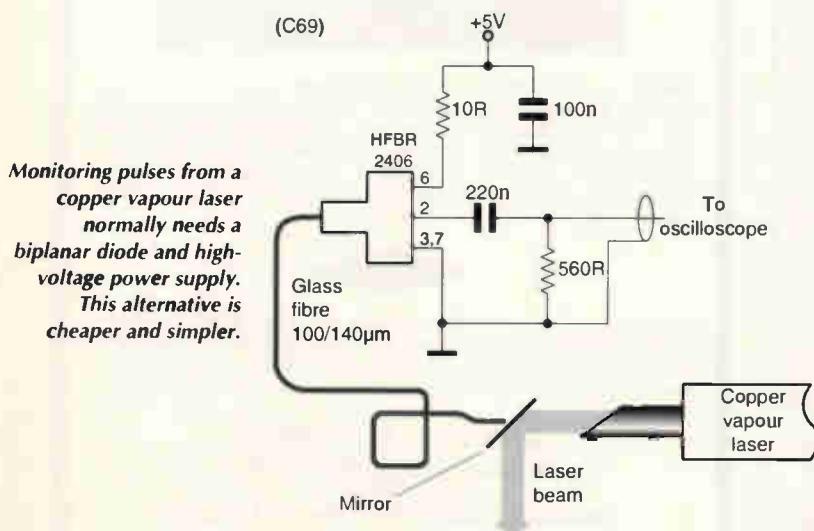
fibre. Both the HFBR2406 and the fibre are low-cost components.

The other end of the fibre intercepts part of the beam, or, such is the sensitivity of the receiver, can even work on stray reflected laser light. Working on a single 5V supply, the circuit is much cheaper and less cumbersome than the standard set-up, which requires a biplanar diode and associated

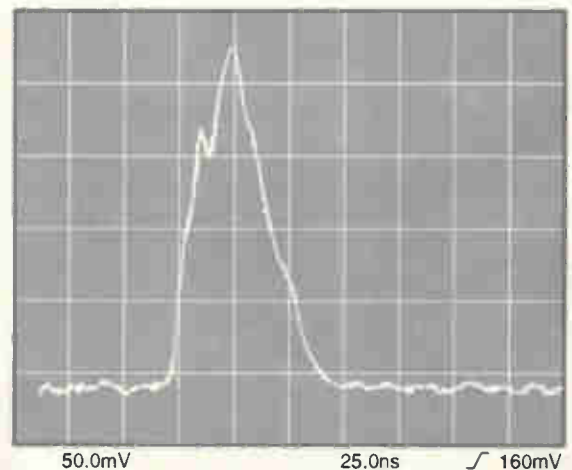
high-voltage power supply.

In the second diagram, pulses from the laser are shown, monitored on a Tektronix TDS540 oscilloscope. The set-up can be used to monitor pulses from other lasers – particularly in the visible band.

**S. V. Nahke**  
Indore 452013  
India, C69

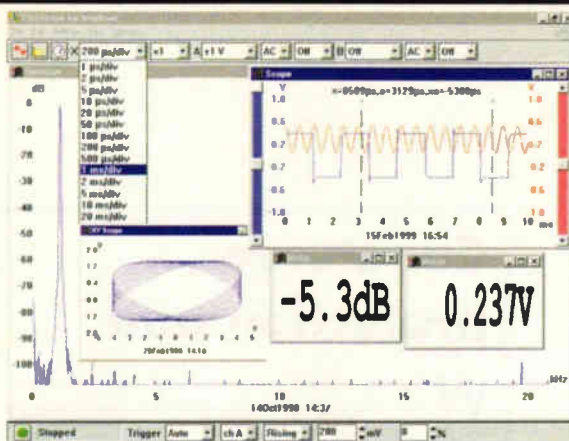


Monitoring pulses from a copper vapour laser normally needs a biplanar diode and high-voltage power supply. This alternative is cheaper and simpler.





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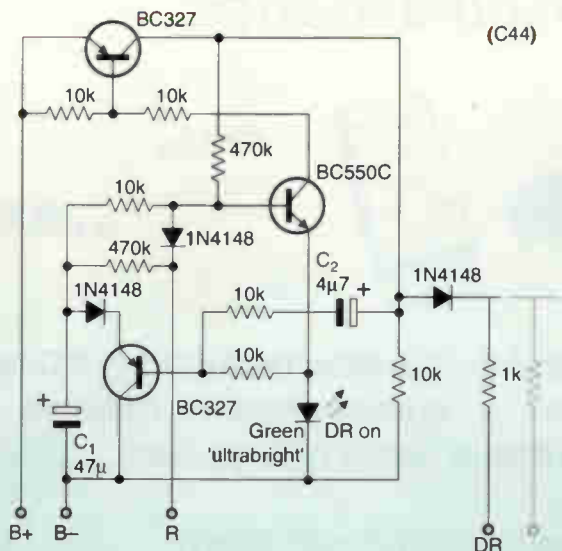
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## Car stereo protection unit

With customised in-car entertainment component systems, it is essential that loudspeaker thumping at switch-on is prevented by activating the power amplifiers after all other equipment has stabilised. This circuit provides:

- a latching delayed DR output five seconds after the normal R line goes high (for a 2.5 second delay, change  $C_1$  to 22 $\mu$ F);
- an R 'off' causes an immediate DR 'off';
- with R 'on' but a sudden B+ drop that exceeds 2V (engine starting or overloaded battery cell),  $C_1$  is immediately discharged via the  $C_2$  circuit, and DR resets cutting the audio for five seconds.

Graham Maynard,  
Newtownabbey  
N. Ireland  
C44



This gating provides two signals, D and DR, which make sure that in-car power amplifiers don't suffer from power surges.

## PC control of a DC motor

This circuit, in conjunction with a PC, controls the speed and direction of rotation of a DC electric motor, via the PC's parallel port LPT1. It uses bridge connected complementary transistors with freewheeling diodes. Controlling the bridge are two 2SC1483 transistors, which interface with the parallel port of the PC at address 378<sub>16</sub>.

Data bits  $D_0$  and  $D_1$ , on pins 2 and 3 of the parallel port are used to drive the bridge circuit. Pin 25 of the parallel port is connected to the

0V ground of the bridge power supply. The simple QuickBasic program runs the DC motor at any speed in either direction.

A data 0 on bit  $D_0$  and a 1 on  $D_1$  switch transistors  $Tr_1$  and  $Tr_3$  'on', resulting in current flow through the motor in one direction. A data 1 on bit  $D_0$  and a 0 on  $D_1$  switch transistors  $Tr_2$  and  $Tr_4$  'on', resulting in current flow through the motor in the other direction, reversing the direction of rotation.

The software controls the motor speed by pulse width modulation. If, for example,  $D_0$  is at logic 0 and hence  $Tr_1$  is 'on', current flow through the

motor is controlled by switching on  $Tr_2$  and  $Tr_3$  alternately. Setting the length of one FOR/NEXT loop, while adjusting the other to keep the sum constant, results in pulse width modulation of the motor current.

With the QuickBasic program running on a P-1 166MHz PC, a pulse-width modulation frequency of about 7kHz resulted. Speed and direction of rotation are controlled by the keys F1 and F2.

M T Iqbal  
Rawalpindi  
Pakistan  
E4

### Listing for PC control

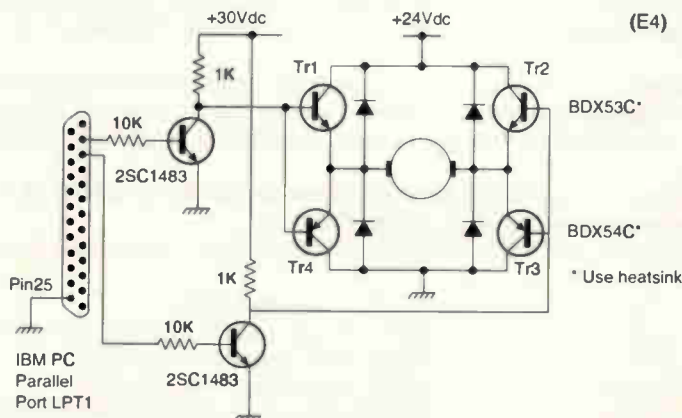
```

ON KEY (1) GOSUB Speed
KEY(1) ON
ON KEY (2) GOSUB Direction
KEY(2) ON
d = 1: h = 500: l = 0

INPUT "Speed 0 - 500 = "; s
20 FOR i% = 0 TO h - s: NEXT i%
OUT &H378, d
FOR j% = 0 TO l + s: NEXT j%
OUT &H378, 0
GOTO 20

Speed:
INPUT "Speed 0 - 500 = "; s
RETURN

Direction:
INPUT "Direction 1=>CW; 2=>CCW "; d
RETURN
    
```





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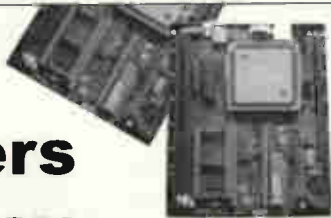
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# Perfect conversions

What are the most common mistakes made when engineers design with analogue-to-digital converters? Steve Bush asked five application engineers from the companies that make the chips

*Suggested layout diagrams, which can be lifted directly into your application, are effort-saving gems that can be dug up in data sheets.*

**A**nalogue-to-digital converters are deceptive little beasts. On the face of it, they are simply building blocks, to be dropped into a circuit at will. In reality they are a can of worms and the surrounding circuitry has to be very carefully considered if all

the performance you pay for in the chip is to be realised in the final circuit.

Fast or high-resolution analogue-to-digital, or a-to-d, converters, are the most difficult to apply, but there is still plenty of scope for the uninitiated to make cock-ups in the

simplest of low-performance designs. Only the foolhardy set forth without a thorough understanding the principles involved.

## Grounding and power

Grounding seems to be the issue that most frequently confuses the uninitiated. Except for the simplest, most a-to-d converters have more than one ground connection. These are provided to allow digitally sourced switching currents to be routed away from the inductance and resistance of bond wires and tracks carrying the input signal.

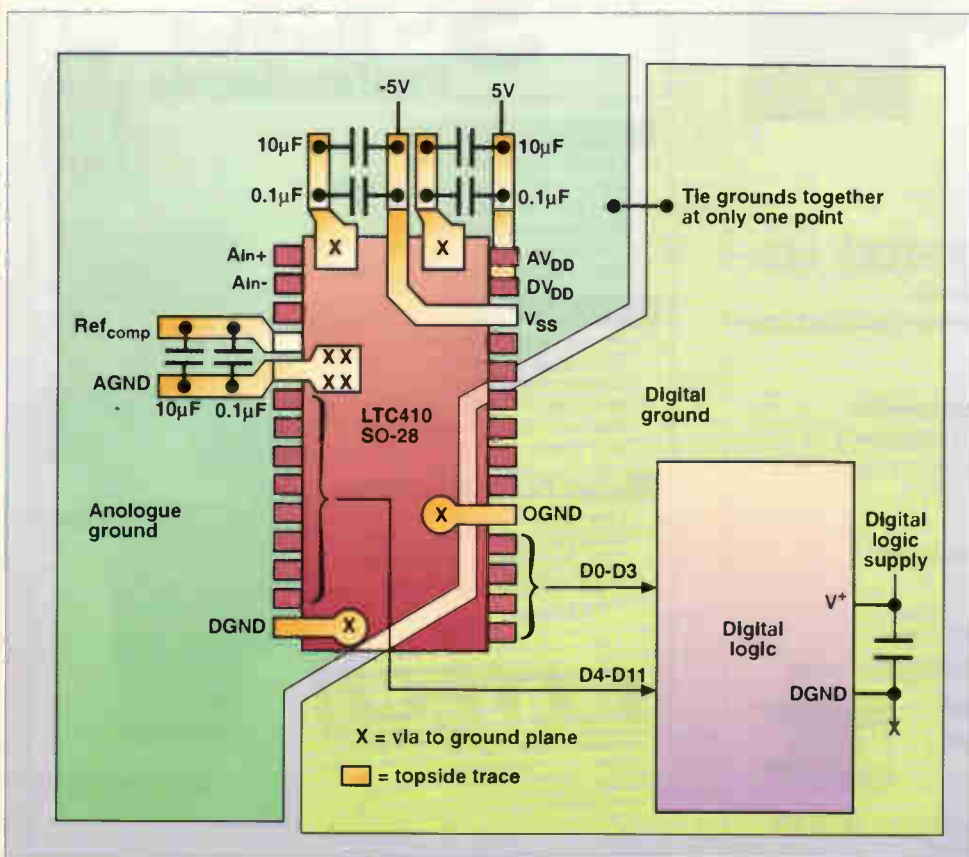
The most extreme grounding problems are to be found in instrumentation a-to-d converters.

"A single point ground is absolutely critical for instrumentation," says Adolpho Garcia, applications manager at Linear Technology. "We produce sigma-delta a-to-d converters with more than 20-bit resolution. One LSB (least-significant bit) for these converters is in the order of  $1\mu\text{V}$ ."

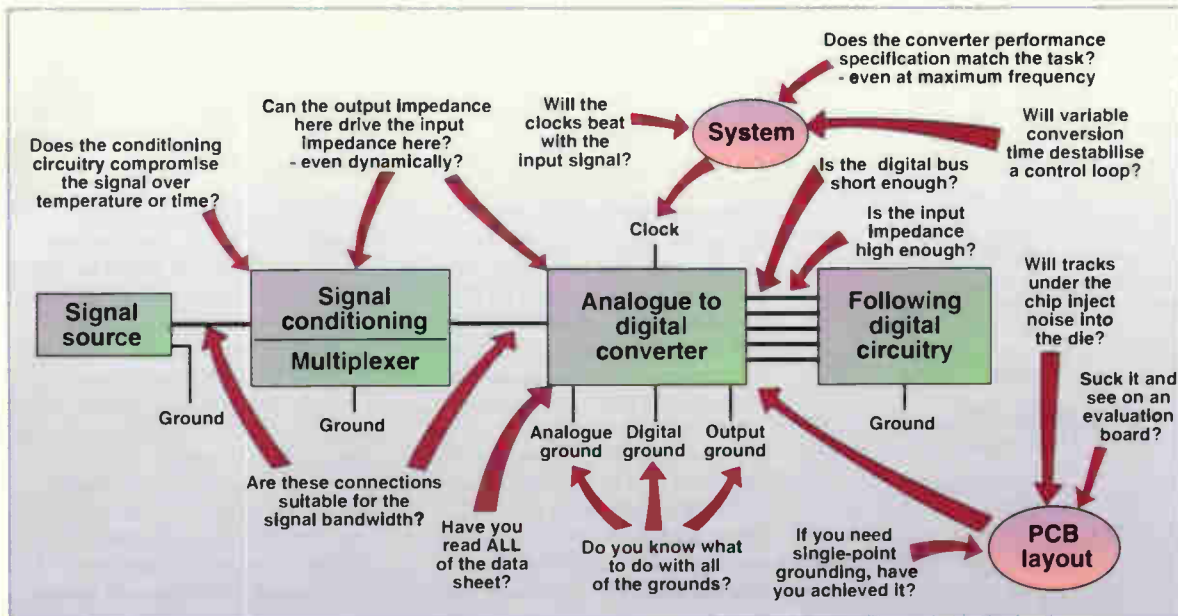
A milliamp of current through  $1\text{m}\Omega$  of track can produce this on its own, without invoking inductance and 100mA bus driver pulses.

The idea of single-point grounding is to separate all the converter system current paths until they meet at one point. This point acts as a local reference ground, even though circuit currents will impose voltage variations on it with respect to the PCB power ground connection.

Working to maintain a single-







*Take heed... The distilled wisdom of five top analogue-to-digital converter application specialists. It may not say everything, but ignore it at your peril.*

point ground in a design, in the face of grounding due to chassis-mounted connectors and the like, can be a major system-level exercise.

The next step down from single point grounding is to isolate part of the PCB ground plane, assuming it is an equi-potential surface and declaring it the 'analogue ground'. This can be a good alternative to strict single-point grounding and is probably the most common way to implement high-performance a-to-d converter circuits.

As before, this has to be done with extreme care as the equi-potential assumption has to be valid for the signals you are designing for.

Some, with good justification, advocate a single ground plane. But "One big ground plane is certainly not always the best strategy," warns Marcel Pelgrom of Philips' mixed-signal research group.

At the low-performance end, a-to-d converters are mostly integrated on-chip with microcontrollers. There is little scope for finesse here, but an understanding of basic principles can still pay dividends.

Proper supply-rail decoupling is vital if the a-to-d converter power pins are not to become alternative converter inputs.

Some say you cannot go too far. "You want short loops and no inductance. Try to glue the decoupling caps under the die," says Pelgrom. "With a 12-bit 50MHz converter there is 120 to 140dB more energy switched in the output latch than in the input signal." This puts into perspective

the importance of proper output latch grounding and decoupling.

The aspect of circuit design that is frequently left until late and then palmed off onto some unsuspecting PCB designer is the layout of conductors under and around the a-to-d converter chip. This sweep-it-under-the-carpet approach is likely to decrease resolution or increase system noise. Both, if it is not your day.

Makers of a-to-d converter chips are now used to circuit designers compromising the performance of their babies and now – for it was not always so – mostly include plenty of layout information in their device data sheets. The gems among these are suggested layout diagrams which can be lifted directly into your application.

Evaluation boards are another wonder that chip makers have woken up to supplying. Unless your Spice skills are particularly well honed, or lucky is your middle name, use them to breadboard that tricky a-to-d converter section before you go for a first PCB.

National Semiconductor does a PC interface board and software suite to go along with some of its a-to-d converters, to enable statistical performance data to be gathered at an early stage.

### The importance of timing

Most converters require some form of clock signal. In a low-speed application, this could come straight from the system clock, but as speed increases, jitter in the clock becomes an issue.

"It is no use looking at dynamic performance of a 20MHz 12-bit

### The most important thing

Ask a bunch of analogue to digital converter application engineers for one good tip they will cry in unison: "READ THE DATA SHEET." And they mean all of it, not just the first page. Beyond this, there are many general texts. As a start, take a look at Linear Technology's Application Note 71, the excellently named: 'The care and feeding of high performance a-to-d converters: Get all the bits you paid for'. [www.linear-tech.com](http://www.linear-tech.com)

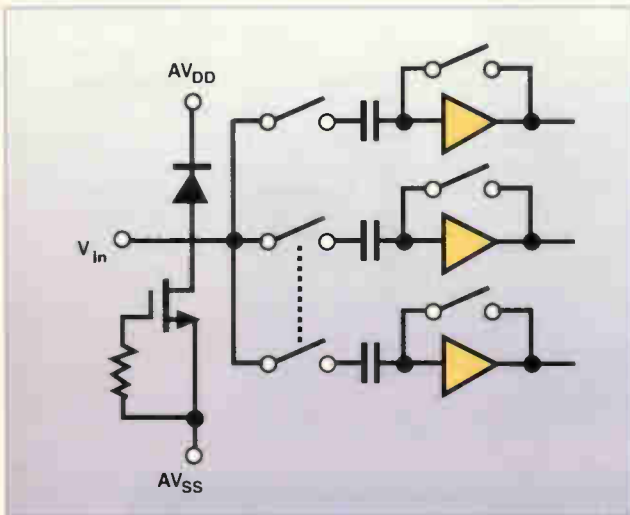
system if the clock jitter is worse than 10ps. It is easy to show that a few picoseconds of jitter introduces more than 1 LSB in error," says Philip's Pelgrom. "Feeding a 20MHz converter through a standard logic gate with a clock derived from some lousy CMOS oscillator is unreasonable."

### Constant-impedance inputs?

For various good reasons, converter makers seldom add on-chip buffers to the inputs of their high-performance a-to-d converters. This means that their input impedance is unlikely to look like a well behaved resistor to ground – however handy that would be.

The input impedance of a sampling a-to-d converter – particularly if the part uses a capacitor front end – is likely to be dynamic and change during the conversion cycle.

"CMOS charge transfer a-to-d converters squirt current out of their inputs," said Tony Allen, application engineer of Maxim. "If it is fed from an inductive source this can be a nightmare."



*The input of an unbuffered analogue-to-digital converter is most unlikely to look like a well-behaved resistance to ground.*

There is one simple solution, so long as the input signal is relatively slow. "Put a low inductance capacitor to ground right next to the input. Any value that will fit will be fine as the LSB sampling capacitor will be small, under 1pF," said Allen.

If the input signal bandwidth is high, this solution is less viable as anything driving the capacitor at high frequency will have to work hard. An op-amp is the obvious solution. But Allen warns: "An op-amp's output impedance rises with

frequency and starts to look inductive. A very high bandwidth op-amp – a video amplifier – can be used as a buffer. I would go for a 100MHz device on the input of a 1Msamples converter." As always, the solution is to understand the problem and work out the answer.

Any input buffer has to maintain the accuracy and bandwidth of the system. If you think about what 1LSB of a high speed 14-bit converter represents, it is a very small part of the input signal. Maintaining accuracy and timing through the input buffer is anything but trivial.

It is frequently necessary to multiplex more than one signal into an a-to-d converter. This multiplexer can either be a separate device, or on the same chip as the converter. But, "adding a separate multiplexer is a gotcha waiting to happen", says Allen.

Charge injection is the problem. When a multiplexer changes state, unwanted charge is added to its signal path.

The bigger the signal switching transistors in the multiplexer are, the worse the problem. Off-a-to-d converter multiplexers have to drive PCB tracks so they need large transistors. "If you go fast with a

separate multiplexer you get significant charge injection and have to wait for the signal to settle," said Allen. "On-chip multiplexers can have low charge injection transistors because they only have to drive on-chip connections."

Allen makes similar arguments for pre-converter sample-and-holds and track-and-holds.

Multiplexers can have another unwanted effect as Allen's co-worker, Maxim applications engineer Kevin Bilk explains. "A sigma-delta converter will quickly follow a continuously varying input signal, but will take longer to settle if a multiplexer is switching step changes into it."

One final thing to think about on the route to the a-to-d converter input is the PCB tracks themselves. Keep an eye on resistance in high-accuracy systems and inductance in high-speed systems. Stripline techniques are an option as frequencies rise and track length matching is something to watch to avoid phase errors when sensing signals in quadrature.

### The digital output

The more current the a-to-d converter digital output drivers have to deliver, the more spurious signals are injected into the a-to-d converter chip and the higher the risk of errors creeping into the conversion process. Buffering the digital data stream with a high impedance buffer, as physically close to the a-to-d converter chip as possible, will reduce the capacitive load on the converter chip drivers as much as possible.

Be careful with the buffer power connections. You don't want to inject noise straight into the a-to-d converter grounding system. "It is preferable to have low-swing slow buffers to prevent injection," said Philips' Marcel Pelgrom. "Consider a buffer from the previous logic generation."

Serial interfaces are better standardised than parallel ones and involve switching less current, but have to switch faster to achieve a given data rate.

The moral of this design story is: If you understand your pet a-to-d converter, and treat it with respect, it won't bite your hand off. ■

### Which converter?

The appropriate number of bits and sampling rate are only the very tip of the a-to-d converter specification iceberg. Most  $n$ -bit converters only have  $n$ -bit resolution with a slowly changing input. Converter designers have invented the term ENOB (effective number of bits) to describe how a converter operates at high speed. "The 1175 is an industry standard 8-bit 20Msamples/s a-to-d converter," says Mark Holdaway, data-converter marketing manager at National Semiconductor, "Our version of it has an effective resolution of 7.5 bits at 20MHz. Some others only achieve 6.8."

ENOB is not the only useful dynamic parameter. Spurious-free dynamic range (SFDR) and differential non-linearity (DNL) are another couple. "For radio applications, SFDR may be more important than DNL. Then DNL is more relevant for baseband video than jitter specs," says Marcel Pelgrom of Philips' mixed signal research group. National Semiconductor's ADC1175 data sheet, page 8 ([www.national.com](http://www.national.com)) has a handy explanation of dynamic specifications.

One extra thing to think about if the converter is part of a control loop is conversion time. Long conversion times are bad enough – particularly within fast control loops like those found in mobile phone base stations. Add in the fluctuations in conversion times that sigma-delta and pipeline converters can produce and almost anything can happen.



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# Room for improvement

The listening room has a surprisingly significant effect on the loudspeaker. In this first article on the topic, John Watkinson examines how the listening room affects sound at low frequencies.

## SPEAKERS' CORNER

It's not widely appreciated that no-one has ever heard what a loudspeaker sounds like. Even if it was possible, people wouldn't like it. It is impossible to hear anything but the result of exciting the acoustic environment with a loudspeaker.

Often, the acoustic environment will be a room of some sort, perhaps because we like to be out of the cold, or because we want to listen to reproduced sound to the exclusion of extraneous sounds.

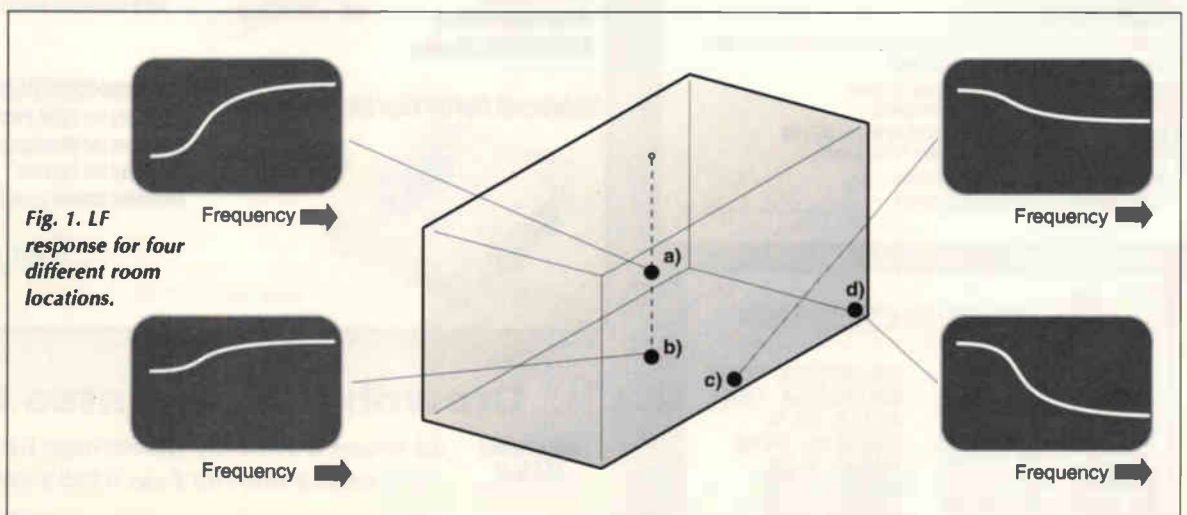
The closest we can get to hearing a

speaker alone is perhaps to suspend it and ourselves a hundred feet off the ground by thin wires. In the absence of a suitably quiet location and means of support, we might try an anechoic room. Such a room absorbs almost every sound so that only the direct sound from the speaker can be heard.

In both environments, the results are disappointing. Even with a very high quality speaker, the sound appears dry and lacking in bass. Consequently anechoic room testing

can only be used for making objective measurements on a loudspeaker.

We should not listen to the speaker in an anechoic room to assess its subjective quality. Instead we should use the results of measurements made in the room to determine what the speaker will sound like in more representative environments. The absence of any reflections allows anechoic testing to give very good measurements of speaker directivity and phase linearity.





### Is a metre enough?

For some reason, anechoic tests are usually performed with the microphone a metre from the speaker under test. This is suspect in many cases because most speakers are designed to be heard from at least 2m away. Also, in the case of large speakers or phased arrays the wavefronts may take more than a metre to coalesce.

In a listening room, the effects of the room vary with frequency. At low frequencies the wavelengths may be long compared to the distances to the floor and walls. Thus these obstacles are acoustically close and their presence will raise the acoustic impedance allowing a greater sound-pressure level to be created for a given volume velocity. This can easily be demonstrated by equipping a moderate-sized speaker with long leads so it can be moved while playing.

Figure 1 shows the results of placing the speaker in various locations. In the centre of the floor, but elevated half way to the ceiling, the bass response, **1a**), is least because the speaker is radiating into a whole sphere.

Placing the speaker centrally on the floor or on a wall, **1b**), will raise low-frequency output by 6dB because radiation is now into a half sphere. Placing the speaker in the angle between the floor and the wall, as in **1c**), gives a further boost as radiation is now into a quarter sphere. Finally, placing the speaker in a corner, **1d**), gives the most boost of all.

Generally, the speaker designer doesn't know where the speaker is going to be positioned, and so has to provide a good tonal balance somewhere in the middle of the possibilities of Fig. 1. In the case of a cheap speaker with a fixed response, it will only sound tonally balanced when placed in the correct location.

Note that the bass lift effect only occurs at frequencies up to a few hundred hertz. The frequency at which it ceases is often very close to the low-frequency crossover point. Because of this, it is desirable to have a means of adjusting the relative output of the woofer with

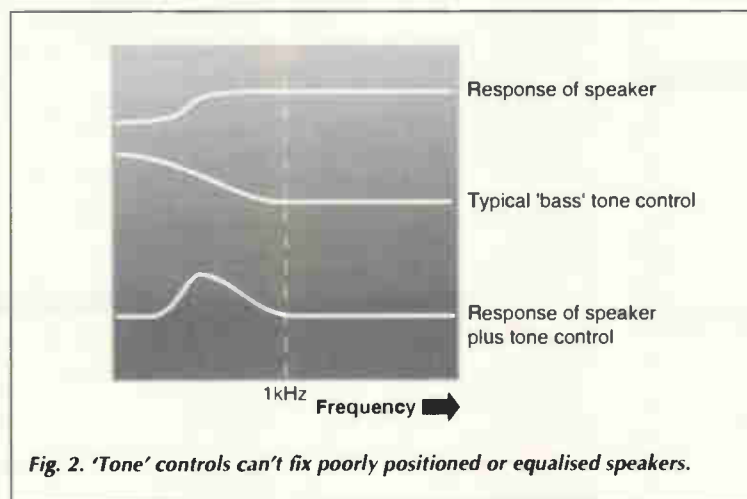


Fig. 2. 'Tone' controls can't fix poorly positioned or equalised speakers.

respect to the remaining drivers. All serious speaker designs will have such adjustment capability.

### A stand for better performance

Another possibility is to limit the number of mounting possibilities by making the speaker integral with a suitable stand. The amount of equalisation needed on installation will be less and this can be a great advantage in location recording where the monitoring is frequently moved.

The conventional tone controls of an audio system are quite unable to compensate as the bass lift generally begins below 1kHz. Figure 2 shows the result of trying to compensate for a wrongly positioned or incorrectly equalised speaker using a tone control. Doing so simply results in a response peak, resulting in colouration and listening fatigue. In fact this is how most of the general public listen.

### Two speakers change tonal balance

In stereo systems naturally there are two speakers. These are often spaced apart by two to three metres. At this distance the woofers are acoustically close and will augment one another's output by mutually raising the acoustic impedance seen when reproducing signals that are correlated at low frequencies – which is usually the case.

The effect of using two speakers instead of one is therefore not simply to increase the level, but also to change tonal balance.

It follows that when adjusting the equalisation of stereo speakers in a room, both speakers must be operating and both must be adjusted simultaneously or a correct balance will not be achieved.

At low frequencies, rooms may not be acoustically what they appear to be. Actual results depend heavily on the constructional techniques and materials.

Lightweight construction, such as plasterboard on thin wooden uprights is from an acoustic standpoint very nearly absent at low frequencies. In other words, low-frequency signals can almost pass straight through because the panelling simply flexes.

The result is twofold. Firstly the listening room is not isolated so sound can escape or enter, possibly causing a disturbance within or outside the room. Secondly, the acoustic impedance seen by a speaker in such a room will be lower and it will appear bass light. Low-powered speakers in flimsy buildings may run out of power when, from an acoustic standpoint, they are trying to provide adequate sound-pressure level in the car park.

The only solution here is mass. There is no substitute for masonry, but there is little point in providing heavy walls if the ceiling is flimsy. ■





# NEW PRODUCTS

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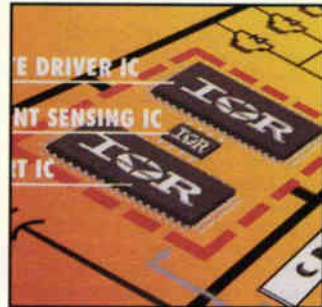
## Bus transceiver

Fairchild has introduced the GTLP17T616 17-bit registered bus transceiver that provides LVTTTL to GTLP signal level translation. The device allows for transparent, latched and clocked modes of data flow and provides buffered GTLP (CLKout) clock output from the LVTTTL CLKAB. For backplane and bus applications, the transceiver can be used in datacomms, telecoms and server systems. It suits source synchronous clocking architectures. There is a balanced timing relationship between clock and data to improve its operating frequency. It supports multi-drop backplane designs up to the 100MHz range and operates at 3.3V. The product has internal edge-rate control and is process, voltage and temperature compensated. There is a bidirectional interface between cards operating at LVTTTL voltage levels and a backplane operating at GTLP voltage levels.

Fairchild Semiconductor  
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## Motor drive ICs

International Rectifier has announced ICs supporting its power conversion processor architecture for 600 and 1200V AC or brushless DC motor drives. The architecture uses monolithic integration of high voltage circuits for gate drive, protection, current sense, soft start and power supply functions. The range includes gate drivers with IGBT protection, motor phase current sensing ICs with



direct PWM interface to a microcontroller, and a soft start controller for the input converter.  
International Rectifier  
Tel: 01883 732020  
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## 16A relay

The 16A LE relay from Matsushita comes in PCB and top mounted terminal variants. It can switch 16A at 250V AC. The top mounted terminal version switches the load via a crimped terminal connector instead of a conventional PCB pin. Creepage and clearance distances are 8mm.



Power consumption is 400mW and heat resistance characteristics are to class B standard (130°C). This relay is suitable for switching the magnetron and heater loads in microwave ovens. Other applications include refrigerators, domestic heating, and office and industrial catering equipment.

Matsushita  
Tel: 01908 231555  
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## Electrolytic capacitors

BC Components has announced electrolytic capacitors, the 198 PHR-SI series. There are nearly 50 capacitors in the range with case sizes from 22 x 25mm to 35 x 60mm. There are snap-in products with 4mm pins, which do not have to be cut after mounting. They are rated from 56 to 820µF at 400 and 450V.

BC Components  
Tel: 00 31 40 259 0724  
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## Four-resistor arrays

Philips Components has introduced resistor arrays integrating four size 0402 resistors in a 0804 surface-mount package. The 0.5mm thick eight-pin package contains four electrically isolated resistor chips. The package is available with convex or concave terminations and has a 0.5mm termination pitch. It can be used as a pull-up, pull-down circuit, damping circuit or bridge. Power dissipation is up to 0.0625W at 50V. Applications include on motherboards and hard-disk drive

circuits for notebook, desktop and hand-held computers, mobile phones and digital consumer equipment such as DVD players, camcorders and pagers. The arrays are available in resistances from 10Ω to 1MΩ with five per cent tolerance and a maximum operating voltage of 50V.

Philips Components  
Tel: 00 31 40 272 2091  
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## Coprocessor for digital cameras

STMicroelectronics has introduced an integrated coprocessor for use with CMOS image sensors in digital still cameras. The STV0680 interfaces to the firm's CIF (352 x 288) or VGA (640 x 480) resolution sensors. The coprocessor supports 16 or 64Mbyte of external memory. The 64Mbyte version supports up to 24 VGA images, 80 CIF images or 300 QCIF images. Power consumption is



typically 70mA from four 1.5 batteries and 350µA, depending on SDRAM, in sleep mode while retaining pictures in memory. It has a USB interface, tethered video modes, serial interface and an untethered video mode that lets small video clips be made remotely. The video clip size depends on the available memory and image resolution selected. It is supplied with USB drivers and Twain support, allowing plug and play operation.

STMicroelectronics  
Tel: 01628 890800  
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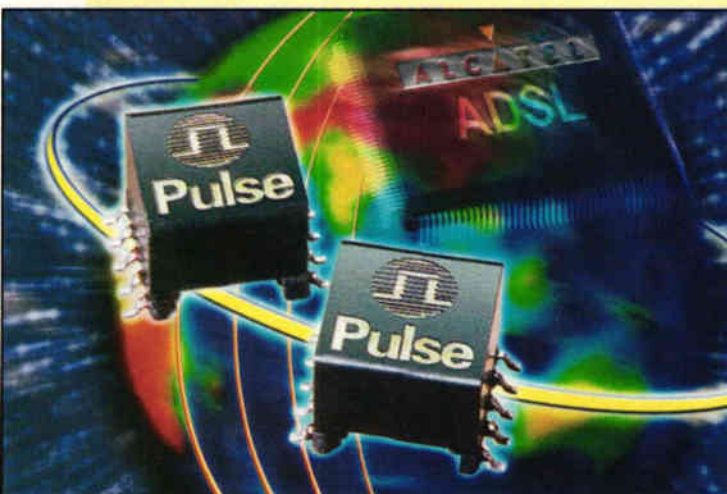
## 22.5 and 30mm pushbuttons

IMO has launched 22.5 and 30mm pushbuttons. The B5 is a flush mounted IP65 30mm push-button with indicator lens to protect against extreme environments. It is vandal proof and shock resistant. The

## Transformers for ADSL chip sets

Pulse's B2064 and B2068 ADSL line transformers are UL approved for use with Alcatel's Dynamite MTK-20140 ADSL chip set. The transformers are for central office applications and customer premises equipment such as external modems, set-top boxes and PC adapter cards. The surface mount B2064 has a footprint of 13.1 by 13.5mm and a height of 12.3mm. The through-hole B2068 measures 14.0 by 13.9 by 12.7mm. Both come in ten-pin configurations with a minimum linearity less than 72dB at 20kHz for the through-hole part and 10kHz for the surface mount device.

Pulse  
Tel: 01483 401700  
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22.5mm IP65 B3 range includes momentary and maintained mushroom head actuators, push-buttons and selector switches that are opaque or illuminated, key switches and indicator lenses in various colours. Both come with either black plastic or metal bezels. The B3 has a single handed mounting operation, where the actuator is positioned from the front of the panel. A locking nut mounted from the rear first grabs, then tightens the actuator tightly into position. An anti-rotational peg ensures the actuators are held in the correct orientation, but this peg can be removed to update products already in the field. The range also includes assembled push-button stations and accessories such as single snap on contact blocks that are colour coded for normally open and closed contacts.

IMO

Tel: 0208 2084006

Enquiry No 508

### Right-angled male connector

A male-side right-angle version of the HDRA series of PCB mounted I/O connectors available from Honda Connections. Applications include notebook computers, ultra SCSI devices and Raid controllers. Height is 6mm and it conforms with ANSI SFF-8441 requirements for VHDCI. The 68-way connector is based on 0.8mm pitch and has a metal shell with grounding fingers that protect signal circuits by engaging first when connectors are mated. Honda claims more than 5000 mating cycles.

Honda Connections

Tel: 01793 523388

Enquiry No 510

### RF design tools

An RF design kit including design tools and components is an option in the latest version of Electronics Workbench Multisim (EWM) from Adept Scientific. EWM is a circuit design and simulation tool that can perform at frequencies above 100MHz, making it a suitable software simulator for radio frequency design. The design kit is included as standard with Power Professional editions or available separately as an add-on to the Professional edition. It includes an on-screen spectrum

analyser. Circuit characterisation analysis identifies the properties of RF circuits by automatically calculating voltage and power gain. It also determines a noise figure. There's a network analyser from which EWM can automatically calculate S, Y, Z and H parameters. Network properties can be plotted onto Smith charts, and stability and gain circles generated. An RF parts library is supplied, including models of RF BJTs, MOSFETs and various diodes, striplines, microstrips and waveguides. Model-making tools can generate custom Spice models from databook values.

Adept Scientific

Tel: 01462 480055

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### Universal battery charger

Datek is launching the UP-01 universal 5A battery charger for NiCd, NiMH and lead-acid batteries. The charger uses an electrode specific



charging system to provide the exact and maximum charging current needed. It can revitalise batteries, extending accumulator regeneration and capacity, and provides automatic battery detection and exact signalling at the end of charging. Using a computer controlled charger, it monitors the electrochemical, thermodynamic and crystal structural state of each cell within the battery.

Datek

Tel: 01844 273800

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### Expansion chassis

APW Electronics has introduced a Smartslot interface for its intelligent UPS, letting an extra three modular accessories be plugged directly into the units. The triple chassis is available as a free-standing or 19in. rack mounted unit. It can be powered from the host UPS, giving a maximum of 200mA for driving the accessories. A separate 24V DC power supply, giving an additional 400mA, is also available.

APW Electronics

Tel: 01703 266300

Enquiry No 513

### CAD converter

The latest version of Mydata Automation's CAD conversion program has been released with features claimed to make CAD file conversion simpler. A wizard leads

### Multiport test system for RF

Agilent Technologies has introduced the 87050E multiport test set for evaluating 50Ω RF components on production lines. The set works with the firm's 8712E network analysers for use up to 3GHz for measuring devices with up to 12 ports. The system lets all transmission paths and port reflection characteristics of a multiport device be characterised with one set of connections to a device's ports. It has specified performance at the test ports, whether the device is measured in a fixture or at the ends of test cables. The system's two calibration routines can reduce downtime typically needed to calibrate multiport test sets. The calibration routine requires users to connect short, open and load standards only once to each measurement port, and reduces the number of through connections required to calibrate all possible measurement paths. The self cal routine performs automatic, periodic calibrations using the set's internal calibration standards to correct system drift. The routine takes a few seconds to run, and the user can program the interval between self cal operations.

Agilent Technologies

Tel: 01344 366666

Enquiry No 509



the user through a step-by-step process to create control files when new CAD file types are encountered. When a PCB or component file is created, it can be transferred through the network and imported to the directory on the machine or server. A graphical viewer shows a representation of the converted PCB including reference points or fiducials. This helps ensure accurate CAD data matching with the control file and assures the PCB was correctly created. Simplified drawings of all the components including their angles are also reproduced.

Mydata

Tel: 01202 723585

Enquiry No 514

### Digital meters and controllers

Carlo Gavazzi has introduced digital meters and controllers, with setpoint and relay output, that cover applications for volts, amps, frequency, temperature and, via sensors, rate measurement.

Available are 3, 3.5 and 4-digit models, with either Din rail or panel mount options. The meters provide scalable inputs and scalable outputs (analogue output only) with an RS485 serial comms option on some models. Other options include the EDM35, which can be field configured to suit an application via plug-in modules, and the LD13 and LD135 that handle voltage and current inputs in the same unit.

Carlo Gavazzi

Tel: 01252 339600

Enquiry No 515

### Power supplies

Thurby Thandar has introduced two single-output laboratory bench power supplies – the EL183 18V 3.3A and the EL561 56V 1.1A. The linear-regulated PSUs have digital voltage and current meters on the output. The meters use 14mm LED displays, and have an update rate of 4s<sup>-1</sup>. They simultaneously meter voltage and current.

Thurby Thandar Instruments

Tel: 01480 412451

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- H.P. 4192A LF Impedance Analyser 5Hz-13MHz... **£5000**
- H.P. 8903E Distortion Analyser... **£750**
- MARCONI 2305 Mod Meter 500KHz-2GHz from... **£900**
- FARNELL AMM2000 Automatic Mod Meter 10Hz-2.4GHz Unused... **£950**
- WAYNE KERR AMM255 Automatic Mod Meter AM/FM 1.5MHz-2GHz 3.5 digit. Unused... **£400**
- MARCONI 2955 Mobile Radio Test Set... **£2000**
- STABLOCK 4015 Radio Comm Test Set... **£2250**
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- H.P. 11691D Dual Dir Coupler 2-18GHz... **£1250**
- WAYNE KERR Inductance Analyser 3245... **£2000**
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- TEKTRONIX 2445B Dual Trace 150MHz Delay etc... **£1500**
- TEKTRONIX 2205 Dual Trace 20MHz... **£300**
- KIKUSUI 6100 5 Trace 100MHz Delay... **£425**
- TEKTRONIX 2430 Dig Storage Dual Trace 150MHz **£1000**

**UNUSED OSCILLOSCOPES**  
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TEKTRONIX TAS485 4 Channel 200MHz etc... **£1100**  
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CIRCLE NO. 122 ON REPLY CARD

313



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**8-bit micro with 2K x 14-bits flash**

Microchip's latest 8-bit flash microcontroller extends its range with the 28-pin PIC16F872 device providing 2k x 14-bits of flash memory, 64 bytes of EEPROM data memory, and an extended operating

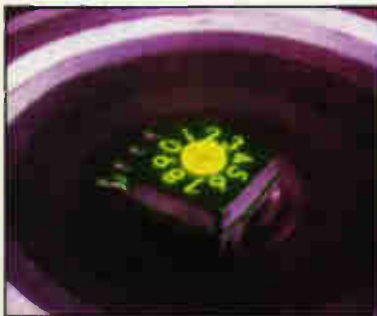


voltage of 2.0 to 5.5V. It also has a 5-channel 10-bit ( $\pm 1$ LSB) A/D converter, brownout detection, up to 5MIPS performance at 20MHz, I<sup>2</sup>C or SPI communications capability for peripheral expansion, two 8-bit timers and one 16-bit timer. As with all Microchip's PICmicro flash and OTP microcontrollers it features in-circuit serial programming. The PIC16F87X family also supports self-programming, allowing the device to be reprogrammed in-circuit at a remote location. In addition, an in-circuit debugging feature allows designer to 'emulate' the microcontroller without the need of an in-circuit emulator.

Microchip  
Tel: 0118 921 5858  
Enquiry No 517

**Rotary-coded switches**

Devlin Electronics has introduced a range of Fujisoku rotary coded switches, with fluorescent ink markings, for improved visibility in applications with low light levels. The



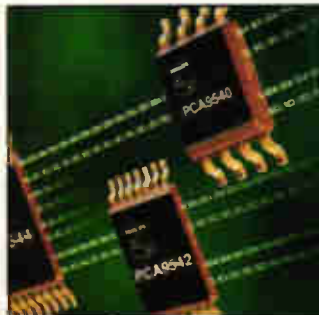
supplier describes the rotary switches is 'digital' i.e. the rotary movement is divided into a series of positive 'clicks', and a clearly calibrated rotary scale shows the rotational position. There are four ranges of switches: 10x10mm switches with a recessed slotted spindle (through-hole or SM); 10x10mm switches with a raised, slotted

spindle (through-hole); 10x10mm switches with a turning knob and fluorescent markings (through-hole); and 7.5x7.5mm switches with a raised, slotted spindle (through-hole or SM).

Devlin Electronics  
Tel: 01256 467367  
Enquiry No 519

**I<sup>2</sup>C multiplexers**

Philips Semiconductors has announced a family of I<sup>2</sup>C multiplexers. Designated the PCA954x family, it is designed for multiple system management buses or multiple I<sup>2</sup>C devices with the same address, different voltage levels, or loads too large for the I<sup>2</sup>C master to handle. The devices provide multiplexing and interrupt controlling to eliminate the need for glue logic and general purpose I/Os. In addition, they include diodes to enable shifting between 5.0V and 3.3V buses and bus isolation to prevent system hang-ups. The PCA9540 is a two-channel I<sup>2</sup>C multiplexer without interrupts that switches between two I<sup>2</sup>C devices or buses. The PCA9542 is a two-



channel multiplexer that contains three address pins, allowing a bus to use eight PCA9542s to switch up to 16 I<sup>2</sup>C devices or buses. The PCA9544 is a four-channel multiplexer that can be used for switching up to 32 I<sup>2</sup>C devices or buses. Both devices include an interrupt controller to prevent system hang-ups if a bus generates interrupts.

Philips Semiconductors  
Tel: 00 31 40 272 20 91  
Enquiry No 520

**3U CompactPC card**

MEN makes its first move into 3U CompactPCI with the F2 CPU card. It is a Pentium III-class system master with scalable performance enabled by the 'Super Socket 7' support. It provides typical PC functions such as main memory (SO-DIMM), different interfaces such as 4 fast UARTs, 10/100Mbit Ethernet, EIDE, LPT, USB and GPIO, plus support for Microsoft's ACPI specification. In addition, the F2 provides 32Mbyte shock-resistant on-board DRAM, watchdogs to monitor temperature, voltage, fan and time-out, PXI trigger lines for data acquisition and analysis, and industrial BIOS, allowing the CU to operate without graphics. A PC-MIP mezzanine slot



**SiGe power amp for 2-way pagers**

Temic Semiconductors has introduced a silicon germanium (SiGe) power amplifier (PA) designed for use in 900MHz 2-way pagers, PDAs, meter reader transceivers, driver amplifiers and ISM phones. The T0930 is intended to replace the usual GaAs power amplifier devices normally used in two-way pagers by a SiGe integrated solution. In addition to the power amplifier, the device includes an RF power-control and a standby circuit. Thanks to SiGe, the current consumption in power-down mode is only 10pA, eliminating the need for a high-side switch. The T0930 permits real continuous wave (CW) operation as necessary in systems with high duty cycles or long time slots. The output power in CW mode is up to 33dBm.

Temic Semiconductors  
Tel: 01753 763120  
Enquiry No 518

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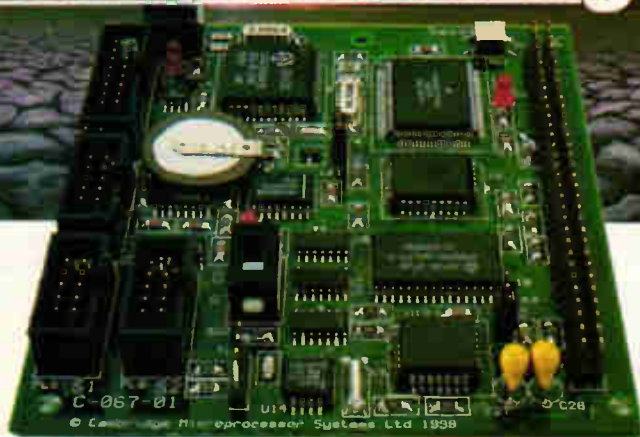
|             |             |             |
|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| <b>1994</b> | <b>1996</b> | May         |
| January     | January     | June        |
| April       | February    | July        |
| May         | March       | August      |
| July        | May         | December    |
| August      | June        |             |
| November    | July/August | <b>1999</b> |
| December    | September   | January     |
|             | October     | February    |
|             | November    | March       |
| <b>1995</b> |             | May         |
| February    |             | June        |
| April       | <b>1997</b> | October     |
| May         | June        | November    |
| June        | August      | December    |
| August      | September   |             |
| September   |             |             |
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expands the F2's I/O capabilities to cover industrial graphics, serial interfaces and field busses, etc. All the F2's functions are supported by board support packages for Windows NT/NTE and VxWorks. Whilst the F2 is a two-board solution – CPU and 110 – it occupies only one slot on the CPC1 backplane.

**MEN**  
Tel: 01276 677676  
Enquiry No 522

### Long range transceiver

Low Power Radio Solutions is offering the RDT868 transceiver which is designed for sending high volumes of data over long distances. Operating at 868.3MHz in the newly harmonised

pan-European band, the transceiver combines a high-stability 25mW transmit section with a selective dual SAW filter receiver. This is combined with a 1ms turnaround between transmit and receive sections to provide a 50kbit/s data rate at typical ranges up to 700m line-of-sight or 100m in buildings. The system's construction means that the transmit and receive halves can be pulled apart to provide a separate transmitter and receiver. With a dual-in-line construction occupying only 23 x 33mm of PCB space, the RDT868 is both compact and frugal, drawing 135mA in transmit mode and 70mA in receive mode, both from a single 5V supply.

**Low Power Radio Solutions**  
Tel: 01993 709418  
Enquiry No 523

### 200kHz switching regulator

Linear Technology's latest 200kHz monolithic buck mode switching regulator is designed for dc-to-dc conversion at 5V to 3.3V or lower conversions. Lower output voltages can be delivered since the output can be adjusted down to the 1.2V reference voltage. The LT1578 includes a 1.5A low-loss switch and a BIAS pin that is designed to improve efficiency and lower thermal dissipation. The device requires

1.35mA of supply current that drops to 20µA in shutdown mode. While the efficient high power internal switch with 200mΩ on-resistance eliminates the need for an external MOSFET and  $R_{(sense)}$  resistor, the constant 200kHz switching frequency keeps noise away from sensitive IF frequencies and reduces inductor size to as low as 15µH. The device incorporates all oscillator, control and protection circuitry for a complete switching regulator and is available in 8-pin SO in both commercial and industrial temperature ranges.

**Linear Technology**  
Tel: 01276 677676  
Enquiry No 524

### Jack plugs with fibre lightpipes

Inverted right-angle modular jacks (modjacks) with lightpipes from Molex direct light from PCB-mounted LEDs to the front of the modjack to indicate system activity. The design uses lightpipes and customer supplied surface-mount LEDs, which in combination reduce EMI/RFI (antenna effect) noise by 50 per cent as compared to a modular jack with integral LEDs, claimed the supplier. Applications are expected to be in networking systems, set-top boxes, security systems and mini-PCI applications. The modjacks feature a plug latch on top for easy unmating.



They are available in shielded and unshielded versions for both RJ11 and RJ45 configurations. The RJ45-configured modjack is specified to deliver CAT 5 performance for Fast Molex  
Tel: 01420 488488  
Enquiry No 525

### SiGe LNA GSM dual-band phones

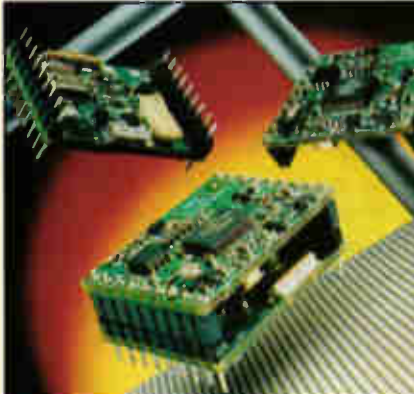
Maxim's silicon germanium (SiGe) low-noise amplifier (LNA) is designed for use in the GSM900, DCS1800, and PCS1900 mobile phone frequency bands. The MAX2652 includes a 20dB attenuation step control to further improve receiver sensitivity and dynamic range performance in GSM dual-band and triple-band cellular phones. The device consists of two LNAs. One LNA is optimised for the GSM900 band and provides a low 1.3dB noise figure and a 1.8dB gain; the other LNA is optimised for the DCS1800 band and provides 1.8dB noise figure and also an 18dB gain. A band select pin allows either of the two LNAs to be active at one time, helping to reduce supply current.

**Maxim Integrated Products**  
Tel: 0188 930 3388  
Enquiry No 526

### Low cost set-top box decoder

STMicroelectronics has announced an addition to its Omega family of set-top box decoders. The STi5512 device is pin-to-pin and software compatible with the existing STi5510 launched last year but has been introduced to deliver increased system performance. The STi5512 integrates, in a single chip, a programmable MPEG transport stream demultiplexer block, an ST20 32-bit system CPU, an audio/video MPEG-2 decoder, advanced display and graphics features, a digital video encoder and system peripheral functions, including interfaces for external memory, IEEE1394, I<sup>2</sup>C, teletext and smartcards. It is designed to increase the performance in real STB applications through a 20 per cent increase in processor speed coupled with peripheral optimisations that reduce CPU loading. At the same time, 16 and 64Mbit SDRAM support is added.

**STMicroelectronics**  
Tel: 01628 890800  
Enquiry No 527



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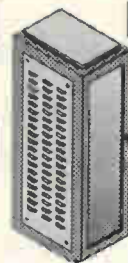
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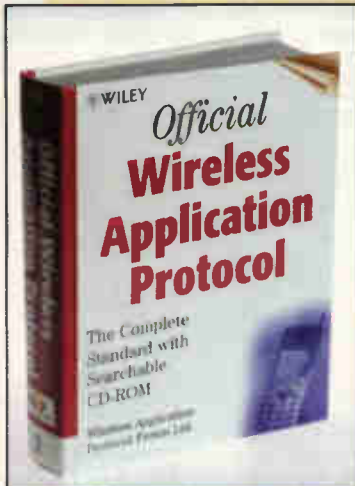
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### Low power 8-bit microcontrollers

Hitachi has announced the H8/3887 series of low power 8-bit microcontrollers, based on the H8/300L CPU core. The micro's 1.8V operation makes it suitable for applications where low power consumption is critical. The device also incorporates a LCD controller with on-board LCD power supply generation, suitable for many simple display applications. The H8/3887 has the ability to start its main oscillator in 20µs, which according to the supplier is unlike most other devices which typically take a few milli-seconds to start. This means the device can power up, handle an external event or internal process and return to standby before a typical microcontroller has



responded. The H8/3887 also features a peripheral set of up to 2kbytes of SRAM and 60 kbytes of ROM, three 8-bit timers, a 16-bit timer and a watchdog timer, 8 channels of 10-bit a-to-d converter, dual USARTS, a synchronous serial interface and 84 I/O pins. The device is supported by an emulator, the E6-3880, and a more comprehensive development kit, the S6-3880. This includes Hitachi WorkBench, an integrated development environment complete with C compiler, assembler and debugger.

Hitachi  
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### CAN micro with flash

The latest CAN microcontroller from Toshiba is a 16-bit device featuring 128kbytes of on-board flash memory. Based on the TLCS-900H core, the TMP95FW54AF integrates full CAN functions, a 16-bit controller, memory and a number of on-board peripherals including eight 8-bit timers, two 16-bit timers, a watchdog timer and an 8 by 10-bit a-to-d converter. As well as the single-channel CAN interface, on-board connectivity options include two serial I/O channels and an SPI-compatible TSEI interface. It incorporates 4kbytes of built-in RAM, 128kbytes of on-board flash EEPROM and 2kbytes of mask ROM for booting. The core delivers a number of features suited to real-time applications including a general-purpose register bank for fast context switching, high-speed, four channel micro DMA and 16bit multiplication and division instructions. Full



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### JTAG debugger for Pentiums

Embedded Power Corporation has launched a JTAG debugger for the Pentium family. The system supports the entire Intel embedded Pentium family: Pentium I/II/III, mobile Celeron and Xeon, including 5V and 3V Pentium processors. Also the QED debugger's reconfigurable design simplifies the changing from one configuration to another. If no JTAG



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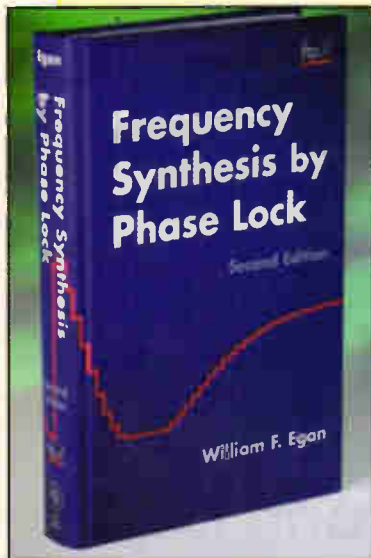
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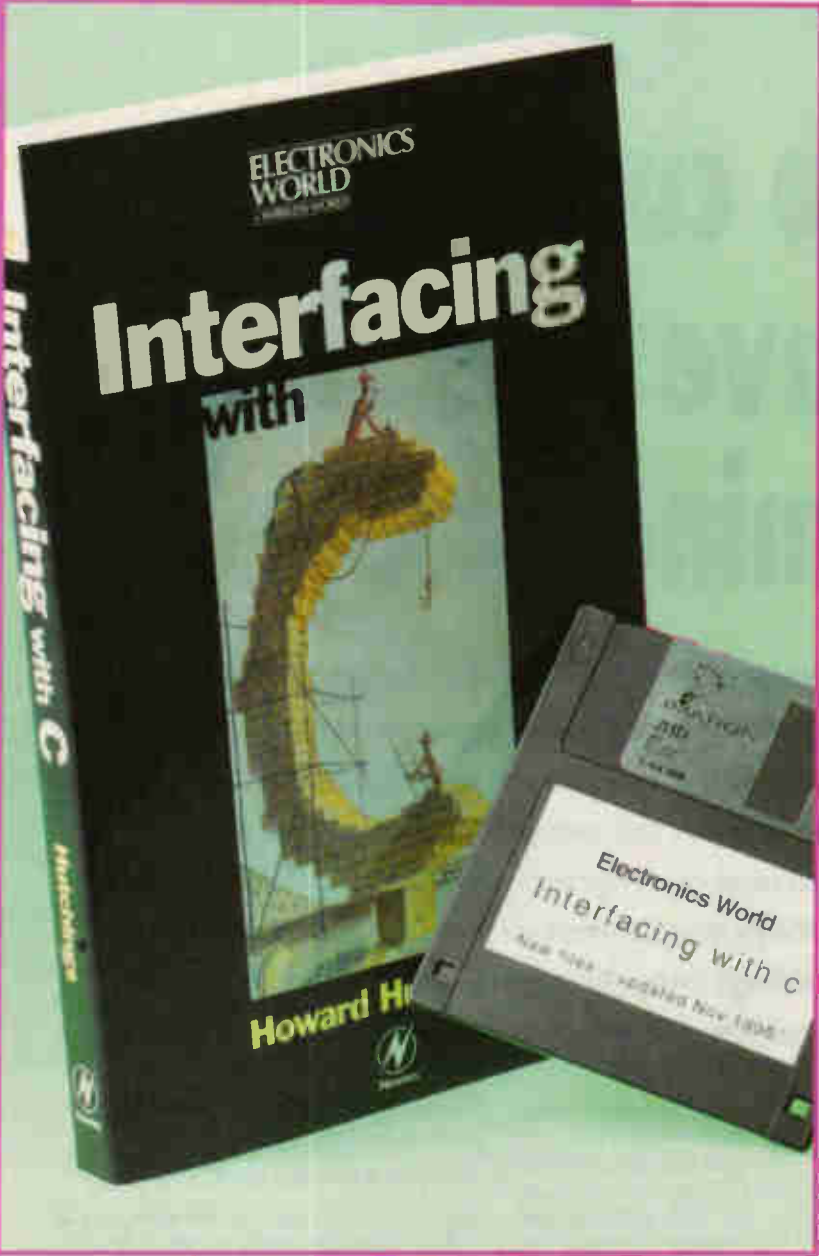
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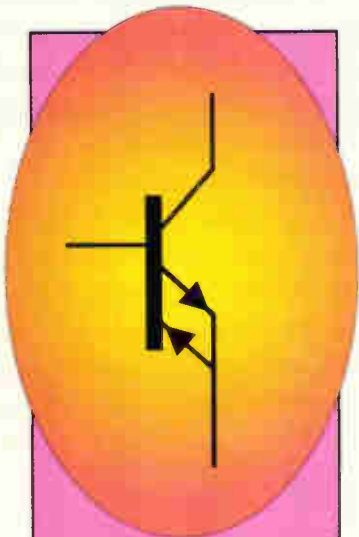
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Not an ideal symbol for the current conveyor, but nevertheless a useful tool for envisaging what it does.

# Are current conveyors finally coming of age?

Circuit designers avoid current conveyors, invariably resorting to the traditional op-amp regardless of how much better the conveyor might be at solving their problem. In the past, they have had an excuse in that current conveyors have been difficult to get hold of. With the advent of the 'perfect transistor' though, things may be starting to change, as John Lidgley and Khaled Hayatleh explain.

In our last article, we discussed the second-generation current-conveyor, or CCII, as a building block. Here, we look at implementing the CCII at transistor level.

As a reminder, the sign suffixing the abbreviation 'CCII' indicates whether the polarity of device's output current is inverted or not relative to input current. For a

CCII+, the current/voltage transfer relationship it is given by,

$$V_X = V_Y, I_Y = 0, \text{ and } I_Z = I_X.$$

These equations show that there is a simple voltage-following action between input Y and X nodes, and that there is a simple current-following action between node-X and output node-Z.

In addition, these equations tell us that the ideal impedance relationship for the current-conveyor are,

$$Z_{IN(Y)} = \infty, Z_X = 0 \text{ and } Z_{Z(OUT)} = \infty.$$

## Comparison with a transistor

Figure 2 shows a single bipolar-junction transistor. In principle, this is a unipolar CCII-, so a current-conveyor can be regarded as an ideal transistor with infinite gain, represented by  $\beta$ , and transconductance, or  $g_m$ .

Driving into the base of a bipolar transistor gives close to unity voltage gain from input base to output emitter. There's a relatively high input impedance at the input and a low impedance at the output.

On the other hand, driving into the emitter

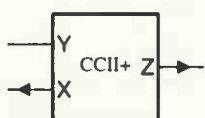
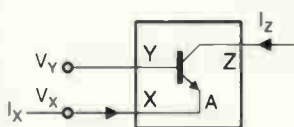


Fig. 1. Current-conveyor symbol, the '+' denoting 'non-inverting' current gain. Loosely speaking, there's a voltage follower action between X and Y nodes and a current-follower action between X and Z.



$$V_X \approx \frac{V_Y}{1 + \left( \frac{1}{g_m R_X} \right)}, \text{ since } g_m R_X \gg 1, \therefore V_X \approx V_Y$$

$$I_Z = -\frac{\beta}{[\beta + 1]} I_X, \text{ since } \beta \gg 1, \therefore I_Z \approx -I_X$$

Fig. 2. In principle, an n-p-n bipolar transistor is a unipolar CCII-, so a current-conveyor can be regarded as an ideal transistor with infinite gain and transconductance.



of a bipolar transistor gives almost unity current gain from emitter input to collector output, with low input impedance and high output impedance.

Drawing the comparison further, the high input impedance *Y* node corresponds to the base (or gate) of a transistor while the low input impedance *X* node corresponds to the emitter (or source) of a transistor. Similarly, the high output impedance *Z* node corresponds to the collector (or drain) of a transistor.

Clearly one transistor cannot function alone as a complete current-conveyor. An unbiased single transistor can only handle unipolar signals. The high accuracy unity voltage and unity current gain required for a high performance current-conveyor cannot be obtained.

However, the generic relationship between the transistor and the current-conveyor is valid and it does provide valuable insight into the development and operation of monolithic current-conveyors.

**First monolithic current-conveyor**

The first commercially available current-conveyor based on the current-

feedback op-amp was the CC1101. Shown in Fig. 3, this monolithic device was designed and marketed by LTP Electronics and manufactured by Elantec Inc.

This circuit was fully symmetrical. Transistors *Tr*<sub>1</sub> to *Tr*<sub>4</sub> made up the input stage. The *Y*-node input was high impedance while the low impedance *X* node could be used as an input or output.

A voltage applied to the *Y* input was followed at the *X* node. The collector currents of *Tr*<sub>2</sub> and *Tr*<sub>3</sub> were reflected and recombined through current mirrors *CM*<sub>1</sub> and *CM*<sub>2</sub> to the high output impedance *Z* node. Hence any input into the *X* node was conveyed with unity current gain through to the output *Z* node.

Supplied as a dual device in an 8-pin DIL package, the CC1101 was built on a high-speed dielectric isolation fully complementary bipolar process. The device featured an equivalent slew rate of 2000V/μs and 100MHz bandwidth. Its equivalent open-loop gain was 80dB and its CMRR performance better than 53dB at 1MHz. Maximum output current from the device was ±10mA and it operated from ±5V to ±15V supplies. The CC1101 first appeared in 1993.

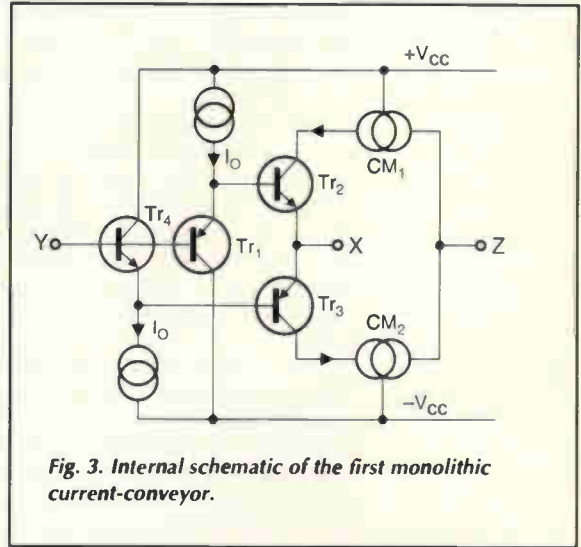


Fig. 3. Internal schematic of the first monolithic current-conveyor.

Unfortunately, the electronics industry looked somewhat sceptically at this new analogue building-block. Despite many passionate enthusiasts around the world who realised the value of the CC1101, its manufacturer stopped producing it due to poor sales volumes.

**What is the 'perfect transistor'?**

On pages 1049-53 of December 1999's issue of *Electronics World*, Cyril

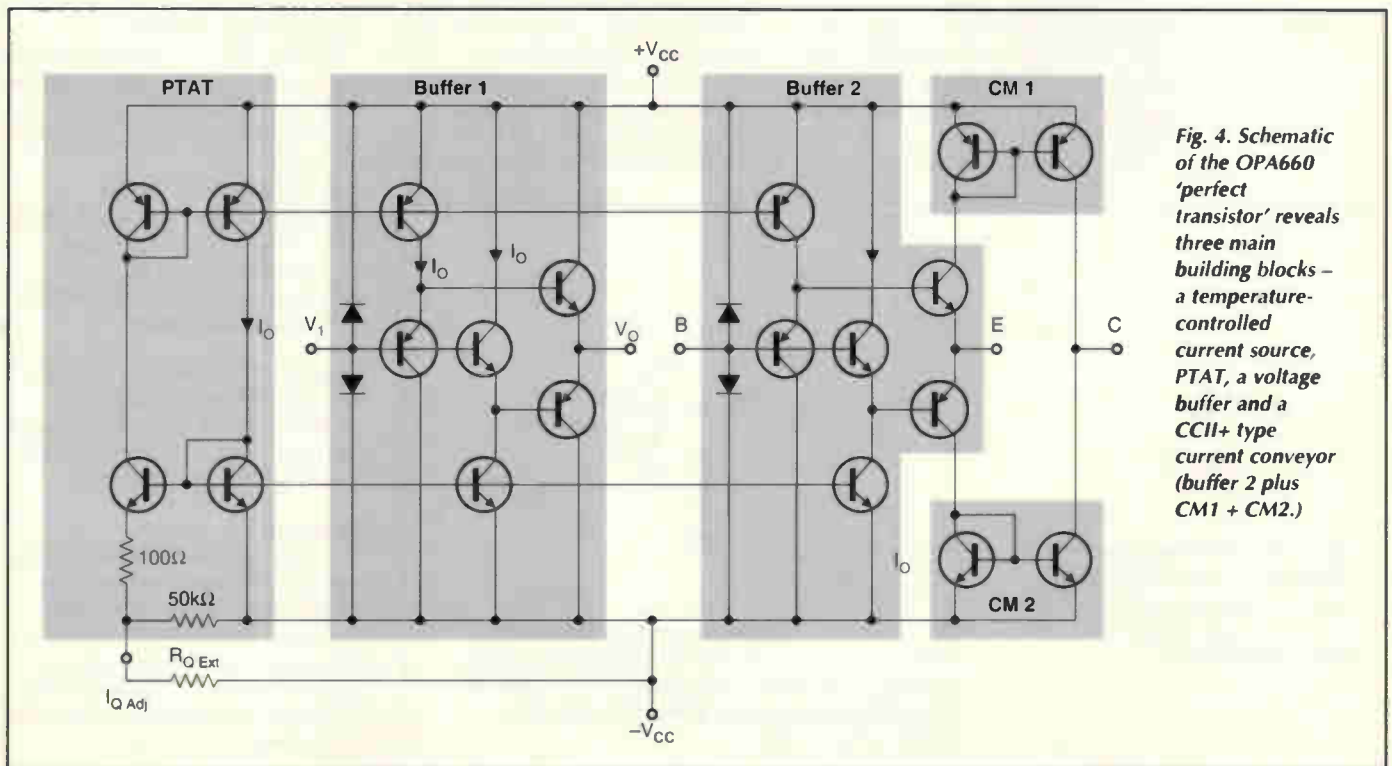


Fig. 4. Schematic of the OPA660 'perfect transistor' reveals three main building blocks – a temperature-controlled current source, PTAT, a voltage buffer and a CCII+ type current conveyor (buffer 2 plus CM1 + CM2.)

Bateman outlined a 'new' analogue integrated circuit. Described as 'the perfect transistor', this was a relatively new device from Burr Brown known as the OPA660.

Within the OPA660, whose schematic is shown in Fig. 4, there are three main building blocks. These are a current source proportional to absolute temperature (PTAT), an independent high-speed complementary common-collector emitter-follower (voltage buffer) and a current-conveyor type CCII+.

Buffer 1 to the right of the PTAT current source in Fig. 4 is a two-stage, cascaded complementary common-collector emitter-follower. Similar circuit configurations to this have been available in integrated circuit form from several semiconductor manufacturers, one of the first being National Semiconductor's so-called fast buffer the LH0002. This topology offers high speed, push-pull operation. It has good unity gain conformance and excellent current gain, which is exactly what is wanted for a fast voltage buffer.

The second buffer combined with the complementary current-mirror output stage shown in Fig. 4 is referred to in the Burr Brown data sheet as a 'Diamond transistor', or operational transconductance amplifier, OTA.

By comparing this stage with the CCII01 schematic of Fig. 3 you can see that the two circuits are virtually identical. This leads to the conclusion that the OPA660 is actually a CCII+ type current-conveyor, with an additional on-chip voltage buffer.

Burr Brown has clearly decided to

describe the CCII+ part of the OPA660 as a 'diamond transistor'. The company uses the bi-directional transistor symbol shown in Fig. 5 as a schematic representation.

Unfortunately this symbol is potentially confusing. Any current flowing out of the E (emitter equivalent) terminal results in the same level of current flowing out of the C (collector equivalent) terminal, and *vice-versa*. This is counter intuitive to Kirchhoff's current law.

Also, the symbol is rather too close to that of a single BJT and it is difficult not to be concerned with bias voltages for  $V_{BE}$  and  $V_{CE}$ , which are actually of no relevance to the operation of a fully integrated CCII+.

**Current-conveyors and current-feedback op-amps**

Monolithic current-feedback op-amps became commercially available as high-speed alternatives to voltage op-amps over a decade ago. Examination of the internal structure of the current-feedback op-amp is revealing as this device is essentially a CCII+ with the internal high impedance Z node connected to an output voltage-follower, as in Fig. 6.

Any current flowing at the low-impedance inverting input is conveyed to the gain node, Z. Resulting voltage at the Z node is buffered to the output.

The impedance at node Z is thus the open-loop transimpedance gain (CCVS) of the current-feedback op-amp. In practice, node Z's impedance is equal to the parallel combination of the CCII+ output impedance, the volt-

age buffer input impedance and any compensation capacitance at the gain or Z node.

Generally the gain node is not connected to an external pin and so the Z node of the CCII+ in a current-feedback op-amp cannot be accessed. However, simply removing the output buffer from a current-feedback op-amp is all that is required to obtain a high performance CCII+, and this is effectively what is inside the OPA660.

**Future of the current-conveyor**

Although the concept of the current-conveyor is over 30 years old, it is an analogue building block of considerable value. Now that it is available in monolithic form it is a very welcome device for the analogue circuit designer's tool-kit.

There is no doubt that the current conveyor is both versatile and convenient for many applications. In many cases, circuits made up using current-conveyors are extremely simple in structure. Often fewer parts are needed than with the traditional op-amp counterpart, due to the very attractive combined voltage/current capability of the current-conveyor.

In many applications, op-amp realisations are significantly less practicable than the equivalent current-conveyor implementation. This is particularly so for circuits involving high impedance current output capability.

Further, the current-conveyor can provide high speed and bandwidth, due to the inherent local feedback nature of the follower-based internal structure of the device.

Finally, we would like to acknowledge the work done by Prof. Chris Toumazou and Dr Alison Payne of the Imperial College, London for their role in the CCII01 design and development. ■

In last month's article, the current conveyor in Fig. 4, the lower conveyors in Figs 6 and 7 and the top conveyor in Fig. 8 all had their Y and X inputs transposed. Apologies.

**The authors**

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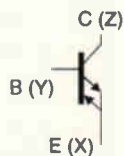


Fig. 5. 'Diamond' transistor schematic - useful for getting an idea of how a current conveyor works, but not an ideal representation.

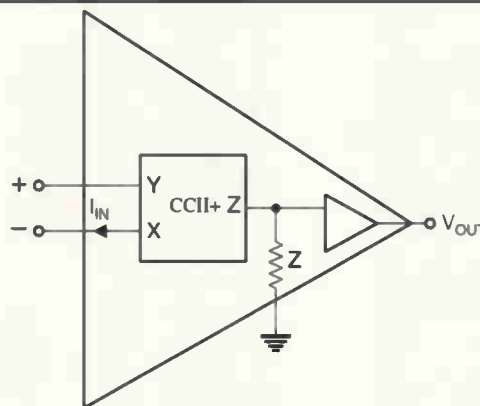


Fig. 6. Current-feedback op-amp. Examination of the internal structure of the current-feedback op-amp is revealing as this device is essentially a CCII+ with the internal high-impedance Z node connected to an output voltage-follower.



# a lifetime in electronics

In this second article, John Linsley-Hood looks back at the pre-transistor days, to a time when his early experiments with hi-fi were interrupted by the war, and to the end of the war, when the hottest topics were FM radio and the Williamson.

**F**ollowing my early experiments with wireless, I started to look at other uses for electronics.

The second most interesting application for electronic circuitry was in playing gramophone records, by way of a turntable and gramophone 'pick-up'. These were generally piezo-electric devices. They used a somewhat fragile and hygroscopic crystal of Rochelle salt sandwiched between two strips of aluminium foil.

A popular manufacturer of piezo-electric pick-ups was Cosmacord. My schoolfriend John Brown and I both had record players based on these units.

Although the pick-up had a fairly high peak electrical output – probably around 500mV rms – it needed additional amplification to make it operate a loudspeaker.

In my case, to begin with, I used a DIY three-valve amplifier, shown in Fig. 1. My friend John simply plugged his pick-up into a socket on the back of the Brown family's table radio.

Quite apart from the fairly obvious difference in sound quality, which favoured the table radio, there was the consideration that the HT battery of my battery-powered radio needed regular replacement. This problem worsened if I lowered the grid bias voltages to make the sound better.

## The advent of mains power

To address the battery problem, I found a suitable sized wooden box once used for shoe polish and brushes. Within it I built a 120V mains transformer powered HT power supply.

Although this solved the battery problem, since the 2V accumulator was readily recharged and the grid bias

batteries seemed to go on for ever, it was clearly only an interim measure. The wireless magazines I read had frequent circuit descriptions of amplifiers with output power ratings of eight watts or more, at distortion levels of less than one percent.

These more powerful amplifiers mainly used phase-splitter circuitry to avoid the need for output-valve driver transformers, which introduced distortion unless they were very well made – and hence expensive. This made me keen to try out these new circuit ideas.

Without exception though, these circuits were based on valves with indirectly heated cathodes. Most operated at either 4V or 6.3V, except for rectifiers, for which 5V was the conventional heater rating.

## Tidal flows

This was the first of what I think of as the tidal flows in electronics technology, which left a number of amateurs washed up in its wake. These experimenters were quite happy using battery powered valves with directly heated filaments or cathodes, and 120V HT supplies, but the thought of HT supplies of up to 450V, and power transformers of comparable ratings was, frankly, a frightening one to the inexperienced.

Mains-powered circuitry was prone to annoyingly obtrusive background hum levels. These problems were easily remedied by attention to supply-line smoothing and the layout of the wiring and components, but they were off-putting to the novice.

## RF gain stages using valves

Most radio enthusiasts find difficulty in getting either adequate stage gain or adequate selectivity from their rf stages. This problem is enshrined in the equation,

$$Q = \frac{1}{r} \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$$

where 'Q' is the 'quality factor' of the tuned circuit.

Both the circuit voltage magnification factor and its sharpness of tuning are defined by Q. Thus, for a high Q value, inductance L should be high in relation to capacitance C. Likewise, the equivalent circuit series loss resistance, designated r, should be small.

Stray circuit inductances, which are usually lossy, are mainly due to the wiring

between components. Most general purpose valves have internal wiring lengths of the order of 5cm, as would tuning capacitors. At least twice that wiring length would be incurred by any frequency changing switching. For these reasons, most amateur radio constructors regarded 28MHz – i.e. the 'ten metre' band – as about the highest 'easy' frequency to build for.

In the case of FM radio, 10.7MHz was soon adopted as the normal superhet intermediate frequency. Components like 'Foster-Seeley' and 'ratio-detector' FM demodulators, and bandpass-coupled IF transformers, were soon commercially available. They came in neat metal cans, to smooth the path of the amateur constructor.

However, the ideal, drift-free, and motor car ignition noise-free FM tuner was as elusive at the end of the 1950s as it had been for me in 1947.

**A moment of anarchy**

By now, Britain had been involved in the Second World War for some years. The effect on life in Reading was relatively slight. Some things, however, such as new electronic components, were becoming difficult to obtain. In addition, some nameless civil servant had thought up a ban on the purchase of directly-heated triode valves having anode dissipation greater than four watts. It was possible to obtain a replacement power valve, but one had to fill in a tiresome form from the GPO, and have it countersigned by a JP.

The reason given for the ban was that such valves could be used by spies wanting to construct clandestine radio transmitters. Any interested schoolboy though – me for instance – could have told the ‘powers that be’ that one could just as easily make a transmitter using an output pentode valve, for which no permit was required.

To prove the point I built a nominal five-watt transmitter, with which I re-broadcast the BBC ‘Home Service’ on a new frequency, somewhere near the bottom of the medium-wave band. A tour on bicycle among my friends established that my transmissions were receivable over much of the Reading area – in some cases at better strength than the official signal.

To be on the safe side, I took my BBC ‘spy’ transmitter to pieces again the following day, since I felt that I shouldn’t abuse my father’s hospitality. I could imagine the wrath of the authorities if my actions were uncovered.

**Pentode versus triode – the quest for sound quality**

The original design of the thermionic valve, as an amplifying device, was the triode. It involved a spiral wire ‘grid’ mounted between the filament, which was also the cathode, and the metal plate anode.

Such early triodes worked well at low frequencies, and introduced relatively little distortion as an amplifier, but they were prone to instability when used at higher frequencies. This was due to the effect of feedback through the inter-electrode capacitances.

If the structure was elaborated to include a ‘screening grid’, as in the tetrode or pentode, the available stage gain was greatly increased. However, there was also an increase in the amount of signal distortion – mainly third harmonic – which couldn’t be removed by ‘push-pull’ operation.

In the middle to late thirties, before the general adoption of overall negative feedback in audio amplifier circuitry, a major topic among amateur audio enthusiasts was the extent to which the efficiency and stage-gain benefits from pentodes could be retained if the output circuit was modified. Such modifications included, for example, the use of un-bypassed cathode resistors or other ways of introducing local negative feedback.

A significant step in the direction of greater output stage linearity was made in the late 1930s when Marconi-Osram introduced the ‘beam tetrode’. This valve offered pentode-type stage gain with triode type levels of distortion. Such valves, in various power ratings, were listed in my 1940 edition of the ‘Premier

Radio’ component catalogue – the last to be printed before the war. In practice though, they did not become available in the shops until about 1947.

A typical ‘high-quality’ audio amplifier of the period is shown in Fig. 2.

**Time testing magnetrons**

On leaving school, I had the luck to get a job as a ‘student assistant’ in the GEC Research Laboratories at North Wembley in London. I was mainly involved in building and using test equipment for the new 10cm magnetrons that had started to be produced.

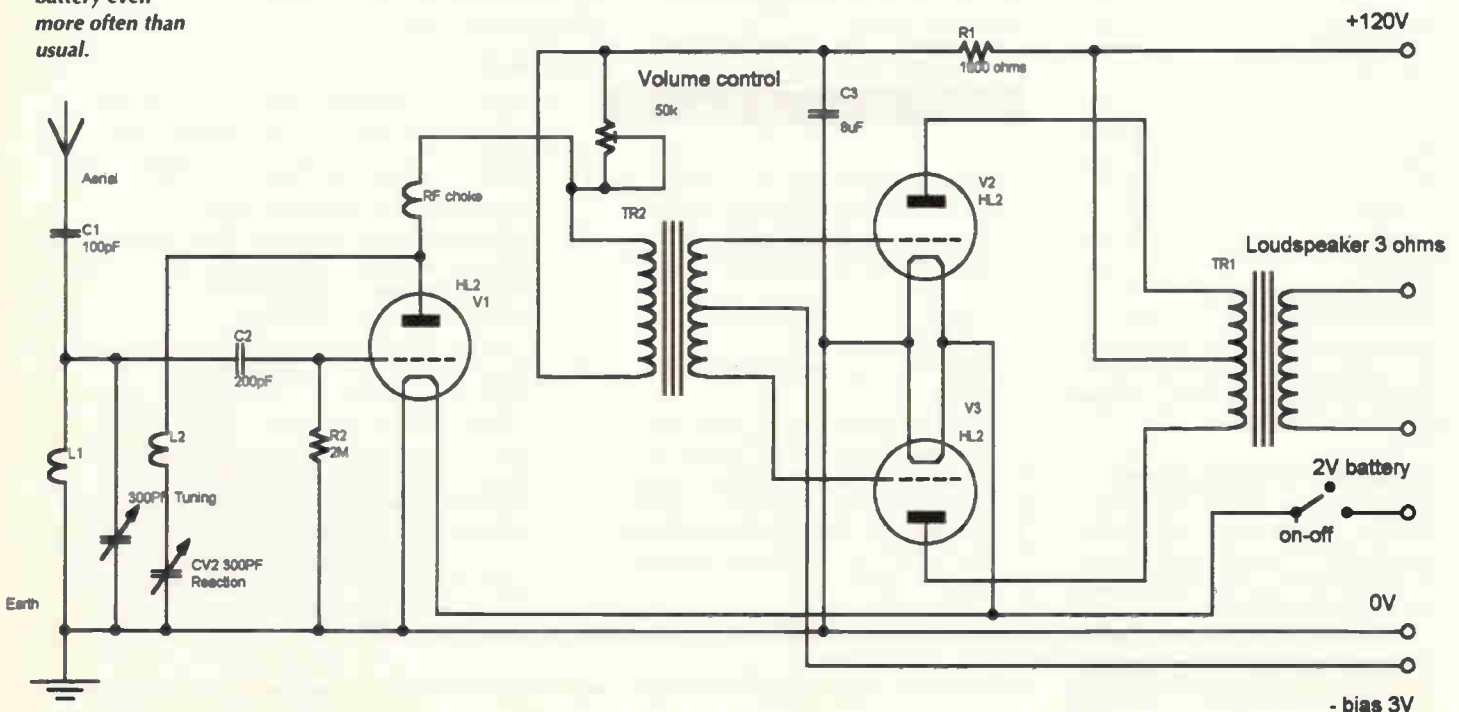
At the time, these magnetrons were transforming the UK’s radar defences. They improved the accuracy of aircraft location due to their higher frequency output signal, and their shorter RF pulse length relative to their predecessors.

Though I greatly enjoyed the work, for me the main attraction of the job was the company of my new colleagues. Their knowledge of electronics seemed encyclopaedic, and made my previous efforts in radio and audio seem clumsy.

However, visiting a new friend, who had a superb record playing set-up, (though, actually, he preferred playing his bagpipes), brought home to me the truth that a better speaker system would often make for better results than any amount of clever electronic circuitry.

A mouth-watering discovery, from those days, was that some parts of the North Wembley laboratories were used for ‘life-test’ purposes, on a wide range of valves including the new ‘kinkless tetrodes’. I remember seeing several thousands of them glowing in the darkness of the gallery in 1942.

*Fig. 1. My home-brewed three-valve amplifier. Its sound quality could be improved a little by lowering the grid bias voltage, but that meant that I had to replace the expensive HT battery even more often than usual.*





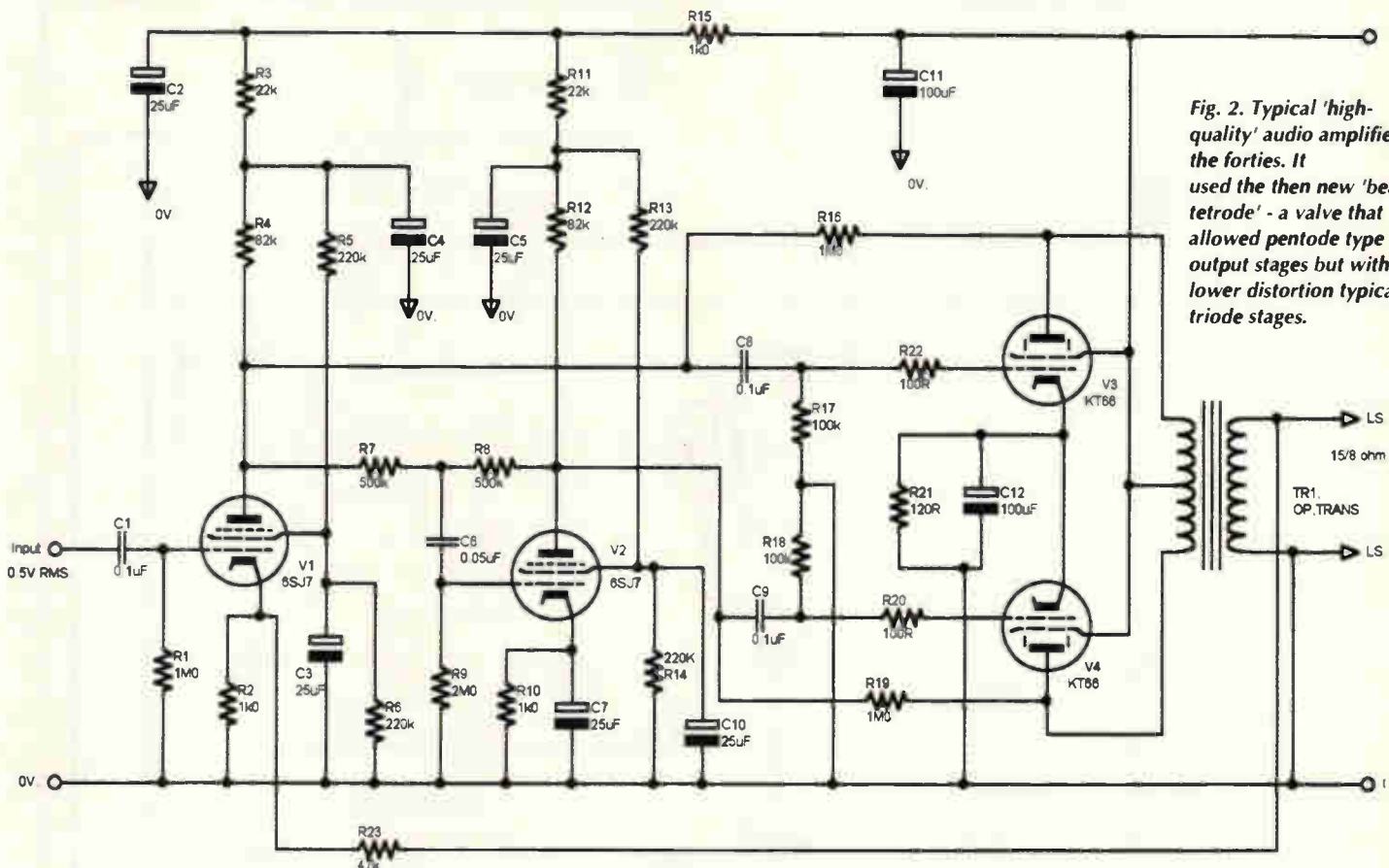


Fig. 2. Typical 'high-quality' audio amplifier of the forties. It used the then new 'beam tetrode' - a valve that allowed pentode type output stages but with the lower distortion typical of triode stages.

These valves were mostly KTZ63 radar IF amplifiers, but there were also some of the legendary, and quite unobtainable, KT66 output valves. I asked the technician in charge what would happen to them. 'Oh', said my informant, 'when the tests are finished, we sling them out. If you ask me again, say in 1945 or 1946, you can take your pick of any that are still working.'

**Military service**

After some ten happy months at the GEC labs, I found, somewhat to my surprise, that in the course of 'Registering' for military service, I had actually volunteered to join the RAF for training as a wireless operator/air gunner with RAF bomber command. However, as is frequently the way with the military, what one is actually doing differed from what one is supposed to be doing.

I spent the next six months or so in various RAF hospitals catching up with sundry childhood ailments, like chicken pox, measles, scarlet fever and the like. These bouts were interspersed with week or ten day spells of quarantine and sick leave.

By the time I had been out of hospital for three weeks, and the RAF had decided I was, once more, fully fit for duty, the priorities had changed again. The RAF was now very happy to accept me, instead, for training as a radar mechanic - an outcome which I welcomed.

This course was divided into two six-month spells, at Glasgow and Yatesbury in Wiltshire, where much of the work tied in with my previous experience at the GEC. I was back once more in familiar territory.

At the conclusion of the course I was promoted to 'Leading Aircraftsman', and posted to the celebrated Telecommunications Research Establishment, at Malvern. In the way of the RAF however, this posting actually turned out to be to the 'Radio Experimental Unit' at Malabar Hill, Bombay - which was in the process of having its name changed to TRE (Asia).

**Time in Asia**

My immediate boss in Bombay was an RAF Corporal, generally known as 'Mac'. I remember him as the most astonishingly energetic and enterprising bloke I had ever met. He seemed to be able to make the RAF authorities jump through a hoop at his command.

It was said that when he was away from the unit - absent without leave, a frequent event - he would arrange for the Pay Office send his pay to him, through the post, at whichever civilian address he was using at the time.

'Mac' was an excellent instructor, if he could be persuaded to take time off from his various 'foreign' jobs. I recall two of these jobs in particular. One was a one kilowatt mobile, motor-generator powered, public address system. It was based

on a raft of double triodes connected in parallel push-pull. This kit was said to have been available, on hire, for a fee, to the various Indian political parties taking part in the 1945 elections.

The second job I recall was an early digital computer that Mac built for Bombay University. It used hundreds more 6SN7 and 6SL7 double triodes. For his work on the computer, Mac was given an early, 'Class B', demobilisation.

At this juncture, Mac and I parted company. I was posted to Jaffna, in north Ceylon, to work on airborne radar, with particular reference to the detection of thunderstorms. This too was fascinating work. It involved much experimentation with oscilloscope time-base circuitry, which came in handy after I had left the RAF, in building my first green-screen TV.

**The first true hi-fi**

With the end of the war, the attention of many amateur electronics enthusiasts turned again to high-quality audio amplifiers. Particular attention was paid to the use of the new output beam tetrodes. These could also be 'triode connected', when they would operate in a similar manner to output triodes, but without the disadvantage of a low stage gain and a limited power output.

The first - and, in my view, by far the best - circuit using these new valves,





was a design described by DTN Williamson in *Wireless World* early in 1947. I have shown the circuit of this in Fig. 3.

Williamson's amplifier employed a carefully designed and tightly specified output 'loudspeaker' transformer. It also had quite a large amount of negative feedback – 26dB – over the whole system, from loudspeaker output to signal input.

These features gave it a  $\pm 1$ dB bandwidth of 10Hz to 100kHz, an output power of 15 watts, and a total harmonic distortion of less than 0.1%. It was a 'Rolls Royce' design, and it sounded superb.

Unfortunately, although there were a number of DIY kits for Williamson's design, these generally also commanded 'Rolls Royce' type prices. I had to wait until 1952 to build my own. A wealthy acquaintance of mine bought a kit, but took fright at the prospect of building it, and sold it to me at half price.

### Windscale – a hot-bed of technology

Having spent four years at university, reading physics, I joined the electronics laboratory of the Department of Atomic Energy at Sellafield, in Cumbria, in 1951.

'Windscale Works', as it was known, was a fascinating place. It comprised a series of laboratories and chemical processing refinery blocks, built around two huge graphite moderated, natural uranium-fuelled, nuclear reactors. These were just coming on line in 1951, and resulted in a recruitment drive that was filling the local villages with new inhabitants.

Seascale, a small village two miles or so down the coast to the south of the 'works', was the main recipient of this influx of personnel. Its remote location and its large number of technically-qualified inhabitants led to a great interest in home entertainment.

In those days, home entertainment mainly meant radio and gramophone record playing systems. This resulted in a large number of home-designed and home-built loudspeaker systems – mainly notable for their size, in the pursuit of better bass.

I, too, had joined this quest for better bass, and called at the workshops of the village joiner cum undertaker to ask him to cut me up the various odd shaped pieces of wood. These would ultimately fit together to make an exponential horn, that would then form the base of a large 'radiogram' cabinet.

Having looked at my sketches, he walked round to my house to get me to explain how they would fit together. While there, he listened to my record playing system – then my Williamson's predecessor – and offered to make me a cabinet to my design if I would make him the electronics for another identical one for him. This swap was done and resulted in two very happy people. It also resulted in a temporary lull in my amplifier-making activities.

### The coming of FM

A further technological tide whose ebb stranded a number of otherwise competent radio enthusiasts was the advent of the BBC 'VHF' radio broadcasts.

This new 'frequency-modulation' (FM) system offered a number of attractive features. These features were actively touted by the broadcasting authorities as solutions to the problems that increasingly beset existing amplitude modulation' (AM) broadcasts.

Among the problems with AM broadcasts were 'fading', coupled with widely variable signal strength, from station to station. In addition there was the increasing congestion of the 'medium' and 'long wave' broadcast bands. This resulted in a lot of adjacent channel interference – especially at night when listeners might particularly wish to relax and listen to the radio.

The use of a 88-108MHz band VHF system would solve adjacent channel breakthrough because it was essentially a 'line-of-sight' broadcasting system. In any case, this frequency band would allow a lot more elbow room. However, there were snags. The first – and the most immediately irritating of these – was frequency drift.

A number of the more enterprising radio enthusiasts, particularly those within a 50 mile radius of London, had made their own TV sets. These were tuned to the 41-45MHz transmissions from the BBC's Crystal Palace transmitter, soon supplemented by 'Midlands' transmitters at Sutton Coldfield, and 'Northern' broadcasts from Holme Moss on the hills above Huddersfield.

Home built television sets provided experience in laying out and constructing high-frequency RF amplifiers, but only for wide bandwidth and single-frequency operation. For this type of amplifier, a 'TRF' layout would have been adequate.

With FM broadcasts it was necessary to provide for reception on any one of the 200kHz channels over the whole 88-108 MHz broadcast band. Clearly, only a 'superhet' layout would give the required sensitivity and frequency coverage.

In principle, the drift problem inherent in such designs could be corrected by the use of capacitors with a positive or negative temperature coefficient. These were usually labelled 'N750' or 'P100', and so on, denoting the change in capacitance, in parts per million, per degree Celsius. They only worked though if the compensation component was of the right value, and in the right place, which could prove difficult to achieve.

During my years with TRE in Singapore, I had built a number of short-wave receivers. These included a full specification communications receiver, and several quite good 'bedside' radios for day-to-day reception of the BBC news, current affairs and entertainment broadcasts.

I felt that building the kind of RF ampli-

fier needed for VHF reception would hold no terrors for me. However, I found that I had several fundamental lessons to learn.

### Bass, heat and drift

In 1947, on returning to the UK following demobilisation, my parents owned a magnificent 1920s vintage 'Aeolian Vocalion' acoustic gramophone. This was an impressive piece of furniture, whose motor had the ability to play ten 12in record sides, at a splendidly constant speed, at a single winding of its handle. In all other respects though, it was very primitive technology.

I therefore proposed to my father that I should replace the gramophone part of the Vocalion with a proper, high quality, audio amplifier, and moving coil loudspeaker, together with one of the new FM type radio receivers. The massive clockwork motor would be replaced by an electric one. The space released by this change, and the removal of the large metal exponential horn, could then be used to house a Rola (G12) twelve inch loudspeaker driver. The 12in driver was to be added in the interests of better bass – a decision I was later to regret.

In particular, I had not fully anticipated the problem of oscillator frequency drift. The basic difficulty was that the sources of heat – the valves – were in a different thermal environment from the frequency determining components – the tuned circuits. They would heat up or cool down at different rates.

While it was possible to arrange that the correct tuning for any station was the same at switch-on as it was half an hour later, there was an intermediate period when the receiver was audibly off tune. I spent a lot of time trying to solve this problem, but without much success.

My father listened to my technical explanations, but I felt that he was not impressed with my skills. My mother side-stepped the issue by buying a commercial AM/FM radio – mainly because she liked the look of its cabinet.

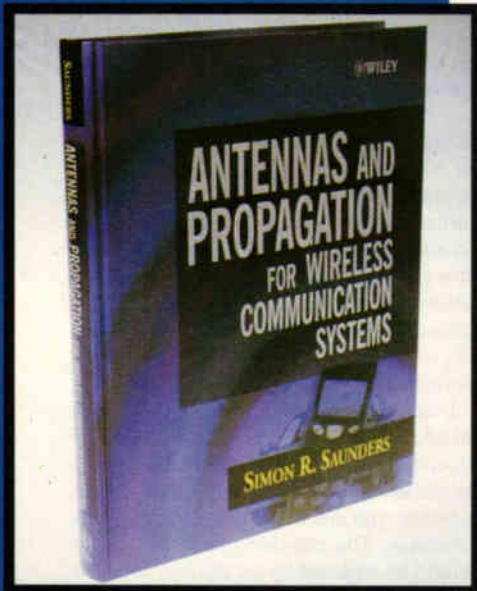
I noted, somewhat wryly, that this commercial product also suffered from oscillator drift, though not quite so badly. Also, this new receiver was used mainly as an AM radio. If FM was used, it would probably be listened to in the evening, when the radio would have been already switched on for hours and uniform in temperature.

My other design problem was due to the proximity of the loudspeaker cone to the underside of the turntable. If one turned up the volume too much, the resulting acoustic feedback could make the pick-up leap about on the surface of the record – thoroughly blunting the thorn needle.

The very good bass response also gave a lot of trouble in minimising mains frequency hum, which I furtively doctored by deliberately injecting a small anti-phase 50Hz voltage into the signal chain. ■

In his next article, John recalls the coming of the transistor.

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# Uses for a different kind of log amp

Joe Carr has been investigating a relatively new log amplifier that delivers a demodulated output over a 92dB dynamic range.

Applications presented here include an RF wattmeter for microwatts to kilowatts and an RF level meter calibrated in dBm.

**A** logarithmic amplifier produces an output signal,  $V_O$ , that is proportional to the natural base-e logarithm of the input signal,  $V_{IN}$ , or  $V_O = k \times \log(V_{IN})$ , where  $k$  is a proportionality constant.

Early log amps used a bipolar transistor – usually n-p-n – connected in a common-base configuration in the feedback loop of an operational amplifier between the output and inverting input, Fig. 1.

These older log amp circuits work because the collector current of a bipolar transistor is logarithmically related to the base-emitter voltage  $V_{BE}$ . Because of the fact that  $I_{IN} = I_C$ , and  $V_O = V_{BE}$ , you can write an equation such as  $V_O = k \log(V_{IN})$ .

Those designs usually suffered from a number of difficulties including bandwidth, thermal drift, and limited dynamic range – three killers. I've built a number of these amplifiers over the years, and all lacked a bit in performance. That's why I was so intrigued when I saw Analog Devices' AD8307 demodulating logarithmic amplifier.

## The demodulating logarithmic amplifier

The AD8307 is a logarithmic amplifier that delivers a demodulated DC output over a 92dB dynamic range

from  $-75\text{dBm}$  to  $+17\text{dBm}$ . Its output scaling has a slope of  $25\text{mV/dB}$ , and an intercept of  $-84\text{dBm}$ . The bandwidth is DC to  $500\text{MHz}$  with  $\pm 1\text{dB}$  linearity up to  $100\text{MHz}$ .

The AD8307 operates from a 2.7 to 5.5V DC power supply. It requires less than 8mA in 'enabled' mode or  $150\mu\text{A}$  in sleep mode. Operating power consumption is a mere 22mW.

The AD8307 is available in eight-pin SOIC and plastic DIP packages. Figure 2 shows the 8-pin DIP package pin-out. The device operates over the 'industrial' temperature range of  $-40$  to  $+85^\circ\text{C}$ . Definitions of the pins are shown in Table 1.

## Applications outline

A logarithmic amp that operates from DC to  $500\text{MHz}$  has numerous applications.

Instrumentation examples include decibel meters from very low near-DC frequencies up to full device bandwidth. Published applications have included an RF field strength meter (Hickman 1998), an RF decibel meter (Bolch 1999) and a circuit for controlling the output power of an RF power amplifier (Gilbert and Nash 1999).

Other applications include a 120dB IF amplifier in a spectrum analyser circuit, received signal strength

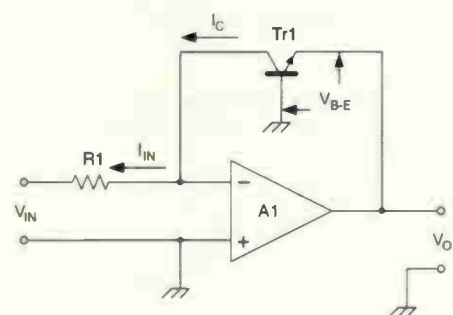


Fig. 1. Traditional logarithmic amplifier relies on the log relationship of collector current to base-emitter voltage.



Fig. 2. AD8307 pin-out.

Table 1. Pin functions of the demodulating logarithmic amplifier.

| Pin | Function  |
|-----|---|
| 1   | Inverting input ( $-in$ ), usually kept at $(V+)/2$ .     |
| 2   | Common – ground in most cases                             |
| 3   | Offset adjust   |
| 4   | Output  |
| 5   | $\pm 6\text{dB}$ intercept adjust                         |
| 6   | CMOS chip enable, active high.                            |
| 7   | $V+$ ( $+2.7$ to $+5.5\text{V DC}$ )                      |
| 8   | Non-inverting input ( $+in$ ), usually kept at $(V+)/2$ . |

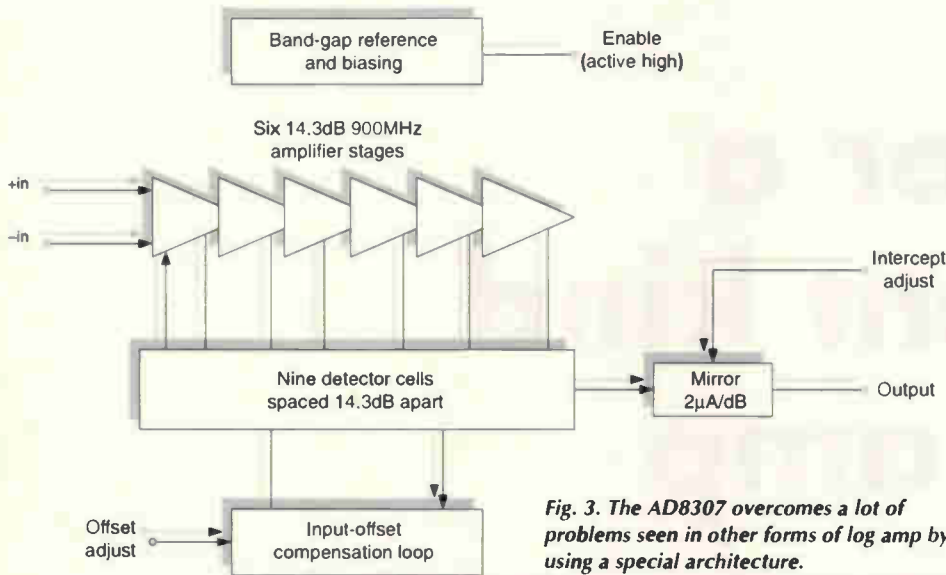
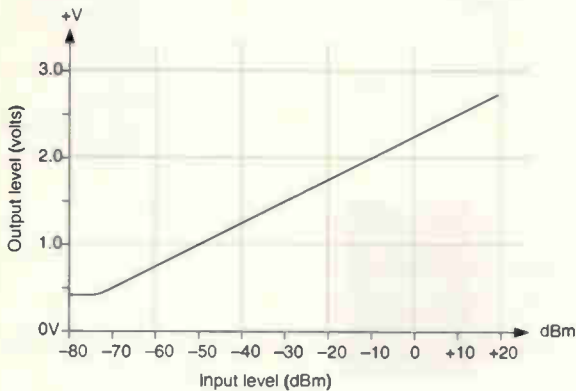


Fig. 3. The AD8307 overcomes a lot of problems seen in other forms of log amp by using a special architecture.

indicator (RSSI), Sonar and Radar signal processing, medical and scientific device amplifiers, and a host of others.

If your application requires a very wide dynamic range, at frequencies from DC to UHF, then the AD8307 log amp may be a candidate solution because the gain slope is compressed at high input signal levels.

Fig. 4. Output level versus input level in dBm.



**How the device works**  
The AD8307 overcomes a lot of

problems seen in other forms of log amp by using a special architecture, Fig. 3, that enables the 'progressive compression', or 'successive detection' technique.

Each of the six cascaded amplifier/limiters in the design has a -3dB bandwidth of 900MHz. The natural input range of the device is -75dBm to +17dBm, although an input matching scheme can alter this range to -88dBm to +3dBm.

Output from the amplifiers passes to a 2µA/dB current mirror. It is converted to a 25mV/dB output voltage when the current is passed through a 12.5kΩ precision resistance. The DC output voltage will thus vary from 250mV at -74dBm to 2500mV at +16dBm, Fig. 4.

These levels assume a 5V DC power supply. If a 2.7V DC power supply is used then the output scaling factor can be reduced from 25mV/dB to 15mV/dB in order to utilise the entire output range.

**Basic circuit configurations**

Figure 5 shows the basic circuit configuration for the AD8307 log amp.

Power is applied to pins 7 and 6, the latter being the chip-enable pin. A small-value resistor, R<sub>1</sub>, and a capacitor C<sub>3</sub> provide a bit of decoupling and isolation. The resistor should be a non-inductive type such as carbon composition or metal film. The capacitor should be usable at frequencies into the UHF region.

The input is differential between pins 1 and 8. Because these pins are at a potential of (V<sub>+</sub>)/2 capacitors C<sub>1,2</sub> are required.

Values for C<sub>1</sub> and C<sub>2</sub> should be equal and will vary from 10µF at frequencies near DC to about 2pF at 500MHz. For RF applications it is common practice to use 1000pF capacitors for C<sub>1</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>.

Input impedance of the device is normally 1.1kΩ shunted by 1.4pF capacitance between pins 1 and 8. Resistor R<sub>7</sub> brings the input resistance down to a specified standard level such as 50Ω for RF systems or 75Ω for TV systems.

The value of R<sub>7</sub> should be 52.3Ω if the input impedance is to be 50Ω. One way to obtain this resistance – apart from buying a precision resistor – is to use a 51Ω 5% unit that has an actual measured resistance of 52.3Ω.

**Slope and intercept-point adjustment**

The 25mV/dB output scale factor is approximate, but is adequate for many applications. If you want to provide higher calibration accuracy, then use the circuit of Fig. 6. It is like the basic circuit of Fig. 5, but adds adjustments for the output slope, R<sub>3</sub>, and intercept point, R<sub>5</sub>.

Resistors R<sub>3</sub> and R<sub>5</sub> connected between the output terminal and ground make up the output slope adjustment circuit. The series combination R<sub>3,5</sub> is shunted across the internal 12.5kΩ resistor, reducing the output slope to some value close to 20mV/dB. This value depends on the setting of R<sub>3</sub>. With the values shown the output slope range will be approximately 18mV/dB to 22mV/dB.

There are two basic methods for adjusting the output slope control. The first is to apply two different signal levels alternately, while adjusting the control for the proper output levels. For example, signals of 0dBm and -60dBm can be alternately applied.

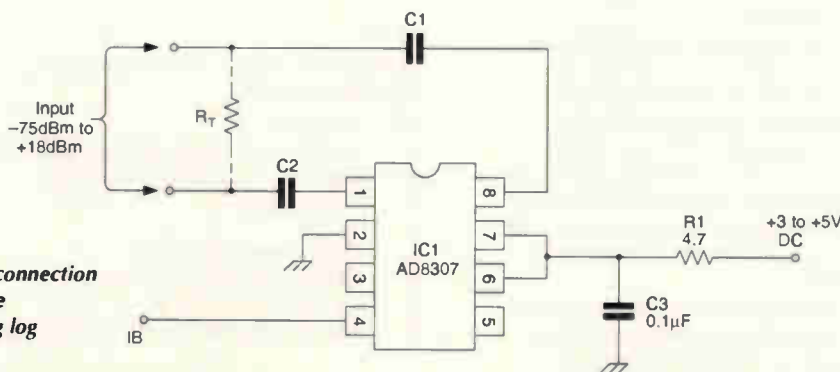


Fig. 5. Basic connection scheme of the demodulating log amplifier.



The other method is to use an amplitude-modulated signal with a continuous wave level in the middle of the device's range – say  $-40\text{dBm}$  – and a standard modulation level. The difference in the two adjustment points will be,

$$\Delta\text{dB} = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{1+M}{1-M} \right) \quad (1)$$

Where  $\Delta\text{dB}$  is the difference between peak and trough on the AM waveform as observed on an oscilloscope and  $M$  is the percentage of modulation expressed as a decimal.

The example given in the AD8307 data sheet is  $\Delta\text{dB} = 15\text{dB}$  when 70% sinusoidal modulation is applied, i.e.  $M = 0.70$ .

It is possible to adjust the intercept point by applying a DC voltage level to pin 5. This technique allows a  $\pm 3\text{dB}$  adjustment, which can be used to null out any intercept error in a particular circuit.

The basic method for adjusting this control is to apply a low-level signal to the input that is a specified number of decibels above the desired intercept level. For example, to set the intercept point to  $-80\text{dBm}$ , apply a signal level of  $-65\text{dBm}$ , which is 15dB above the desired intercept, and adjust  $R_5$  to 375mV.

**Single-ended input operation**

Figure 7 shows single-ended operation of the AD8307. It also shows a typical DC power supply circuit that can be used for all of the circuits described here.

Single-ended input operation is unbalanced with respect to ground. This is the type of operation that most RF circuits use, and is consistent with the use of coaxial cable to interconnection circuit elements.

In Fig. 7, the signal is applied directly to pin no. 8 through capacitor  $C_1$ . Although a value is shown for  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , the actual value can be scaled to the desired frequency range.

A resistor,  $R_1$ , shunts the input in order to reduce the input resistance to approximately  $50\Omega$ . The alternative input terminal on pin 1 is bypassed to ground through capacitor  $C_2$ . Be sure to keep  $C_1$  equal to  $C_2$ .

The DC power system consists of the same low-value resistor,  $R_2$ , and decoupling capacitor,  $C_3$ , that were used earlier. In addition, a +5V three-terminal IC regulator,  $IC_2$ , is provided. This device is the 78L05 100mA regulator.

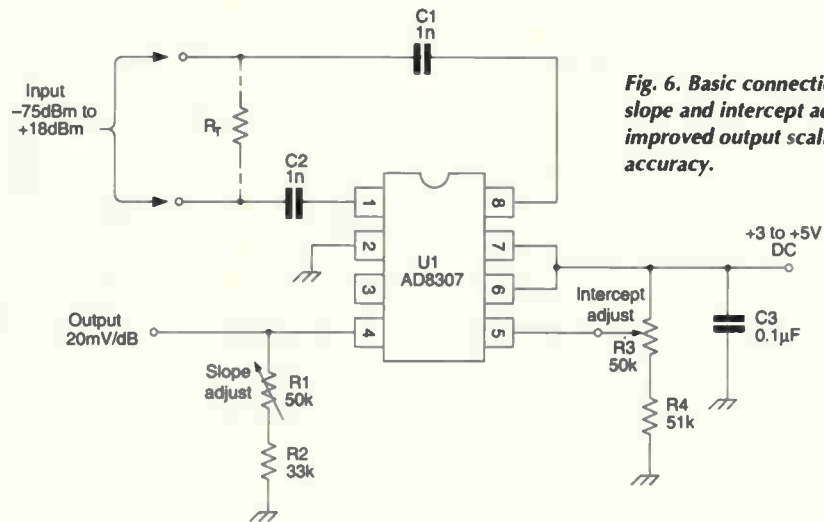


Fig. 6. Basic connection with slope and intercept adjust for improved output scaling accuracy.

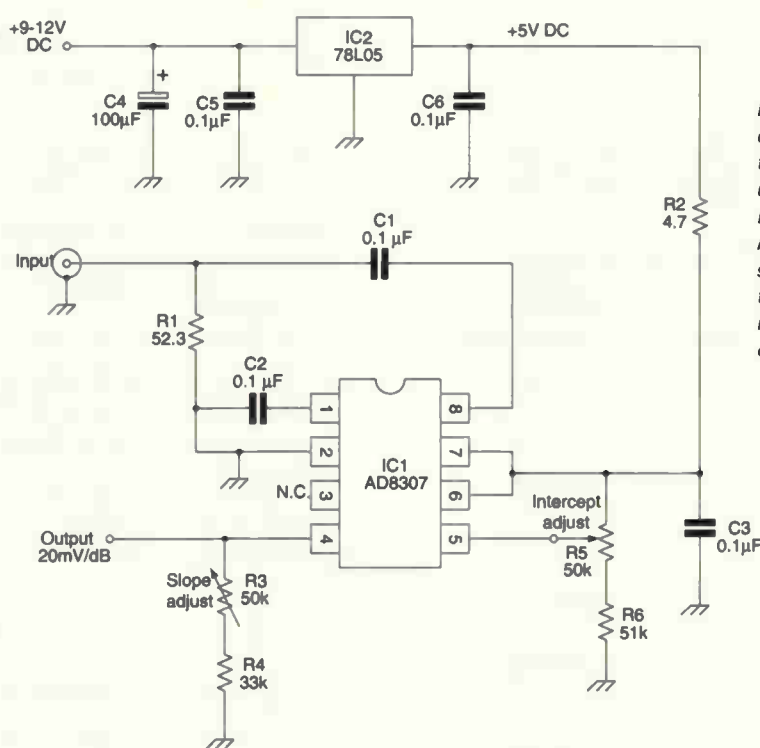


Fig. 7. Single-ended operation, in which the input is unbalanced with respect to ground. Most RF circuits are single-ended, making them easy to interconnect using coaxial cable.

**Decibel notation**

Decibel notations sometimes provoke a little confusion. Basically a decibel (dB) is the base-10 logarithm of two voltage, current or power levels. It is used because multiplication operations – e.g. amplification – can be accomplished by simple addition, division operations by simple subtraction. The basic decibel formulas are, for power levels  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ ,

$$\text{dB} = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_1}{P_2} \right)$$

and for voltage levels  $V_1$  and  $V_2$ ,

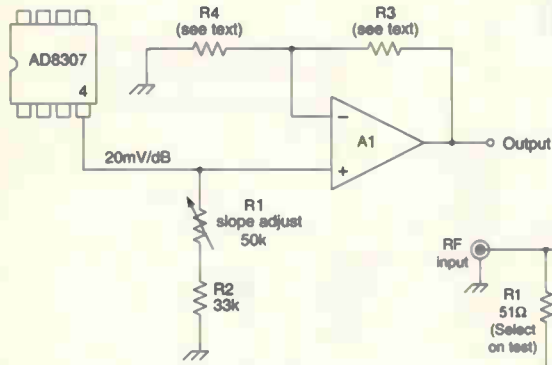
$$\text{dB} = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{V_1}{V_2} \right)$$

In some cases, special decibel scales are used. Scales commonly used in RF work include dBm, dBµV and dBmV. These compare a signal level against some standard reference level that establishes the 0dB point.

**dBm.** Compares  $P_1$  to a standard power of one milliwatt dissipated in a  $50\Omega$  resistive load. A voltage of  $223.6\mu\text{V}$  RMS ( $316.2\mu\text{V}$  peak) across  $50\Omega$  represents 0dBm.

**dBµV.** Compares  $V_1$  to a standard voltage of one microvolt across a  $50\Omega$  load.

**dBmV.** Compares  $V_1$  to a standard voltage of one millivolt across a  $75\Omega$  load. This unit is used in TV systems.



**Fig. 8.** Buffering may be needed because the output of the log amp is formed by passing mirror current through a 12.5kΩ resistor.

Capacitors C<sub>4-6</sub> are used to prevent noise and voltage fluctuations from affecting the circuit.

**Buffering the output**

Output from the AD8307 is at a relatively high impedance. This comes about because the output

voltage is formed by passing the mirror current through a 12.5kΩ resistor.

Figure 8 shows how to connect an operational amplifier to the output to buffer the output, providing a low output impedance.

If gain is provided by the buffer, output level scaling is added. If no gain is required, then delete resistors R<sub>3</sub> and R<sub>4</sub>, and connect the output terminal of the op-amp to the inverting input, -IN.

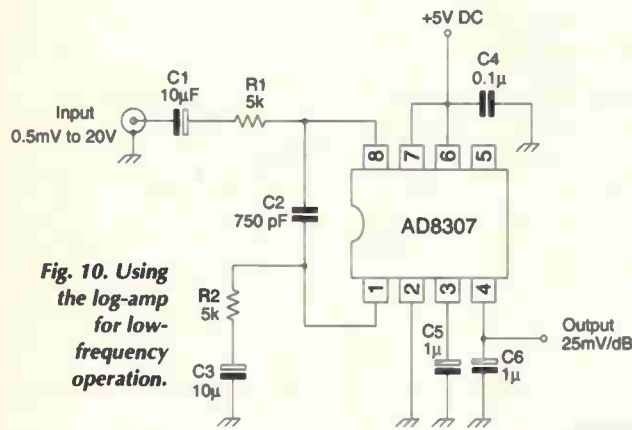
For other cases, where gain is required, use the standard gain equation for the non-inverting follower,

$$A_v = \frac{R_3}{R_4} + 1 \quad (2)$$

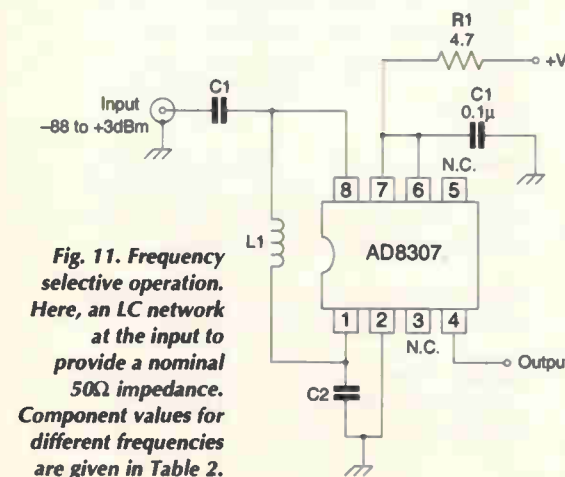
Where A<sub>v</sub> is the voltage gain and R<sub>3,4</sub> are the resistances.

Make sure you use the same units. The gain required will depend on the desired scale factor, which will be higher than 20mV/dB.

An example of a project based on the idea of a buffered output AD8307 is the RF level meter shown in Fig. 9.



**Fig. 10.** Using the log-amp for low-frequency operation.



**Fig. 11.** Frequency selective operation. Here, an LC network at the input to provide a nominal 50Ω impedance. Component values for different frequencies are given in Table 2.

**Table 2.** Component values for the frequency-selective circuit of Fig. 11.

| F <sub>c</sub> (MHz) | C <sub>1</sub> (pF) | C <sub>2</sub> (pF) | L <sub>1</sub> (μH) |
|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 10                   | 160                 | 150                 | 3.3                 |
| 20                   | 82                  | 75                  | 1.6                 |
| 50                   | 30                  | 27                  | 0.68                |
| 100                  | 15                  | 13                  | 0.33                |
| 150                  | 10                  | 8.2                 | 0.22                |
| 200                  | 7.5                 | 6.8                 | 0.15                |
| 250                  | 6.2                 | 5.6                 | 0.10                |
| 500                  | 3.9                 | 3.3                 | 0.039               |

The circuit uses the single-ended input configuration for the AD8307, with a 51Ω resistor shunted across the input. Select R<sub>1</sub> for an actual value as close to 52.3Ω as possible. Calibration for actual levels should be done using an accurate signal generator. The instrument selected must have a calibrated output in either dBμV or dB.

**Low-frequency operation**

Figure 10 shows a variant of the circuit for low frequency operation. The intercept point of this circuit is shifted from -84dBm to -64dBm. This change provides an output voltage range of 0.5mV to 2V.

The input circuit provides both low-pass and high-pass filtering. High-pass filtering is set by the networks C<sub>1</sub>-R<sub>1</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>-R<sub>2</sub>. With the values shown - namely 10μF and 5kΩ - the high-pass -3dB knee frequency is about 3Hz.

The low-pass filter consists of C<sub>3</sub> and the 1.1kΩ input resistance of the AD8307. With the values shown the -3dB low-pass frequency is near 200kHz.

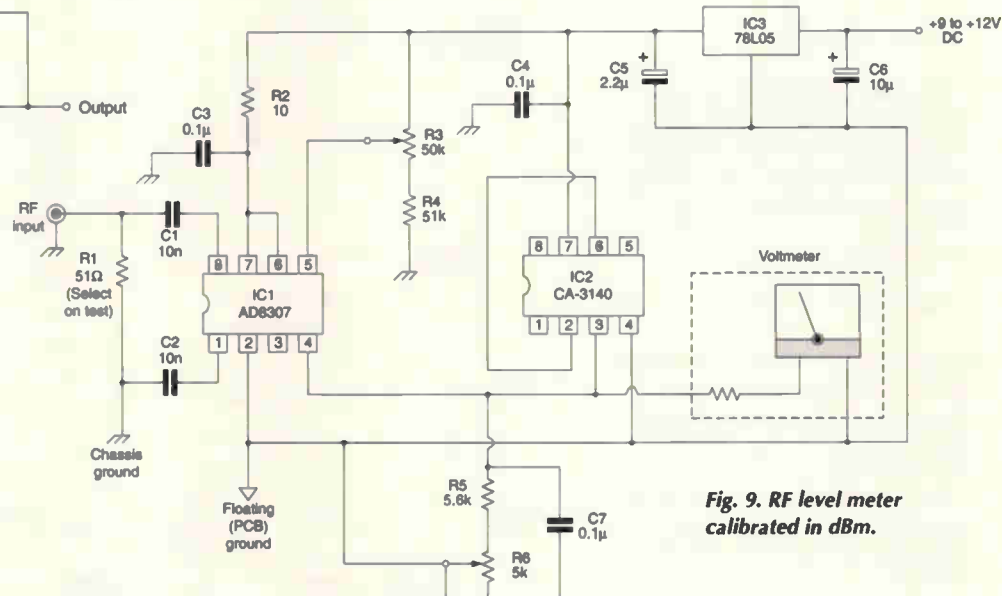
Additional low-pass filtering is provided for the output signal by capacitor C<sub>6</sub> across the output line.

**High-frequency input matching**

The circuit of Fig. 11 uses an LC network to tune the inputs of the AD8307. The values for C<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>2</sub> and L<sub>1</sub> for a nominal 50Ω input impedance are shown in Table 2. Note that this particular circuit uses unbalanced values of C<sub>1</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>.

**Wide-range RF wattmeter**

The AD8307 can be used to make an



**Fig. 9.** RF level meter calibrated in dBm.



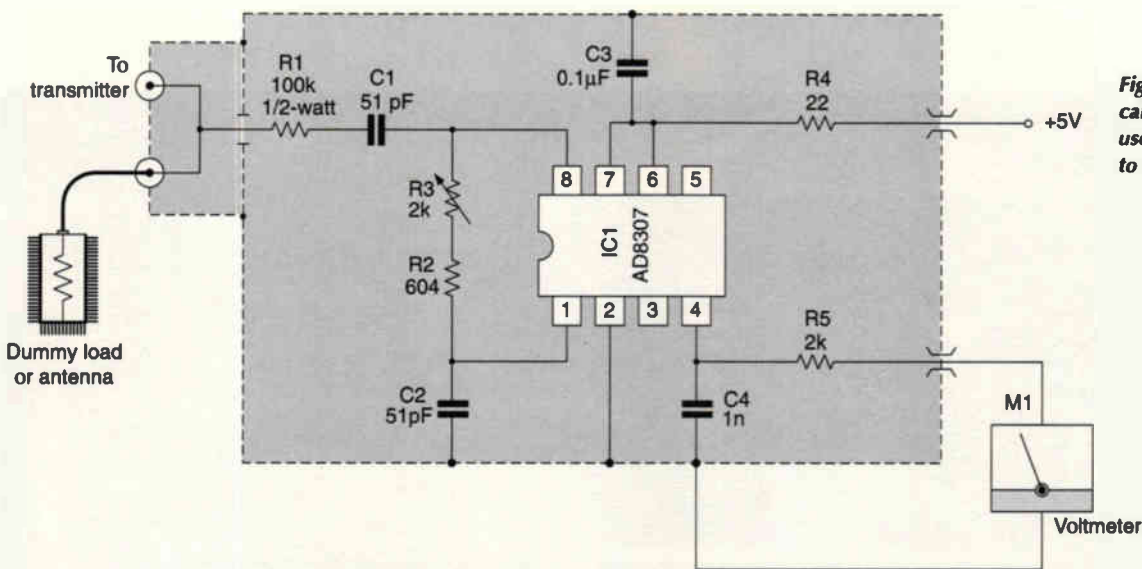


Fig. 12. RF wattmeter, calibrated in dBm, for use from a microwatt to a kilowatt.

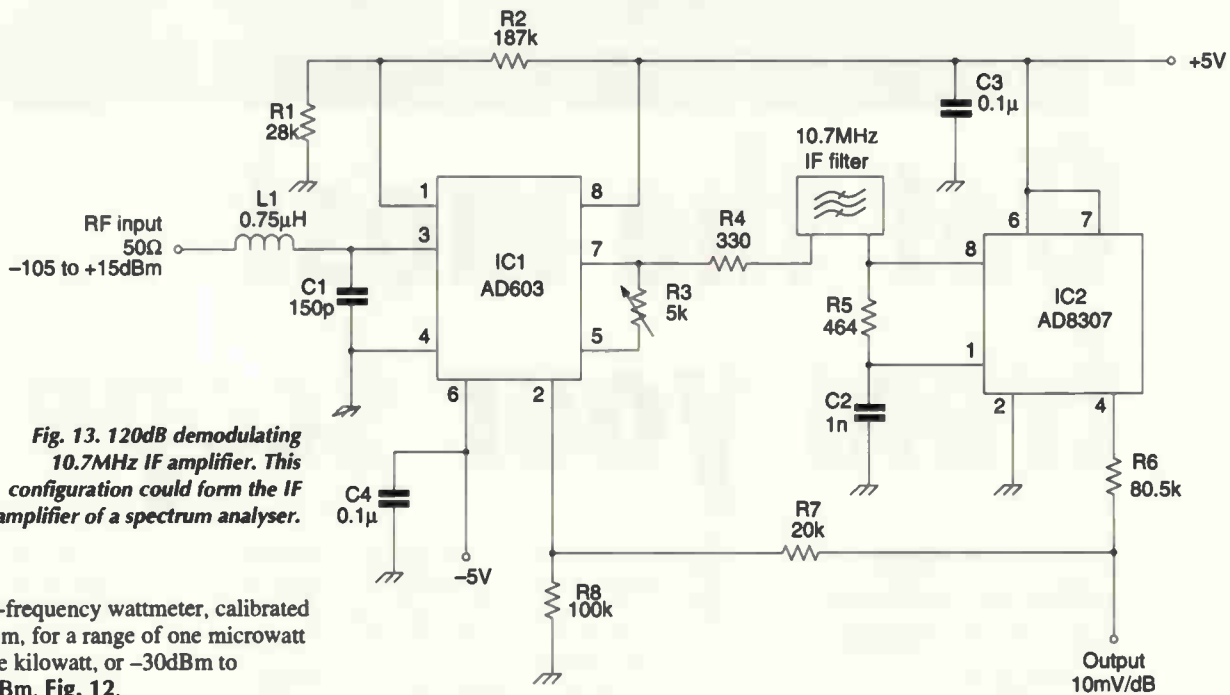


Fig. 13. 120dB demodulating 10.7MHz IF amplifier. This configuration could form the IF amplifier of a spectrum analyser.

radio-frequency wattmeter, calibrated in dBm, for a range of one microwatt to one kilowatt, or -30dBm to +60dBm, Fig. 12.

To accomplish this range the intercept point is moved from -84dBm to -40dBm to produce an output scale factor of 250mV per decade of RF power.

With the values of the coupling capacitors  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  the wattmeter operates at frequencies greater than 10MHz. Larger capacitors will drop the frequency limit lower.

The voltage appearing across the dummy load or antenna is reduced by  $R_1$ , producing a 158:1 attenuation ratio to accommodate the input range of the device.

**120dB IF measurement system**

The AD8307 can be used to form a high-gain demodulating IF amplifier when paired with a variable gain

amplifier such as the AD603. One application for this type of circuit is as the IF amplifier of a spectrum analyser instrument.

The circuit of Fig. 13 provides a gain of 120dB. A ceramic IF filter, such as the Murata SFE10.7MS2G-A, is used to provide bandpass limiting. This circuit works by using the AD8307 output signal to control the gain of the AD607.

**In summary**

The AD8307 demodulating logarithmic amplifier is a clever chip that will solve a number of problems at frequencies from DC to UHF.

A related device – but using different pin-outs – is the AD8313,

which operates over the range 100MHz to 2.5GHz, with a range of 70dB. Both AD8303 and AD8313 are offered with evaluation boards by adding the suffix '-EB' to the part number, i.e. AD8307-EB and AD8313-EB.

**References**

- Bolch, P., 'RF Decibel Meter', *Elektron*, January 1999, pp. 26-29.
- Gilter, Barry and Eamon Nash, 'Demodulating Log amps Bolster Wide-Dynamic-Range Measurements', *Microwave & RF Globalnet*, April 1998 (<http://www.rfglobalnet.com>).
- Hickman, Ian, 'How Strong is Your Field?', *Electronics World*, November 1998, pp. 929-934.



# Get the most from your scope

**Les Green reveals which waveforms suit conventional analogue oscilloscopes and which are best captured using a DSO in this second article.**

In this second article, I am going to go through a series of measurement situations, in terms of waveforms only, to show which are suitable for which type of scope.

The first group of measurements are 'easy' in the sense that they can be done using a real-time or digital storage oscilloscope. Clearly the actual measurement may be very difficult for other reasons, radiated interference for example, and some of these difficulties are highlighted in subsequent sections.

All waveforms have to have a repetition rate above about 10Hz to be considered easy. Sine, square and triangular waveforms are easy. Rectangular waveforms with duty cycles that are not too low are also easy.

Repetitive-pulse burst waveforms – this could be a set of five pulses followed by a long pause before the next set of five pulses – are easy provided you have a slightly more expensive

real-time oscilloscope with a delayed timebase facility. This will allow close examination of each of the pulses in the burst.

## Difficult measurements for DSOs

Digital-storage oscilloscopes have difficulty handling X-Y displays. The main problem is the dot joining. Even the cheapest real-time scope does dot joining between time-adjacent points automatically, no problem at all.

Cheaper DSOs may not support X-Y at all, and much more expensive ones try very hard to emulate the performance of real-time scopes. Lissajous figures for equal frequencies are not too bad but the higher-order patterns are not so nice.

Very-high-frequency repetitive signals are a difficult area for DSOs. On the other hand, real-time oscilloscopes lend themselves to this sort of waveform. The trace is bright and updates very rapidly, following



changes in the signal almost instantaneously.

Digital storage oscilloscopes have difficulty with this type of waveform as super-fast analogue to digital converters cost super-large amounts of money.

In order to enhance the measurement capability of their DSOs, most manufacturers design their instruments to enter a mode called equivalent time sampling, or ETS, at high timebase speeds. This can boost the sampling speed – but for repetitive signals only – by at least a factor of 10, without costing very much.

Equivalent time sampling mode involves taking a group of several acquisitions. Data points from these are then interleaved, which results in a higher effective sampling rate.

Single transient events can not be captured in this mode. This is no loss compared to a real-time scope, but notice that the waveform has to be constructed out of multiple acquisitions; the speed at which this occurs is critical.

With great effort, some DSOs claim to keep up with real-time scopes in this respect: mostly they fail to keep up and therefore at best suffer from a less immediate feel to the controls. The only small comfort you can get from using a DSO in this application is that you can easily plot the waveform or do mathematical manipulations on it.

**How many samples per cycle?** Note that a DSO does not have to have any minimum sampling rate in order to display the correct amplitude of a given signal frequency.

True, you will get an 'alias' if the sampling rate is too low. An alias is a false representation of a signal due to there being too few samples to reconstruct it properly. However, the peaks of the envelope of the alias will get to the correct amplitude, provided that the sampling clock is not an exact sub-multiple of the input signal frequency.

Having said this, a 20MHz bandwidth DSO with 20MS/s is not particularly useful at 20MHz. This is because there is only one dot per cycle. Nyquist sampling – two samples per cycle – is all very well for mathematicians, but if you were to look at such a waveform on a display it wouldn't look like much of anything.

Really, you want as many samples as possible on the waveform. About five or six dots per cycle is the abso-

### What is 'auto triggering'?

Auto trigger is a misleading, somewhat historic term. It used to be called 'bright line' by some.

The idea is that if there is no signal available to trigger the trace then the oscilloscope invents one in order to get an updating trace on the screen. This is essential for setting the ground position, measuring DC levels and seeing how big a signal is. Without it, the sensitivity and trigger controls cannot be adjusted.

A key requirement is that the auto trigger circuit should not make the trigger LED illuminate. If it does, it makes the trigger level much more difficult to set.

There is a relatively new trigger feature available for oscilloscopes that automatically tracks the signal and keeps the trigger in the middle of it; this automatic trigger level feature is useful and should not be confused with the original auto trigger mode.

lute limit of sensible viewing: 1GS/s for a 20MHz DSO is not uncommon, resulting in 50 dots per cycle.

Complex, variable frequency bursts on a waveform can be tricky on DSOs. Many people are used to looking at video data on TV lines using real-time scopes. The answer you get on a DSO is completely different: this can be disturbing.

Two particular things can be seen; either an alias or a solid block of trace.

**Maxi minis and aliasing.** Whether you see an alias or a solid block of trace depends on whether or not 'max-min' – also known as peak detect and glitch detect – has been selected. The 'max-min' block of trace tells you that something is going on in that area. It is up to you to zoom-in on that area by using a faster timebase to see exactly what is going on.

The latest generation of digital storage oscilloscopes can give intensity or colour-graded traces according to the probability distribution of the trace. This gives the newer DSOs a much more analogue 'feel'.

By far the biggest problems with aliasing occur when you are not aware that it is going on. Of course you could just leave the max-min feature on all the time but this will give you waveforms which appear to be very noisy. The trick is to select max-min when you first view the waveform to make sure that there is nothing funny going on.

You should not buy or rent a DSO unless it has a max-min facility.

**Beating.** Digital-storage oscilloscopes often have very accurate crystal controlled timebases. If they are used to view crystal-generated signals, the beat frequency between the sampling clock and the waveform can be very low, displaying an envelope modulation of a signal that has no such modulation on it.

**False triggering.** Familiarity with a piece of equipment gives you confidence in its ability and gives you clues as to possible problems with the displayed data. If, for example, the trigger LED is illuminated but the trace is not locked on the display, then this is a good indication that something strange is going on.

Of course you may be triggering on another channel, which is not currently being displayed, but if this is not the case then try winding the timebase up to a higher speed or putting the max-min on: the waveform might be an alias.

**Variable bandwidth.** A real-time scope has a bandwidth marked on the front that is generally fairly believable. Sometimes though, you will find that the most sensitive range has less bandwidth than the rest. This will be mentioned in fine print somewhere.

A small, but significant, proportion of DSOs change their bandwidths according to what you are doing. This is particularly iniquitous if the oscilloscope manufacturer buries reference to this in the manual. What you really need is alarm bells and flags waved in front of you to warn you that your alleged 400MHz bandwidth has just

dropped to under 150MHz because you clicked the timebase!

This is something you really need to watch out for: always read the manual – get a new manual if the original one has been lost. One justification used for this oversight is that it is done to ‘protect’ against aliasing. If there is high-frequency content in the waveform though, I want the scope to tell me it’s there, not filter it out!

Note that it is convenient for oscilloscope designers to minimise the bandwidth of the measurement as it

reduces the perceived noise: one has to view this from the user’s point of view and improve the noise performance without reducing the bandwidth.

**Difficult measurements for real-time scopes**

Repetition rates much below about 10Hz are difficult to view clearly on real-time scopes.

The exact repetition rates that cause problems are a function of the persistence of the phosphor, the brightness

of the tube and whether or not you are prepared to use an oscilloscope hood to cut out ambient light. Any digital storage oscilloscope will handle this speed of waveform easily, although some will handle it better than others.

Good DSOs have a feature called ‘roll-mode’. At low speeds the scope display can be made to look like a chart recorder display with the ‘paper’ moving from left to right across the screen and the ‘pen’ at the right edge.

At one second per division, the display on a DSO without roll-mode will update every ten seconds. This is annoying, as you can not see what is going on as it happens. At this sort of speed it is also important to be able to stop the acquisition as soon as you have captured the desired event. Given that you don’t necessarily know what the event is going to look like, a big ‘STOP’ button is required to keep the data on the screen.

Instruments with these roll and hold features are no more expensive than others; if you are buying or renting a DSO, get one with these features. They are particularly useful for looking at low-speed events such as the start-up conditions in an electronic system.

**One-off signals.** Transient events are clearly not visible to any great degree on real-time oscilloscopes. Sometimes, with the brightness turned up to maximum and with your face buried in a scope hood, you may just catch the shape of the waveform but you stand no chance of analysing it, saving it or plotting it.

Even the cheapest digital storage oscilloscope will happily sit there all day waiting for a single transient to come along; when you arrive the next day, the trace will be there on the screen waiting for you.

**Transients of repetitive waveforms.** There is a different type of transient event that a real-time oscilloscope also misses. This is the occasional transient on an otherwise regular waveform.

Together, the real-time scope and the human eye conspire to do an averaging operation on the trace. Hence single spikes running through a waveform, due to an interference noise source not locked to the main waveform for example, may well not be easily visible or analysable. They could be 100 times dimmer than the main trace.

Certainly low-frequency rejection trigger coupling would help with this

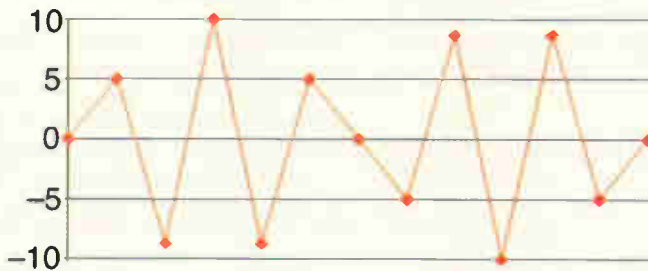
**Joining the sample dots**

These are all representations of the same input waveform – five cycles of a sinusoid – but with different numbers of samples per waveform. It is clear that the number of samples per cycle has a significant effect on how the original waveform is reconstructed.

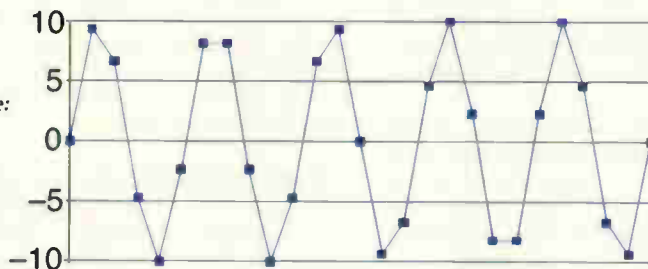
Digital oscilloscopes usually incorporate dot-joining filters known as interpolators. These are intended to make the displayed waveform clearer by drawing lines between the sample points.

Simple linear interpolation shows where the real data points are, as in the top trace. Sin(x)/x interpolation makes the trace look prettier, but can give the user a false sense of what is actually being measured.

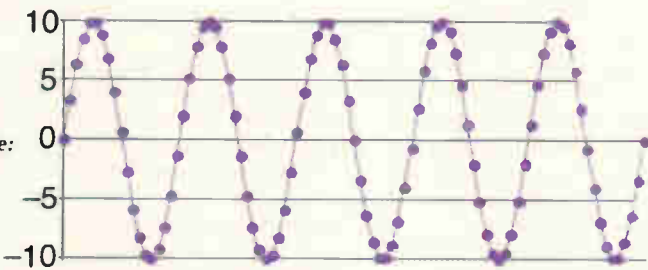
a) 2.4 dots per cycle:



b) 5.2 dots per cycle:



c) 18.4 dots per cycle:





problem, but it may not be enough. Any DSO could give a picture of some of these events as the spikes will be displayed at full brightness, to help you find out what is going on.

There are two additional ways of solving this measurement problem that may be found on more expensive DSOs. The first is a type of persistence mode. You trigger on the main waveform and allow multiple waveform acquisitions to be overlaid on each other. The scope can be left in this mode indefinitely and the display will show the max-min limits of the waveform over that period.

The second way is by using some form of advanced triggering, generally only found on more expensive DSOs. The DSO can be programmed to trigger only on narrow pulses and hence will capture these events as required.

**Transients in digital systems.** Another example of this type of transient event occurs in digital systems. Looking on a logic bus to view the exact voltage levels is next to useless on a real-time scope.

Different sources feed the bus so that some logic transitions can be clean whereas others ring. The real-time scope will just average them out; this can actually be worse than useless because it makes you think that everything is fine when it may not be.

Even an average DSO will display rings on logic edges fairly easily. Better yet, more advanced DSOs can be made to trigger on partial pulses that don't make it to the logic threshold (runts).

Real-time oscilloscopes have analogue timebases so that if you wish to measure the period or pulse width of some rectangular waveform you may well get an answer that is only accurate to a percent or so. A DSO, on the other hand, generally has a crystal controlled digital timebase. These timebases are therefore given worst case error specifications around the 100ppm level, at least 100 times more accurate than their analogue counterparts.

Note that this measurement accuracy is not achieved by displaying the whole waveform on the screen and using cursors. Even a 1000 point display means that the measurement uncertainty of two dots will give a time uncertainty of 0.2%.

### Bandwidth versus sample rate

It is important to appreciate the difference between bandwidth – measured in megahertz – and sample rate – measured in megasamples a second. It can get confusing for people new to the subject when the term megahertz is used for sampling rate.

For an oscilloscope, the specified bandwidth is the frequency at which a sinusoidal waveform – as displayed on the screen – drops by 3dB, i.e. to 0.707 of its real value.

The accurate way to measure it is to move the timebase up to a high sweep speed then use the trigger delay to view the next edge. Alternatively, turn the store length up to 100 000 points or more.

**Permanent records.** Real-time oscilloscopes are not good at giving a permanent record of the displayed waveform. DSOs can provide internal printers, can drive standard ink-jet printers and can transfer their data to PCs via serial links or floppy disks.

Using real-time oscilloscopes you have to resort to an oscilloscope camera or to tracing the waveform onto film. These out-dated techniques are still used under the pretext of saving costs. This is often a false economy though. In electronics design, it is important to keep design details in log-books. There is no better way to encourage this than to provide simple plots from internal printers or pretty plots for reports stored in convenient formats such as JPG or WMF.

Such instruments can provide time and date annotation, in addition to waveform data, as physical evidence that tests have been performed. It is possible to continue to use an old analogue sampling oscilloscope in a modern world. By feeding the analogue outputs of the sampling oscilloscope into a modern DSO and digitally rescaling the measurements, rise time and overshoot readings can be taken with considerably greater accuracy and repeatability than is possible by eye. The trace is also available in WMF format for inclusion in reports.

**Small repetitive signals.** Low-level repetitive noise sources are not particularly easy to track down on real-time scopes. With a DSO you can trigger on a particular potential noise source then investigate the noise using another channel on the DSO.

If you want to check for mains related noise for example, you can put a mains reference into the external trigger input, or use 'Line' trigger, then put the noisy signal into one of the oscilloscope inputs. The noise may fill the screen, but if you select averaging then the noise that is synchronous with the trigger signal is isolated from the other non-synchronous noise sources.

This technique cuts through lots of general measurement noise and pick-up to give a much more sensitive measurement of the synchronous noise source. It is not difficult to guess which things are likely to cause noise: mains transformers, switched-mode supplies, scan circuits, high-voltage drivers and high current drivers are all a good bet as potential noise sources. Get and use a DSO with an averaging capability if you are trying to get the best noise performance from your system.

### Averaging differences

Note that although I have said that real-time scopes average, they do not do so in the same way that a DSO does. This is easy to see by a simple example.

On a real-time scope, a square wave that is not locked to the display will display two half-brightness lines corresponding to the max and min values of the waveform. On the same test, the DSO in averaging mode could display a single line half way between the two limits; the DSO is performing the mathematical averaging operation that you expect when the term averaging is used.

The real-time scope is actually displaying a probability density function; the areas where the trace occurs most often are the brightest. ■

Les's next article looks at noise and other factors that can influence how effectively an oscilloscope does its job.

## Synchrodyne?

On page 171 of the February 2000 issue, George Short asks who invented the Synchrodyne. Here are two early documents to relating to the question.

First is a photocopy of part of a servicing manual for receivers sold by 'Radio L.L.' (Lucien Levy) under the trade name 'Synchrovox' in 1937. These circuits are plain superhet models, without any 'synchronisation'

Second is the front page of a 64 page book by H. de Bellescize, entitled 'La reception synchrone' dated 1932. Reference to this text is made by Professor R. Mesny in the bibliography of his book, 'Radioelectricite' Generale' on page 172: 'Synchronisation: le reception synchrone'.

In this book, Mr de Bellescize describes the technique of single-sideband reception, as developed by American engineers back in 1917 and used for transatlantic communications. He also refers to a paper by A. H. Reeves in *L'onde Electrique* of November 1931 entitled 'Reception asynchrone.'

On page 38 of his book, Mr de Bellescize gives a diagram of a

'synchronous receiver' as shown.

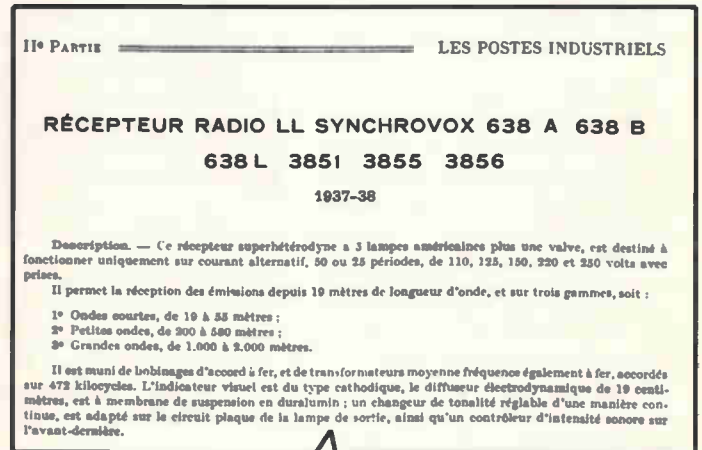
Note the system suggested for keeping the local oscillator in step with any carrier being received. The anode current of the detector varies with the strength of the received signal – and this current is called upon to switch up or down the value of negative bias applied to the RF amplifier of the set.

This AGC circuit was used in receivers made before the introduction of diode detection and variable-mu screen-grid valves.

It could be that the 'Synchrovox' referred to in the advertisement cited by Mr Short was fitted with such an automatic gain control, but I doubt it. The advertisement in 'L'illustration' would have made a lot of fuss about it.

Independently from the above references by the way, the publication 'Transatlantic radiotelephony', by Nichols is significant. Specifically the section Electrical Communication - 1 - 1923 - 11 - 22, suppressed carrier on 55kc/s, single sideband.

**Paul de Lattre**  
Tilff  
Belgium



Part of the cover of a 1937 servicing manual for 'Synchrovox' receivers.

In his letter 'Who invented the synchrodyne' in the February issue, George Short suggests that homodyne and synchrodyne can be used synonymously. However it appears to be general practice now for many years to use the term synchrodyne to describe a direct conversion receiver in which a local tuned oscillator is used to select and demodulate the required signal.

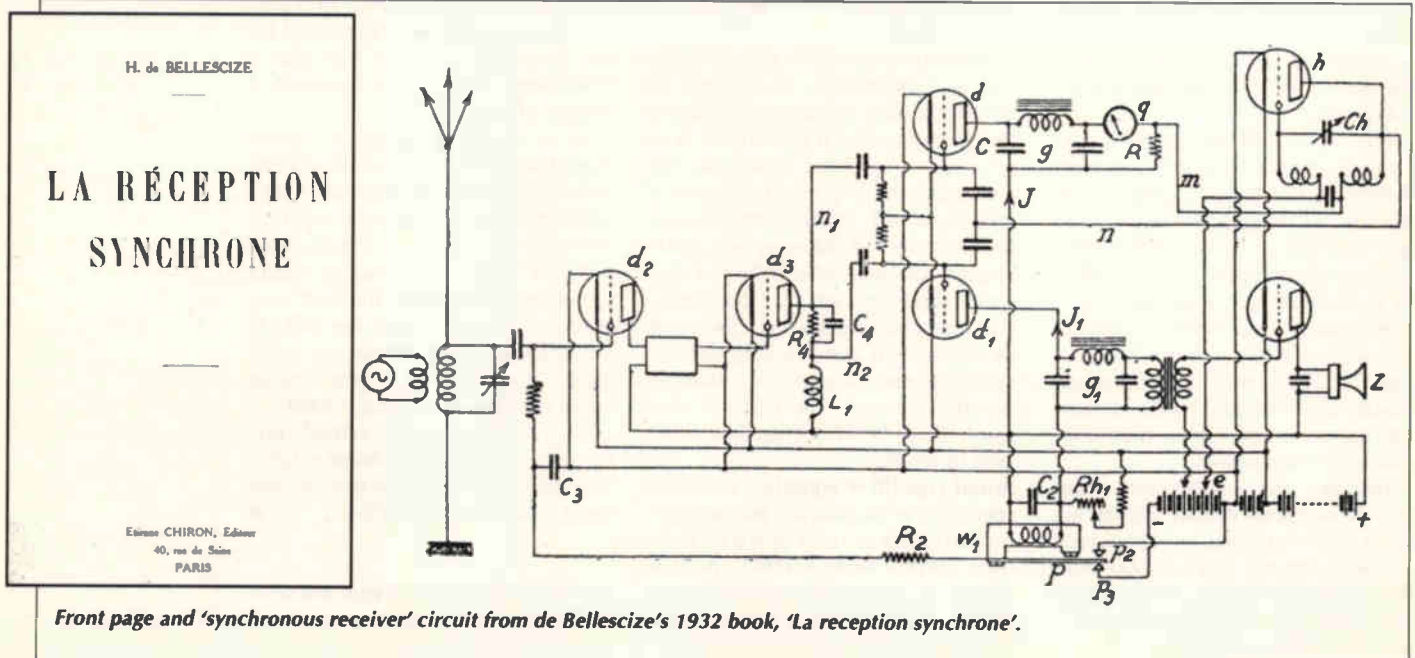
The term homodyne is nowadays used to describe a direct conversion receiver in

which the incoming signal is selected by a tuneable filter and separated and mixed with itself to give the desired demodulation.

While I do not have immediate access to the original papers by Tucker, my impression was always that he differentiated between the meanings of these two terms.

See my article in *Electronics World*, November 1998.

**Michael Slifkin**  
Jerusalem College of  
Technology



Front page and 'synchronous receiver' circuit from de Bellescize's 1932 book, 'La reception synchrone'.



## Long-life lights

I was interested to read of radio sets using a capacitor as a lossless voltage dropper. During and after the war, it was customary to leave a light burning in a hallway, suggesting the occupants were there. I used a 60W lamp in

series with a 4MFD capacitor and that lasted until we left London.

Here in France, we do a similar trick to give a little light in a small lobby. Full light, when needed, is done by shorting the 4MFD capacitor. This combination is still going

after 24 years of continuous use.

The trick gives the lamp filament an easy time. Switching to full light avoids the huge starting current pulse.

I tried the same thing with a flash-lamp bulb and 2MFD as a permanent pilot light. This

worked perfectly until the first thunderstorm.

Another trick I have used is to put a silicon rectifier in series with the load – which has to be resistive of course.

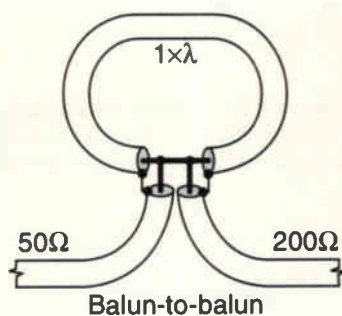
**Ralph L West**  
Devillac  
France

## Co-axial-cable transformers

There are some flaws in Chris Hancock's article in the January issue.

It took me some time to realise that the unbalanced feedpoint to the baluns was supposed to be on the end of the  $\lambda/2$  line-sections.

It then became clear that the connection of balun-to-balun is useless, as can be seen in the redraw below.



*It then became clear that the connection of balun-to-balun is useless...*

The  $1 \times \lambda$  section feeds itself via its own output and is therefore of no importance or use. There remains solely the connection of a 50Ω cable to a 200Ω cable, what is a greatly unmatched condition.

Figures 4 and 6 also give for one and the same point two different voltages, a thing that never is seen.

The problem of figure 6 can be solved with just one  $\lambda/2$  balun which transforms the 50Ω generator and feed cable to the 200Ω impedance of the load.

Chris should also have pointed out that in a (cable) balun the characteristic impedance of the  $\lambda/2$  piece is immaterial.

**Peter Rook**  
Apeldoorn  
Holland.

### Chris replies

Peter's comments are very useful and I thank him. Referring to Figs 4 and 6, I should have shown a break between the start of the first  $\lambda/2$  section and the end of the second  $\lambda/2$  section, then used a  $\lambda/4$  transformer (simplest) or a  $\lambda/2$  coupler to combine the two signals before subsequent launch into the third  $\lambda/2$  transformer to provide the balanced

condition and further voltage/ impedance multiplication.

I was interested to read Dr Hancock's article 'Transformers from Coax' in the January issue.

Perhaps I missed it, but I didn't see what the optimum tapping point on the half-wave line was. Clearly it is not at the 50% point, as this would not phase split as required. By symmetry we can say that it must be from 0% to 50%.

Simulations suggest that tapping at less than 20% from any end is necessary to minimise the attenuation.

It is then interesting to note that the line can be tapped at 0% and this achieves the same result. A half wave line phase inverts the signal as required. Thus it seems that there is no need to tap the line at all, since this is a difficult task – as stated in the article.

Is there some deeper significance to tapping the line?

**Leslie Green CEng MIEE**,  
Senior Principal Engineer  
Gould Nicolet Technologies,  
Via e-mail

### Chris replies

Thank you to Mr Green for the comments regarding the position of interconnect to the  $\lambda/2$  line. In my experiments I merely connected the unbalanced feed line as close as physically possible to the start of the  $\lambda/2$  section. Apologies if my comments on tapping the line at 0% were misleading.

Referring to the article 'Transformers from coax', why was the task so complicated? Take for instance the problem of Fig. 5. Here a load of 12.8kΩ has to be transformed to a source of 50Ω or *vice versa*.

A far simpler solution using less hardware, and thus with less loss, is to use three-quarter wave transformer sections resp.  $Z_0 = 100, 400, \text{ and } 1600\Omega$  transforming from 50Ω to 3200Ω and then using a  $\times 4$  balun to arrive at the proposed 12800Ω balanced load.

In my opinion the drawings of the baluns as depicted in the article are misleading in so far that neither the impedance nor the length of the pieces of coaxial cable beyond the connection point of the input coaxial part and the load are mentioned.

In the simple solution for transforming 50

to 200Ω, the characteristic impedance of the stubs between the 50Ω balun and the load should be 100Ω. If no lengths of coaxial cable are inserted between the load and the balun, putting in series two baluns is the same as using a re-entrant loop of twice half a wave – in other words inserting nothing.

A far better and easier means of transforming different impedances, while obtaining better broad-band operation, can be found in the literature concerning Thebychev impedance matching. (*cfr. Mathei et al*) Do not reinvent the wheel.

**A A De Gryse**  
Overijse  
Belgium

### Chris replies

I agree with your comments that the transformers could in fact be made using multiple  $\lambda/4$  sections, which would be in principle be simpler than using  $\lambda/2$  sections. Although, as you pointed out, a balun is still required at the output to achieve balanced conditions, which may make the structure equally complex. Referring to Fig. 5, this was included solely for illustration purposes and did indicate that it would be totally impractical due to the dimensions required for the 3.2kΩ and 6.4kΩ sections. I apologise if the figure is misleading, but hope that you would not attempt to build such an arrangement. Referring to Fig. 6, I agree with the comments made. I have indeed shown that the output at the end of the second balun is in phase with the input, though in practice this arrangement appeared to provide better isolation to currents flowing back along the outer sheath of the co-axial cable. This investigation could possibly be taken further to prove or disprove this. I thank you for pointing out literature on broadband impedance matching and I have looked at Chebyshev  $\lambda/4$  transformers and the Chebyshev tapered transmission line. These do not provide the balanced condition required, but are interesting in as much as they reduce discontinuities between sections and increase in bandwidth. A very good reference book for understanding the operation is by Robert E Collin and is called 'Foundations for Microwave Engineering' (ISBN 0-07-112569-8).

**Auto-intermodulation**

During a study of power amplifier designs I reverted to Dr Ed Cherry's article 'Ironing out distortion' in the July 1997 issue of *EW*. In the article Dr Cherry points out a specific distortion mechanism – auto-intermodulation – in the input differential stage of the standard common-collector output power amplifier configuration.

A question to Dr Cherry: would one way to reduce this auto intermodulation be to use overall shunt voltage feedback instead of the standard overall serial voltage feedback? The output from the differential stage then has to be taken from the second semiconductor of the input pair.

This approach was used in the JC-3 Power Amplifier designed by John Curl during the 1970s.

Another feature of this configuration is that the capacitance of the input semiconductor does not suffer from the Miller effect, which is useful, when using FETs as input devices. Are there any specific drawbacks of this

approach, as it never became popular?

Dr Cherry is an advocate of the common-emitter output stage. Could he possibly publish one of his designs suitable for home constructors?

**Clas Wanning**  
Sao Paulo  
Brazil

**CAD for Linux**

Many thanks to the readers who wrote in with their lists of Linux CAD programs in response to my editorial in the February issue.

When I wrote the editorial I was thinking of the established Windows programs and the Windows-oriented CAD firms that are studiously ignoring the presence of Linux. Fortunately, there are signs of movement here, with Corel very recently entering the fray with its easy-to-use version of the Linux o/s and more specifically the Eagle schematic capture and PCB drawing program, available in both Windows and Linux format. This package has a good

quality autorouter and is worth attention

By the way, Eagle was omitted from the pcb-cad reviews because there is no UK agent selling it. There are agents in

Norway and Singapore, but not here. But in this situation I think a review is called for despite this.

**Simon Wright**  
Via e-mail

**Adaptable active speaker**

Regarding my loudspeaker design article in the February issue, there was a slight error.

In Fig. 2a), resistance  $R_3$ , marked 220Ω should be 220kΩ. The effect of this fault is that the amplifier switches in immediately. There is no danger to the amplifier, but it is the intention of this RC circuit to delay switch-in.

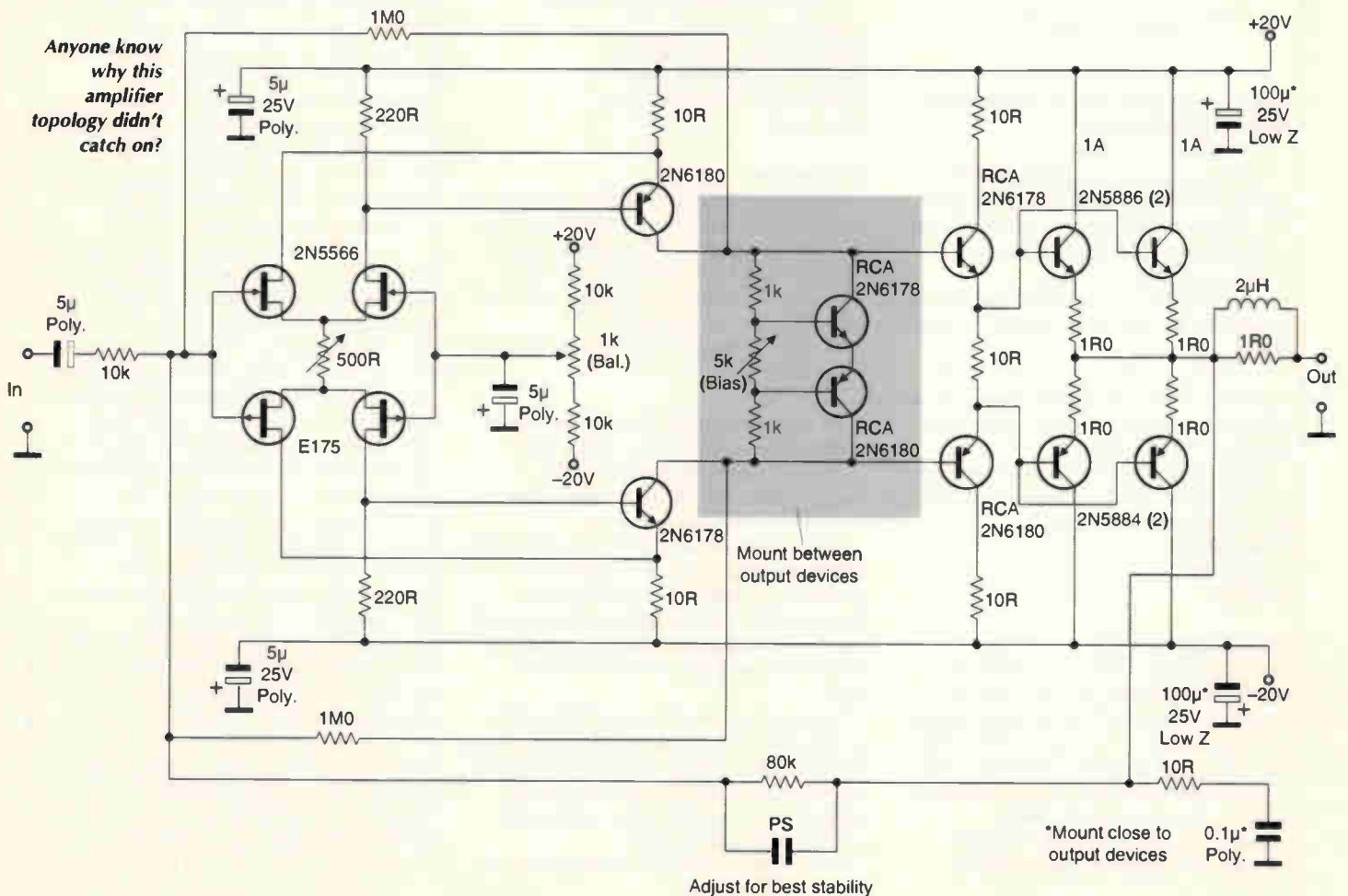
**Christof Heinzerling**  
Heiligenhaus  
Germany

**Styropor spheres**

Regarding Christof Heinzerling's article on loudspeaker design in the February 2000 do you have any idea where to get the 'Styropor' kits he mentions? I've tried one or two sources and they've never heard of anything like it and the web isn't coming up with anything either.

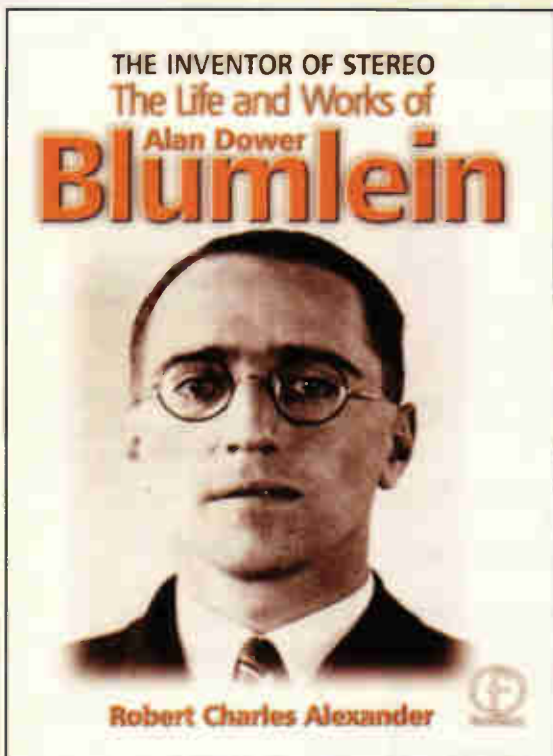
**Rob Graham**  
Via e-mail

I believe that Styropor is a trade name for expanded Polystyrene. Focus Superstores and no doubt other craft and DIY outlets stock 20, 16, 8 and 4cm spheres of expanded Polystyrene. Rings to sit them on are also available – Ed.





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**T**his book is the definitive study of the life and works of one of Britain's most important inventors who, due to a cruel set of circumstances, has all but been overlooked by history.

Alan Dower Blumlein led an extraordinary life in which his inventive output rate easily surpassed that of Edison, but whose early death during the darkest days of World War Two led to a shroud of secrecy which has covered his life and achievements ever since.

His 1931 Patent for a Binaural Recording System was so revolutionary that most of his contemporaries regarded it as more than 20 years ahead of its time. Even years after his death, the full magnitude of its detail had not been fully utilized. Among his 128 patents are the principal electronic circuits critical to the development of the world's first electronic television system. During his short working life, Blumlein produced patent after patent breaking entirely new ground in electronic and audio engineering.

During the Second World War, Alan Blumlein was deeply engaged in the very secret work of radar development and contributed enormously to the system eventually to become 'H2S' - blind-bombing radar. Tragically, during an experimental H2S flight in June 1942, the Halifax bomber in which Blumlein and several colleagues were flying, crashed and all aboard were killed. He was just days short of his thirty-ninth birthday.

For many years there have been rumours about a biography of Alan Blumlein, yet none has been forthcoming. This is the world's first study of a man whose achievements should rank among those of the greatest Britain has produced. This book provides detailed knowledge of every one of his patents and the process behind them, while giving an in-depth study of the life and times of this quite extraordinary man.

## Contents

Earliest days  
Telegraphy and telephony  
The audio patents  
Television  
EMI and the Television Commission  
The high- definition television period  
From television to radar  
The story of radar development  
H2S - The coming of centimetric radar  
The loss of Halifax V9977  
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To Goodrich Castle and beyond

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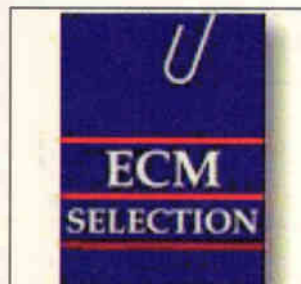
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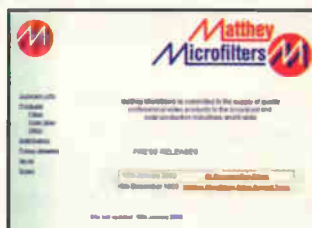
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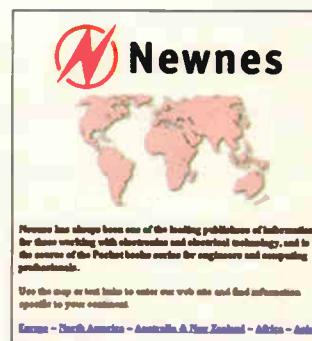


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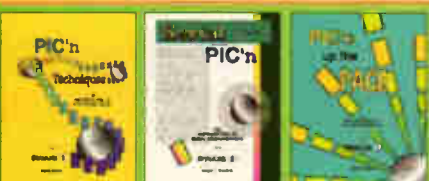


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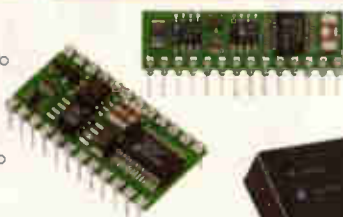


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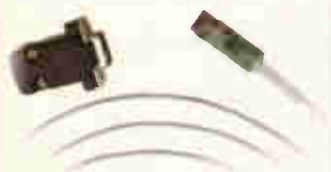


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**Paul Farnese**  
describes how to  
put together a low-  
thd seven-band  
graphic equaliser  
using the LA3607  
from Sanyo.

# Seven-band graphic equaliser

The LA3607 is a seven-band, single channel graphic equaliser housed in a 20-pin dil package. It incorporates selective capacitive/resistive filtering to achieve the desired range of boost and cut.

Frequency range and amount of boost and cut is configurable by the user. The chip's ability to be connected in series enables greater selectivity to be achieved.

Low audio distortion makes it suitable for a wide range of audio applications and the device's low price means that it can add value to a product with little increase in overall price.

Component selection is not difficult, but tends to yield non-standard values as a matter of course. The values shown in the application circuit give seven bands centred

on 60Hz, 150Hz, 400Hz, 1kHz, 2.5kHz, 6kHz and 15kHz.

As with most things in life, some compromise is called for. In this case, as always, a decision must be made regarding the cost of non-standard components versus performance trade-off.

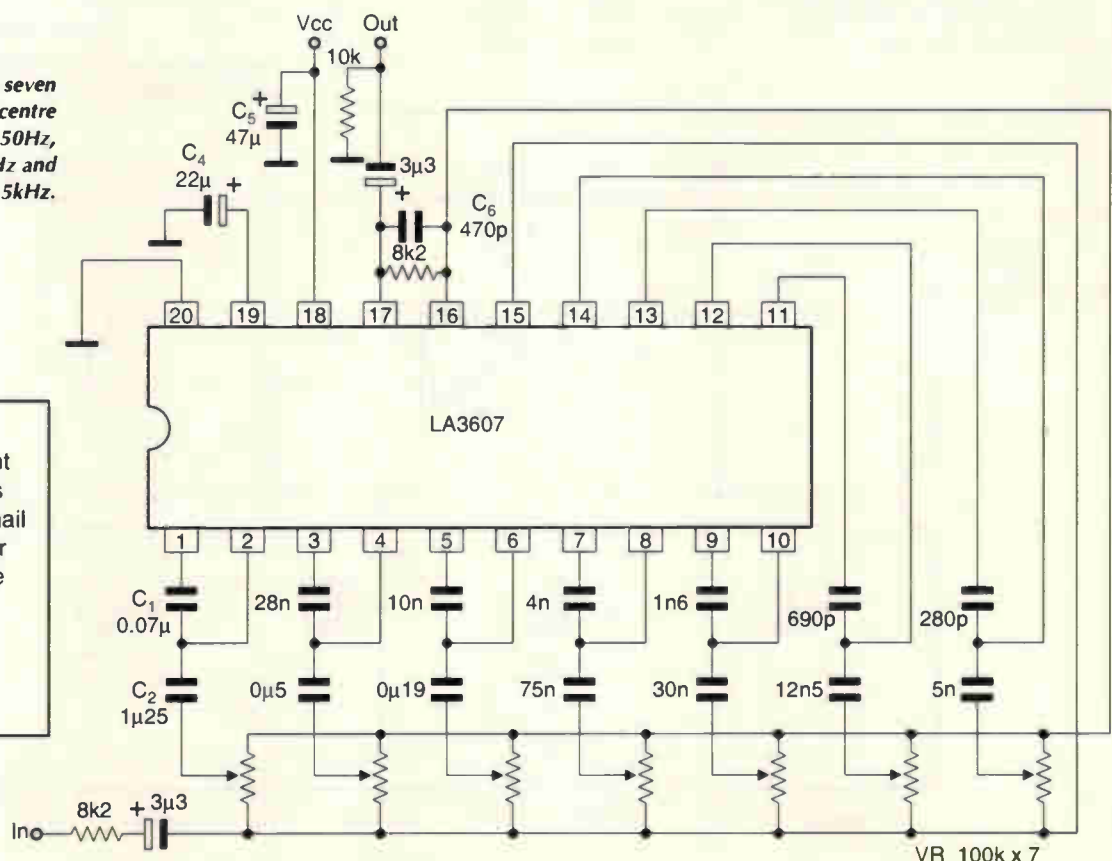
Two formulae are used to calculate component values.

$$Q = \frac{C_1 R_2}{\sqrt{R_1 C_2}} \quad (1)$$

$$f_n = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{C_1 C_2 R_1 R_2}} \quad (2)$$

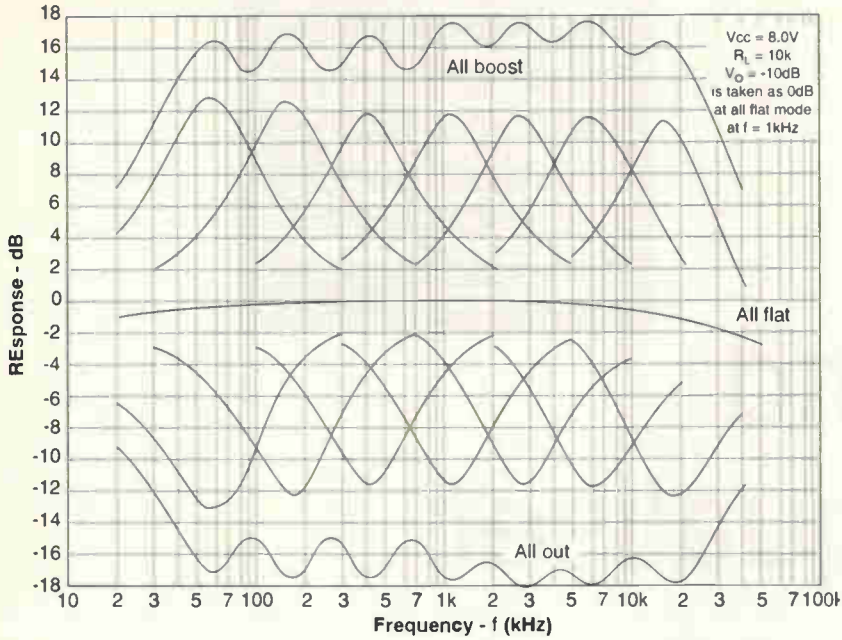
Where  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are internal values of 1.2k $\Omega$  and 68k $\Omega$

*Application circuit for a seven band equaliser with centre frequencies of 60Hz, 150Hz, 400Hz, 1kHz, 2.5kHz, 6kHz and 15kHz.*

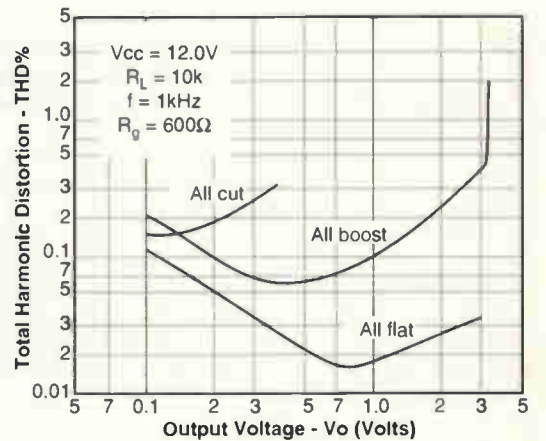
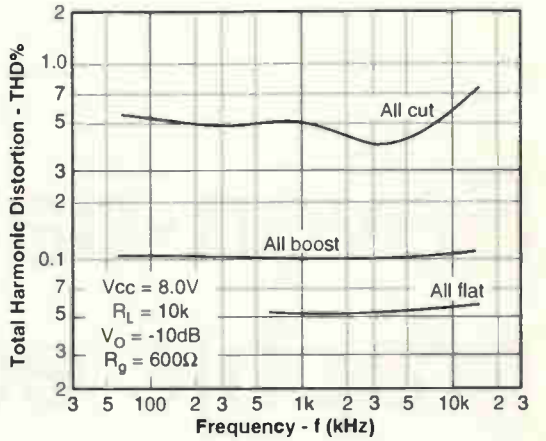


## Technical support

Specialist audio component supplier Profusion supplies the LA3607 in the UK. E-mail sales@profusionplc.com or fax 01702 543700 for more details. A data sheet can be downloaded from [www.profusionplc.com](http://www.profusionplc.com)



Boost and cut curves for each channel of the application circuit together with flat and boost/cut curves for all channels combined.



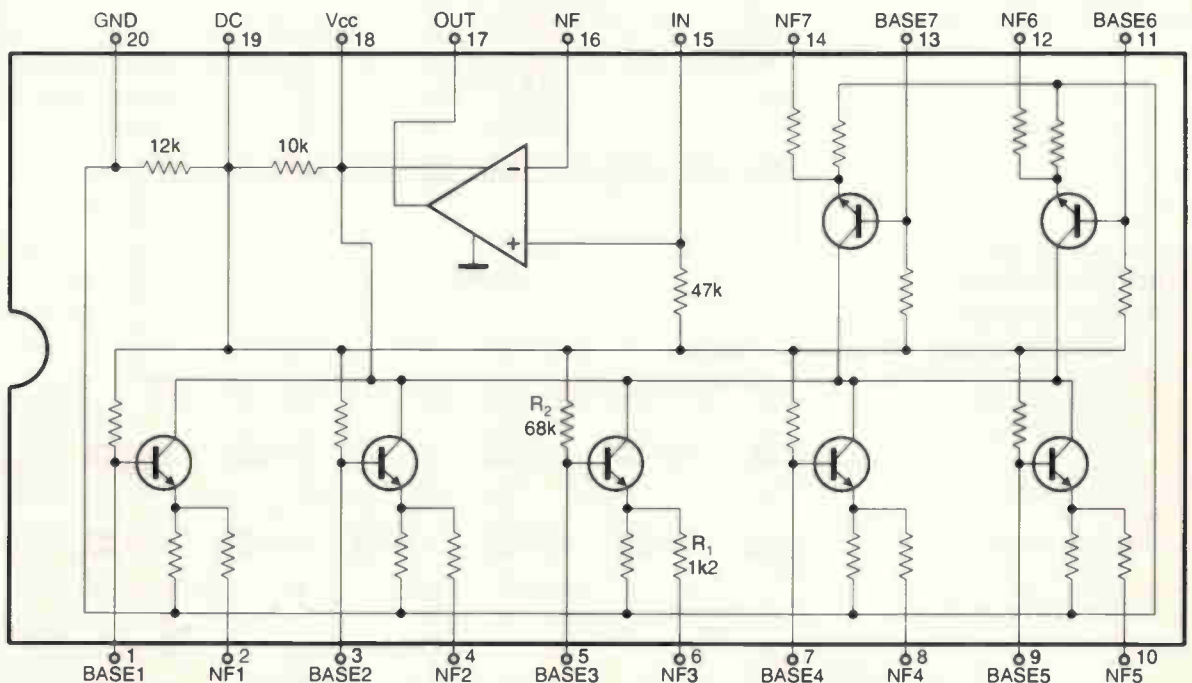
Distortion curves versus frequency, top and versus output voltage at 1kHz, bottom

**Technical specifications**

Recommended supply voltage, 8V  
 Operating voltage range, 5 to 15V  
 Max. power dissipation, 300mW

|                                       | Min   | Typ   | Max    |
|---------------------------------------|-------|-------|--------|
| Boost gain relative to flat mode      | 10dB  | 12dB  | 14dB   |
| Cut attenuation relative to flat mode | -14dB | -12dB | -10dB  |
| Total harmonic distortion             |       | 0.02% | 01%    |
| Output noise input s/c. All flat mode |       | 7.0µV | 40µV   |
| Voltage gain relative to flat mode    | 6.2dB | 9.2dB | 12.2dB |
| Quiescent current at 8V               |       | 7mA   | 9mA    |

Internals of the LA3607 graphic equaliser chip.





respectively. Two things to bear in mind when calculating values are,

- Avoid using electrolytic capacitors. This will then give a starting point in the calculations for the maximum value of  $C_2$ , which will be in the order of  $1\mu\text{F}$  and by definition, the lowest centre frequency.
- Aim to make the 'Q' of the selective CR networks between 1.5 and 2.0. This value is chosen on the basis of the manufacturer's recommendation for best overall performance.

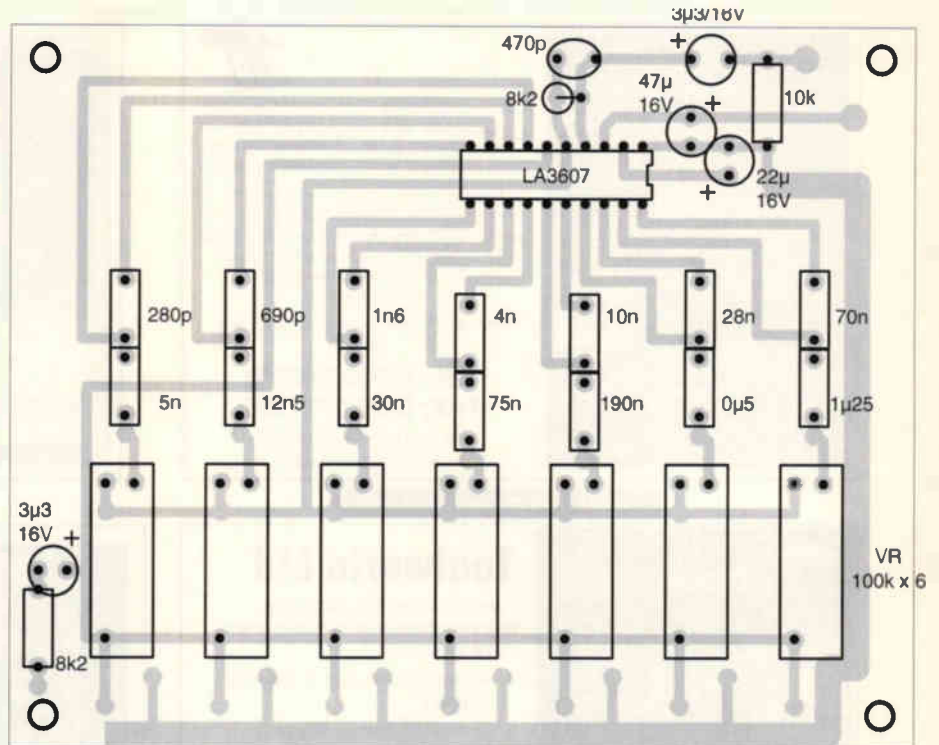
**Working out the values**

- 1) Assume  $C_2$  to be  $1\mu\text{F}$ . Using equation 1 and a value for 'Q' of 2, calculate the value of  $C_1$ .
- 2) Substitute the values of  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  into equation 2 and calculate  $f_o$ .
- 3) Recalculate  $C_1$  by the simplified method, if the value of  $f_o$  obtained above is not accurate enough.

$$C_{1(new)} = \frac{f_o}{f_{o(new)}} C_{1(old)} \quad (3)$$

- 4) Re-check the new value of Q to ensure it is still within limits.

You can calculate other values of  $C_1$  for different  $f_o$  frequencies using equation 3. The ratio of  $C_1$  to  $C_2$  for all  $f_o$  values is the same, and hence the calculation of new values of  $C_2$  is quite straight forward. ■



■ Suggested board layout for a seven-band equaliser.

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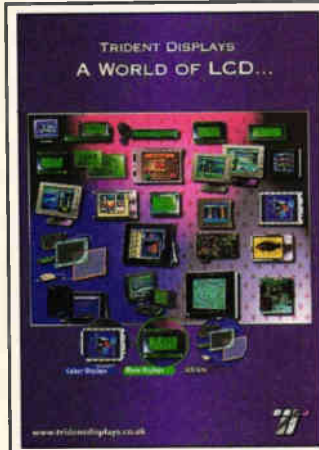
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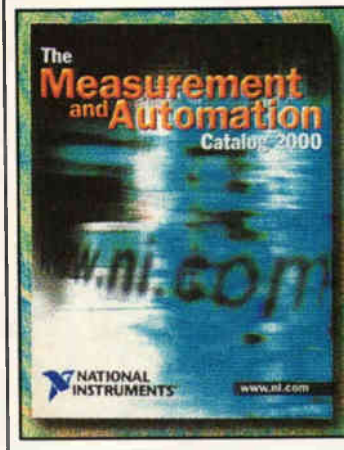
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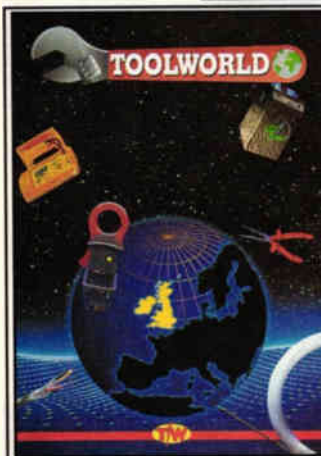
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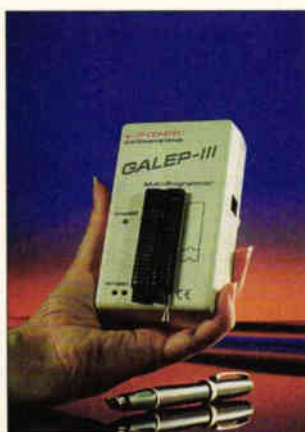
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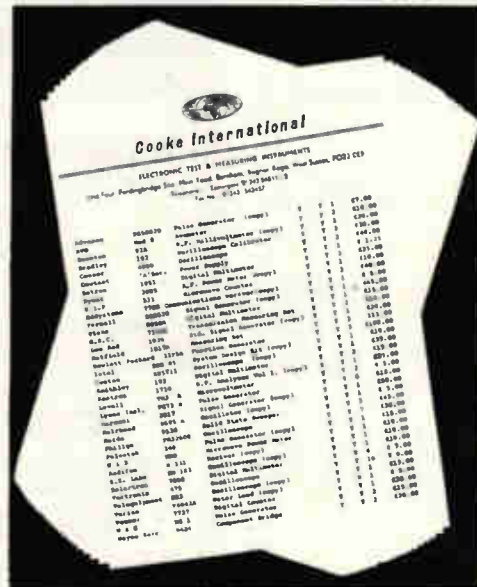
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| Model Name/Number          | WR-1000  | WR-1500   | WR-3100   |
|----------------------------|--|---|---|
| Construction of internals  | WR-1000i/WR-1500i-3100iDSP- Internal full length ISA cards   |   |   |
| Construction of externals  | WR-1000e/WR-1500e - 3100e - external RS232/PCMCIA (optional) |   |   |
| Frequency range            | 0.5-1300 MHz   | 0.15-1500 MHz   | 0.15-1500 MHz   |
| Modes                      | AM,SSB/CW,FM-N,FM-W  | AM,LSB,USB,CW,FM-N,FM-W                                   | AM,LSB,USB,CW,FM-N,FM-W                                   |
| Tuning step size           | 100 Hz (5 Hz BFO)  | 100 Hz (1 Hz for SSB and CW)                              | 100 Hz (1 Hz for SSB and CW)                              |
| IF bandwidths              | 6 kHz (AM/SSB),<br>17 kHz (FM-N), 230 kHz (W)                | 2.5 kHz(SSB/CW), 9 kHz (AM)<br>17 kHz (FM-N), 230 kHz (W) | 2.5 kHz(SSB/CW), 9 kHz (AM)<br>17 kHz (FM-N), 230 kHz (W) |
| Receiver type              | PLL-based triple-conv. superhet                              |   |   |
| Scanning speed             | 10 ch/sec (AM), 50 ch/sec (FM)                               |   |   |
| Audio output on card       | 200mW  | 200mW   | 200mW   |
| Max on one motherboard     | 8 cards  | 8 cards   | 3-8 cards (pse ask)                                       |
| Dynamic range              | 65 dB  | 65 dB   | 85dB  |
| IF shift (passband tuning) | no   | ±2 kHz  | ±2 kHz  |
| DSP in hardware            | no - use optional DS software                                |   | YES (ISA card ONLY)                                       |
| IRQ required               | no   | no  | yes (for ISA card)  |
| Spectrum Scope             | yes  | yes   | yes   |
| Visitone                   | yes  | yes   | yes   |
| Published software API     | yes  | yes   | yes (also DSP)  |
| Internal ISA cards         | £299 inc vat   | £369 inc vat  | £1169.13 inc  |
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