

Build a Single-Shot Recorder to Catch Fast Transients

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Capturing fast transients places special requirements on filters, track/hold amplifiers, and A/D converters. By using an A/D converter with a high input bandwidth and oversampling at a 10:1 ratio, you can digitize and then analyze transients without using an expensive analog or digital storage scope.

Don't tie up expensive equipment trying to capture transients that occur infrequently. If you build a low-cost transient recorder or event sampler, you can dedicate it to capturing single-shot events. Typical applications for transient recorders include monitoring power-lines transients, evaluating power supplies, and capturing pressure and vacuum-line transients in medical equipment.

To build a transient recorder or burst-mode event sampler, you need a high-speed A/D converter, a wide-band track/hold amplifier, and an antialiasing filter. The A/D converter must have a sampling rate of at least twice the bandwidth to satisfy the Nyquist criterion. In practice, you should oversample the input signal. At $2\times$ oversampling (a sampling frequency of

twice the input bandwidth), you'll need to use a filter with an infinite roll-off rate to avoid aliasing effects. At $3\times$ oversampling, the roll-off requirement drops to 50 dB/octave in an 8-bit system. With an oversampling ratio of 10:1, the filter roll-off need be only about 16 dB/octave. (See box, "Oversampling reduces antialiasing requirements.")

High-speed sampling A/D converter chips routinely include track/hold amplifiers on the same chip. The AD7821 is an example of this trend. It combines a 100-kHz track/hold amplifier with a 1M-sample/sec 8-bit A/D converter. Because the A/D conversion rate is 10 times the input bandwidth, you don't have to design a complex antialiasing filter. In fact, if the input signal exhibits only a low-power spectral content at and above 500 kHz, you can eliminate the filter altogether.

The AD7821 uses a half-flash conversion technique to perform an 8-bit conversion in 660 nsec. A requirement of a 350-nsec signal-acquisition period between conversions results in a maximum acquisition rate of 1M samples/sec. You can operate the A/D converter with a single or dual supply for either unipolar or bipolar inputs.

Capture single-shot waveforms

One of the difficulties in capturing single-shot events is the speed at which the transient recorder circuit responds once the input signal has crossed a predetermined trigger point. If the recorder circuit responds too slowly, it can miss fast transients altogether.

To build a transient recorder or burst-mode event sampler you need a high-speed A/D converter, a wideband track/hold amplifier, and an antialiasing filter.

Therefore, to accurately capture fast events, you need a high-speed A/D converter and a wide-bandwidth track/hold amplifier. For example, an 8-bit A/D converter that has a 1- μ sec conversion time can capture 1- μ sec transients only if it's not preceded by a track/hold amplifier. If you match this A/D converter with a track/hold amplifier that has a 100-kHz bandwidth, the ADC can recover 6- μ sec-wide 5V transients.

To simplify fault detection or take corrective measures, you need a transient recorder that can grab pretransient information. You can use this pretransient data to learn timing relationships between the tran-

sient and another waveform. Additionally, your recorder should be able to react to both positive and negative transients.

Another important criterion for transient recorders is cost. Although you could use a digital storage oscilloscope (DSO) to capture frequently occurring or very fast transients, dedicating a DSO to capturing random events would be an expensive proposition.

Transient recorder

A block diagram of a transient recorder (Fig 1) shows the minimum hardware you'll need to build a high-speed transient recorder with playback. For sim-

Oversampling reduces antialiasing requirements

In the spectrum of a periodically sampled waveform, the spectrum of the (unsampled) input-signal repeats around harmonics of the sampling frequency. Any frequency contained in the input signal is repeated above and below each harmonic of the sampling frequency. Therefore, in the spectrum of the sampled signal, the band between 0 and f_{IN} (the input spectrum), appears—among other places—between $f_s - f_{IN}$ and f_s , where f_s is the sampling frequency. Though you may be under the impression that the input-signal bandwidth is 100 kHz, if the sampling frequency is 1M sample/sec, a signal at 991 kHz in the input spectrum would appear as a 9-kHz "alias" component in the sampled signal's spectrum.

The purpose of an antialiasing filter is to remove or at least attenuate any noise or spurious signals that could be aliased back into the bandwidth of interest.

Fig A shows the frequency response of an antialiasing filter for a generalized A/D converter. You determine the filter roll-off by

drawing a straight line between the highest signal frequency of interest, f_{IN} , and the stopband attenuation frequency, $f_s - f_{IN}$. As the ratio of f_s to f_{IN} increases (that is, as the oversampling ratio increases) the slope of the line decreases.

In an 8-bit system, an ideal

ADC's signal-to-noise ratio (S/N) is slightly greater than 256:1 or 48 dB. To avoid having noise limit the system performance, the ratio of the input signal to noise should exceed the approximately 48-dB limit imposed by the ADC. Here, the signal is the peak-to-peak value of the signal within

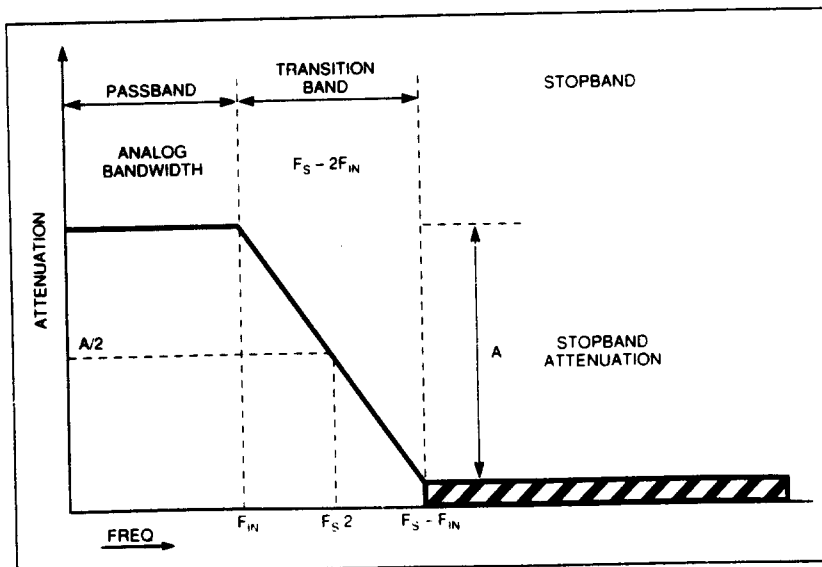


Fig A—The antialiasing filter that precedes the transient recorder's ADC can be simple or complex depending on the degree of oversampling. When the sampling frequency is 10× the highest frequency of interest, the filter has 3 octaves to roll in its attenuation. A simple 3-pole filter has 18 dB/octave roll-off. An 8-bit ADC needs slightly more than 48 dB of attenuation. Hence, a 3-pole filter is usually sufficient for 8-bit resolution.

plicity, the design uses a clock with an even mark/space ratio. The clock's 50% duty cycle limits the acquisition rate to 660k samples/sec rather than the A/D converter's 1-M sample/sec maximum rate. (This simplification reduces the oversampling ratio to 6.6:1.) A memory chip stores the digitized data for later playback on an X-Y plotter or oscilloscope via a dual 12-bit D/A converter and a quad op-amp. One half of the samples are pretransient information; the other half are transient data.

A more detailed schematic (Fig 2) shows that two counters, IC₁ and IC₂, control where the circuit stores pretransient and transient data. The counters also

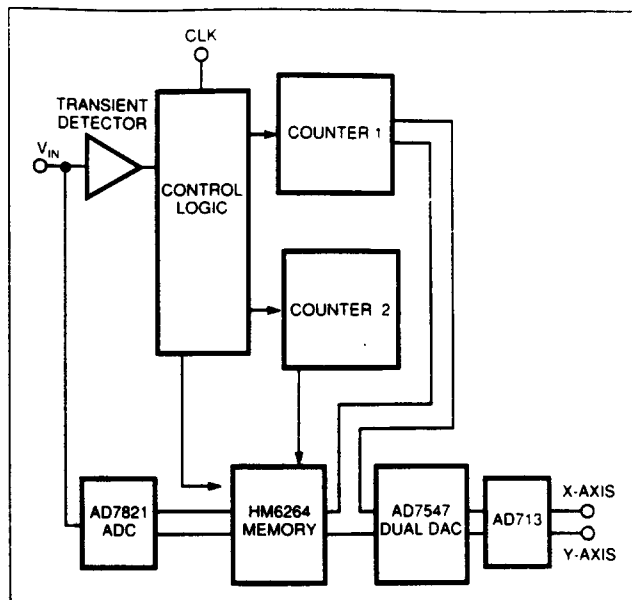


Fig 1—If you think of a transient recorder as merely an ADC, look again. This recorder contains several purely digital blocks as well as the DAC that drives the display.

the band of interest, and the noise is the square root of the sum of the squares of the amplitudes of all of the frequency components outside that band. The attenuation required on signals outside the band of interest depends on the application and the expected magnitude of the out-of-band signals. In most cases, the magnitude of these signals is much lower than that of the desired signal.

Usually, 8-bit systems require 50 dB of attenuation for signals that can be aliased into the band of interest. Even if 50 dB is not the desired number, the following calculations show the kind of reduction in antialiasing filter requirements brought about by oversampling. With $2 \times$ oversampling, (that is with $f_s = 2 \cdot f_{IN}$), f_s and f_{IN} are at the same point and the filter has to have infinite roll-off to attenuate signals at $f_s - f_{IN}$. With $f_s = 3 \cdot f_{IN}$ ($3 \times$ oversampling), the filter's attenuation must drop 0 dB at f_{IN} to 50 dB at $2 \cdot f_{IN}$. In other words, the slope of the attenuation vs frequency curve must be 50 dB/

octave; the filter (if it has a Butterworth characteristic) must have more than eight poles.

With $10 \times$ oversampling, there are three octaves for the attenuation to drop from 0 to 50 dB. The required slope is a little more than 16 dB/octave; a 3-pole Butterworth filter will do the job.

The above analysis of the antialiasing filter holds true regardless of the type of ADC that follows the filter. No matter what the conversion technique, oversampling reduces the antialiasing filter requirements. Oversampling also reduces the ADC noise within the signal bandwidth because it spreads the quantization noise over a wider bandwidth. Oversampling has recently gained considerable popularity in connection with sigma-delta ADCs. In the case of these converters, the advantages of oversampling are much greater than with successive-approximation or flash ADCs because noise shaping produces dramatic improvements in noise performance as the oversampling ratio increases.

The relationship between an-

tialiasing-filter performance and oversampling is, however, exactly the same for an oversampled sigma-delta modulator as for a half-flash or a successive-approximation ADC. A sigma-delta ADC and a half-flash ADC with the same oversampling ratio place the same requirements on the antialiasing filter.

The disadvantage of the sigma-delta process for transient recording is the pipelining or averaging technique inherent in sigma-delta converters. Because of the pipelining, a step change requires a significant time (the settling time of the ADC's digital filter) to ripple through to the output. Therefore, there is a delay before a sigma-delta converter produces an output that represents an input change. Between the time the input changes and the sigma-delta converter's output reflects the change, the ADC's output does not accurately represent the converter's input. Such performance is not appropriate for transient recorders of the type discussed here.

clock out data to either the oscilloscope or the X-Y plotter. You can use the fast clock input, CLK IN₁, for the clock source when you're using the circuit in the record mode or displaying stored data on an oscilloscope. The design also provides a slower clock input, CLK IN₂, to print data on an X-Y plotter.

placing switch S_1 in the record position. (IC_{18A} and IC_{18B} provide debouncing for this switch.) Having the **MODE** output of IC_{13D} low makes one input of both IC_{15D} and IC_{14D} low. Hence the clock inputs of IC_{9A} and IC_{9B} (pins 10 and 2, respectively) are disabled, ensuring that the $1\bar{Q}$ and $2\bar{Q}$ outputs of IC_{9A} and IC_{9B} are high. Besides disabling the chip-select inputs of the D/A converter, \overline{CSA} and \overline{CSB} , the circuit disables the output-



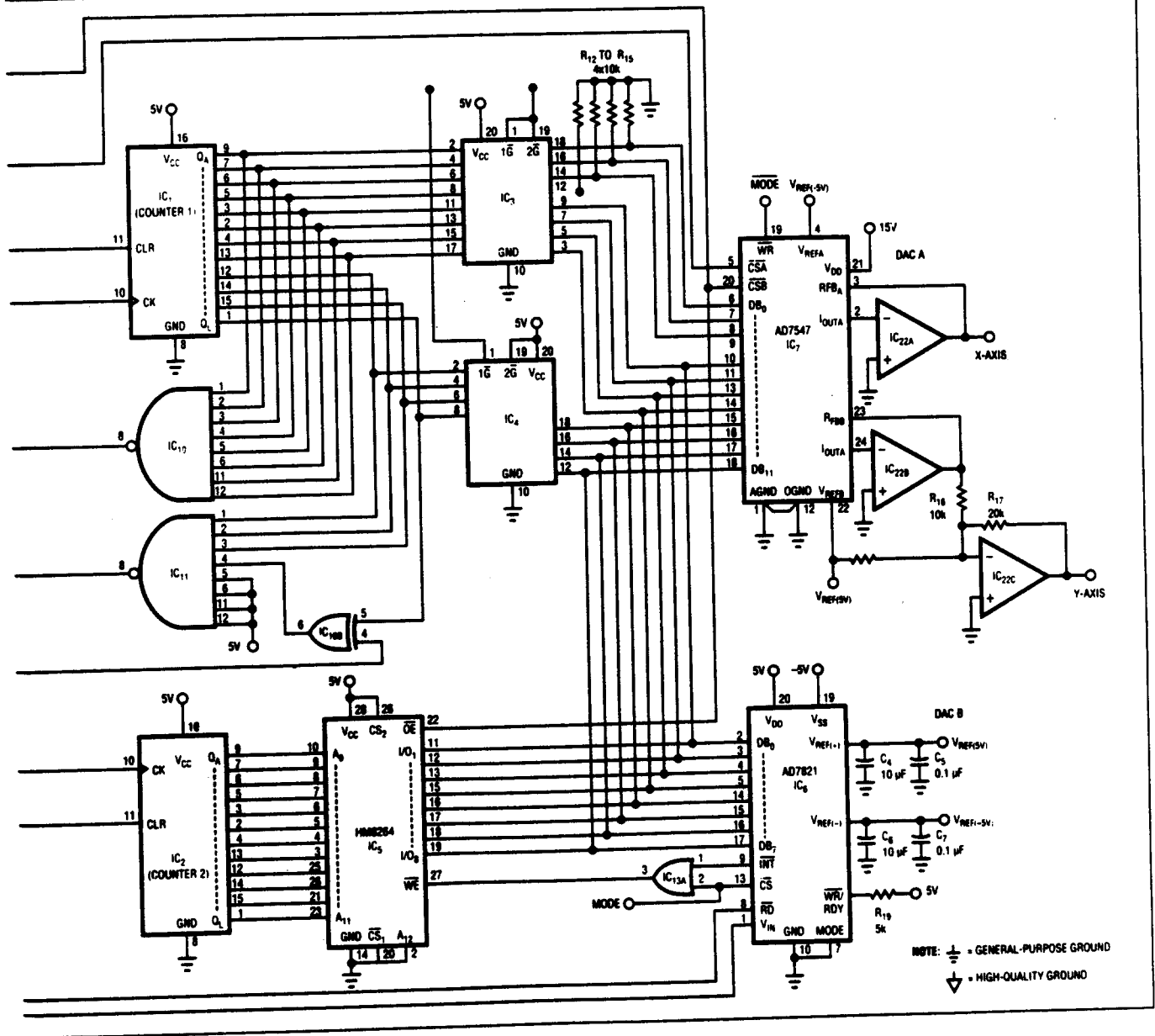
enable signals of IC₃, IC₄, and IC₅ (the HM6264 memory chip), ensuring that the playback portion of the transient recorder is turned off.

CLK IN₁ serves as the clock source for the counters via IC_{14C}, IC_{13B}, IC_{15B}, and IC_{15C}. While the MODE signal is low, CLK is the clock input for both counters and provides the \overline{RD} (convert) signal for the A/D converter, IC₆. At the same time, IC₆'s \overline{CS} input is active,

ensuring that the device is selected. After a reset from S₂ initializes the circuit, counter 2 begins counting. IC₁₇ and IC_{23B} hold the reset (CLR) input of counter 1 high from power-up and keep counter 1 in a reset condition until the circuit detects a transient.

You configure the A/D converter by tying its MODE input (pin 7) to GND. (Note that the MODE pin of the AD7821 shown bears no relation to the signal labeled

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With an oversampling ratio of 10:1, the filter roll-off need be only about 16 dB/octave.

MODE in the circuit diagram.) When the CLK signal toggles its \overline{RD} input, the A/D converter executes continuous conversions of the input signal, V_{IN} . Counter 2 provides the memory addresses for the A/D conversion results. Data transfers from the digital outputs of IC₅ to IC₆ employ the \overline{INT} output of IC₅ to drive the \overline{WE} input of IC₆.

The circuit automatically loads the first conversion result after reset into location 0 of memory and the second result into location 1. After transferring the result of the 4096th conversion to memory location 4095, the counter resets and stores the next conversion result in location 0. The memory will therefore always contain the most recent 4096 samples of the input waveform.

Detect fast transients

You apply the input signal to V_{IN} . This terminal connects directly to two TL311 comparators and the analog input of the A/D converter. Comparator IC₁₉ detects positive transients, and IC₂₀ detects negative ones. To set the threshold level for a positive-going signal, adjust resistor R_5 ; adjust R_6 for negative-going transients. Wire the outputs of both comparators together to ensure that they produce a rising edge to the clock input of IC₈ when either a negative or a positive transient occurs.

Once the circuit detects a rising edge at pin 11 of IC₈, it illuminates an LED, D₁. At the same time, it releases counter 1 from its reset condition by taking RS₁ low. Now the circuit clocks both counter 1 and counter 2 as A/D conversions continue. Counter 2 counts up from the value it held before the transient was detected. The memory locations determined by the output of counter 2 store the transient data while overwriting the oldest 2048 samples of pretransient data already stored in memory. Counter 1 counts off the 2048 clock states that correspond with the samples.

Because the output of IC_{12B} is always high in the record mode, when counter 1 reaches 2047, all inputs to IC₁₀ and IC₁₁ are high and both IC's outputs go low. As a result, the output of IC_{12A} goes high, causing the output of IC_{14A} to go low via IC_{12A} and IC_{12B}. This DIS REC CLK signal gates off CLK IN₁ from the rest of the circuit at IC_{14B}. The output of IC_{13C} ensures that the CLK signal is held low, stopping both counters and the A/D converter.

At the end of the transient-record cycle, the memory will contain 4096 samples of the input waveform. One half of these samples are transient data, the other half

represent pretransient information. Whatever value is in counter 2 will be the last memory location for the transient data. The next memory location will hold the first of the 2048 words of pretransient data. Now when you start the playback mode, the first output from the counter will correspond to the memory location of the first pretransient sample. (To alter the ratio of transient to pretransient samples, simply alter the connections from counter 1 to IC₁₀ and IC₁₁.)

To accurately convert the input waveform to stored data, you must pay close attention to the circuit. Use a precision reference, IC₂₁, to generate 5V and -5V references for the V_{REF+} and V_{REF-} inputs of the A/D converter. Make sure that you properly decouple these reference voltages along with the V_{DD} and V_{SS} lines of the A/D converter. Connect IC₆'s GND pin to the star ground of the system (the point in the circuit at which you connect the analog and digital grounds). Make sure that the conductor between the A/D converter and the star ground is as wide as circuit-board layout constraints allow. Further, ensure that the \overline{WR}/RDY line is pulled high via R_{19} to avoid noise pickup on this pin.

Play back captured signals

Once you've captured that bothersome transient, you can play it back at any convenient time; the recorder will retain the information as long the power remains on, or until you depress the reset button. Select the playback mode with S₁. Playback takes the MODE signal low, activates the \overline{WR} input to IC₇, and deselects IC₆ by taking its \overline{CS} high. You can display the transient on either an analog oscilloscope or an X-Y plotter, depending on the position of S₂. Make sure to select the oscilloscope or the plotter before starting playback.

If you decide to display the transient on an oscilloscope, the clock source for the circuit is the same as in the record mode. If you use a plotter for playback, the clock frequency is much lower and is applied via the CLK IN₂ input. CLK (from either CLK IN₁ or CLK IN₂) passes through gates IC_{15D} and IC_{14D} because the MODE signal is high. IC_{9A} and IC_{9B} generate the \overline{CSA} and \overline{CSB} pulses for IC₇ from this CLK signal.

IC_{9A} drives the \overline{CSA} input of IC₇ as well as the enable signals for IC₃ and IC₄. When you choose the playback mode, counter 1 resets and starts counting from 0 to 4095. The counter's output is the digital input code to DAC A of IC₇. This DAC drives the X axis of either the oscilloscope or the plotter. DAC A produces

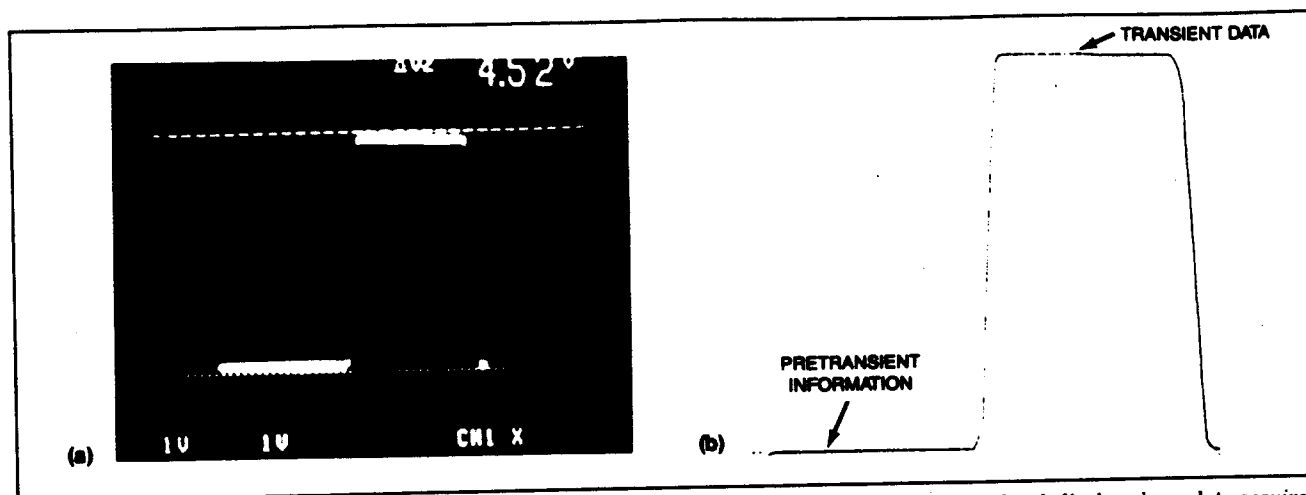


Fig 3—The recorder can display captured data on a scope, a, or on an X-Y pen plotter, b. The first half of each display shows data acquired before the triggering event.

a unipolar output range from 0 to 5V, with a resolution of 4096 steps.

The output of IC_{9B} drives the $\overline{\text{CSB}}$ input of IC₇ and also sets the logic level on IC₅'s output-enable line, $\overline{\text{OE}}$. This action latches the data from memory into DAC B, which drives the Y axis of the oscilloscope or plotter. By using dual supplies, you can set DAC B for a bipolar output range to reconstruct both positive and negative transients.

Counter 2 starts its count from the point at which it stopped at the end of the record mode; the first memory output word to IC₇ is the oldest sample in memory. The scan will then proceed through the 2048 samples of pretransient information and the 2048 samples of transient information. The output of each sample from memory to the Y axis, via DAC B, corresponds to the output of a count value from counter 1 to the X axis via DAC A. In this way, the circuit reconstructs the pretransient and transient waveforms.

For oscilloscope display of waveforms, place S₂ in the scope position. Doing so locks out CLK IN₂ from the rest of the circuit but allows CLK IN₁ to operate as clock signal for the circuit. Unlike the plotter display option, where counter 1 runs through once and then stops, CLK runs continuously. CNT FIN does go high when counter 1 reaches a count of 4095, but because the output of IC_{14C} is high, the DIS PLOT CLK signal does not go low. You can see the typical oscilloscope waveform display in Fig 3(a).

You display the stored waveform on an X-Y plotter by placing S₂ in the plotter position. Doing so locks

out the CLK IN₁ input from the rest of the circuit and permits CLK IN₂ to generate the clock signal for the circuit. IC_{16B}, IC₁₀, IC₁₁, and IC_{12A} function in a manner similar to the record mode to generate a high CNT FIN signal. But this time, IC₁₀ and IC₁₁ go low when counter 1 reaches a count of 4095. IC_{12A} goes low, and, because the output of IC_{14C} is already low, the DIS PLOT CLK signal goes low, turning off CLK IN₂ at IC_{18C} and holding the CLK signal high. Fig 3(b) shows a captured transient displayed using a plotter as the display method.

Record-mode timing and clock waveforms

The timing diagrams in Fig 4 show the logic relationships for the record mode. The MODE signal (not shown) is low and the DIS REC CLK signal is high. The RS₂ signal goes high when the recorder receives a reset command via S₂ resetting counter 2. The next falling edge of the CLK signal clocks out an address for IC₅ from counter 2. A conversion is also initiated on this falling CLK edge, and, within 700 nsec, the INT signal of IC₅ goes low, activating the $\overline{\text{WE}}$ input of IC₅. The rising edge of CLK resets the INT line 50 nsec later.

When the circuit detects a transient, the TRANS REC signal goes high, causing the RS₁ line to go low and releasing counter 1 from its reset state. The next falling edge of CLK clocks out the outputs from counter 1. When the count output from counter 1 reaches 2047, the CNT FIN signal goes high and causes the DIS REC CLK signal to go low, shutting off the CLK signal.

To accurately capture fast events, you need a high-speed A/D converter and a wide-bandwidth track/hold amplifier.

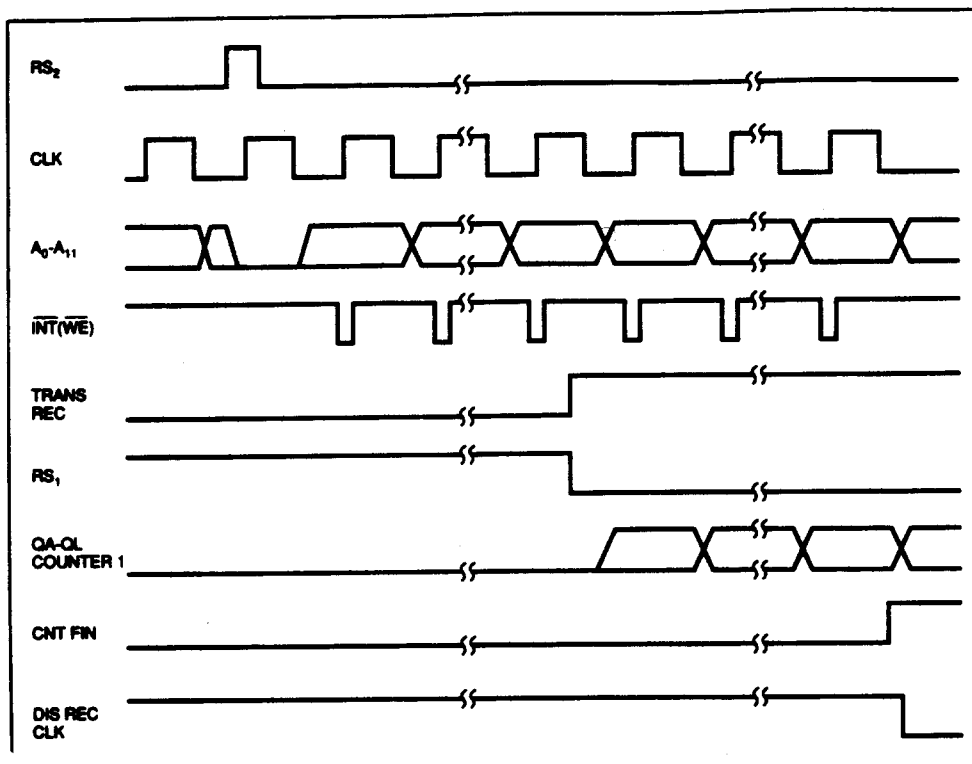


Fig 4—The timing relationships in the record mode show that recording starts on the first falling clock edge after the reset line goes high.

In the record mode in the waveforms shown, the 50/50 mark/space ratio of the CLK signal limits the clock frequency to 660 kHz. You need a CLK-low time of 750 nsec for the A/D converter to perform its conversion correctly and latch the data into IC₅. However, the CLK-high time can be as short as 350 nsec, the time required between conversions by the AD7821. Therefore, if the input to CLK IN₁ has a low time of 750 nsec and a high time of 350 nsec, the circuit can make one conversion every 1100 nsec—equivalent to approximately 900k samples/sec.

Playback to a scope

During playback to an oscilloscope, (Fig 5(a)), the MODE signal, the WE input of IC₅, and the DIS REC CLK signal are high. When you place S₁ in the playback mode, RS₁ goes high, resetting counter 1. The CLK signal generates a CSA signal for IC₇ on its rising edge and a CSB signal on its falling edge. The falling edge of the CLK signal clocks data from counter 1, and the rising edge of CSA updates the X axis. The falling edge of OE outputs stored data from memory, and the rising edge of CSB updates the Y axis. The CLK signal runs continuously when the circuit is in the scope-playback mode.

The timing diagram of Fig 5(b) shows operation of

the circuit for playback on a plotter. Once again, MODE, the WE input of IC₅, and the DIS REC CLK signals are high. The circuit generates CSA and CSB to update the X and Y axes. Compared with scope playback, the difference in the circuit's operation is that when the output count from counter 1 reaches 4095 and the CNT FIN signal goes high, the DIS PLOT CLK signal goes low, forcing the CLK signal into a high state.

Burst-mode event sampling places requirements on an A/D converter similar to those for transient recording. In burst-mode sampling, the recorder looks at the input waveform infrequently, but when it does, it must acquire a large number of samples in a short time. With slower microprocessors or microcontrollers, you'll find that because of instruction- and bus-timing constraints, you can't achieve anything like the A/D converter's maximum throughput.

You can overcome timing limitations in a burst-mode sampler by using a DMA controller to initiate A/D conversions and transfer conversion data to memory. Doing so lets you run the A/D converter at or near its maximum sample rate, permitting high oversampling ratios and the acquisition of short transients.

Building a burst-mode sampler is a simple matter with the popular 8052 microcontroller (Fig 6). Al-

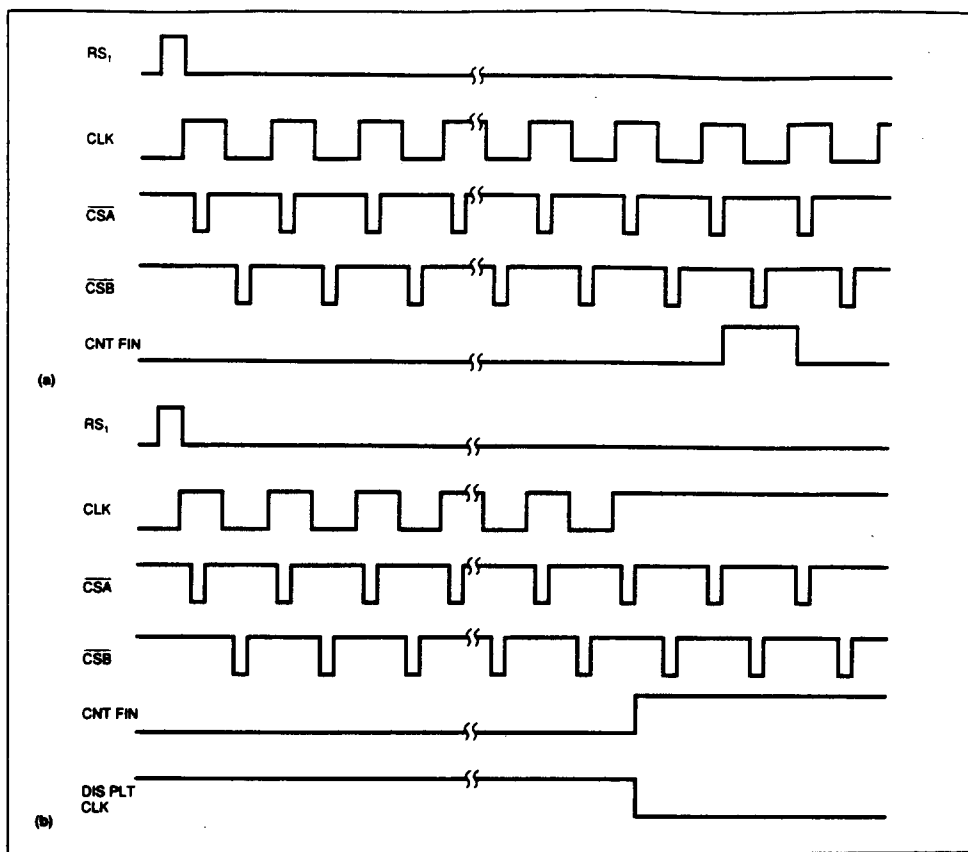


Fig 5—The timing for waveform playback is almost the same in the scope mode (a) as in the plotter mode (b). The difference is that the scope playback runs continuously, whereas the circuit produces a plotter output only once.

though the 8052 does not support hardware DMA, it does support what is termed “fake DMA.” However, expect the response time to DMA requests to be much slower than what is possible with microcontrollers that support genuine DMA.

The HM6264P memory chip, IC₃, stores the control program for IC₁. The first part of the control program is the initialization routine. This routine (Listing 1) sets up the sense of the DACK0 line of the 8237, IC₂, to be active high. It also loads the starting data address into IC₂ for the first conversion results. IC₁ initializes the counting register to control the number of conversions before IC₂ returns control to IC₁. The program must also set up IC₁ for “fake DMA.”

Once you’ve run the initialization program, IC₂ is ready to take control when requested to do so. Although IC₂ has four interrupt-request lines, this circuit uses only one, DREQ0. An external command signal drives this interrupt line high, telling IC₂ to take control of the circuit and start the A/D converter sampling the input waveform.

After IC₂ receives the DREQ0 request (Fig 7), its HRQ line goes high and feeds IC_{14C}, which takes the INT0 line of IC₁ low. IC₁ responds to this “fake DMA” request by bringing its P1.6 line low and the output of IC_{14A} high, selecting inputs of IC₇, IC₈, IC₉, and IC₁₀. When the output of IC_{14A} goes high, it shuts off IC₁’s address and data lines from the rest of the circuit and deselects the output’s address decoder, IC₁₃. The inverted P1.6 line also feeds the HLDA input of IC₂, acknowledging IC₂’s request for control. IC₂ then takes

control of the address and data bus and the sampling of the input waveform.

To reduce pin count, IC₂ multiplexes the eight higher-order address bits on the data lines. You need an external device to latch these address bits. The address strobe signal, ADSTB, takes AEN high and switches the \overline{OC} line of IC₆ low. ADSTB drives the C input of IC₆ to latch the higher address lines to the outputs of IC₆. The inverted AEN line also drives one input of IC_{16D}. The decoded output, Y₀, of IC₁₃ controls the other input of this gate. Therefore, either a high on AEN or a low on the decoder output selects IC₃. You need this control logic because both IC₂ and IC₁ must be able to access IC₃.

The DACK0 line goes high at about the same time that ADSTB latches the address and drives one input of IC_{15A}. IC_{15A} and IC_{15B} ensure that the \overline{CS} line of IC₄ goes low only when an input/output read operation of IC₂ occurs. IC_{15C} provides the correct polarity for the \overline{RD} input and equalizes the delay paths for the \overline{CS} and \overline{RD} lines, ensuring that the circuit obeys the \overline{CS} -to- \overline{RD} setup time.

Once IC₄ receives a \overline{CS} signal, it acknowledges receipt of the signal by bringing its RDY line low, placing the controller, IC₂, into a wait state for as long as its READY input is low. When the device completes a conversion, the RDY line goes high, releasing IC₂ from its wait state. Because IC₄’s RDY output is an open-drain output, you need to install an external pullup resistor, R₂.

When the circuit releases IC₂ from its wait state,

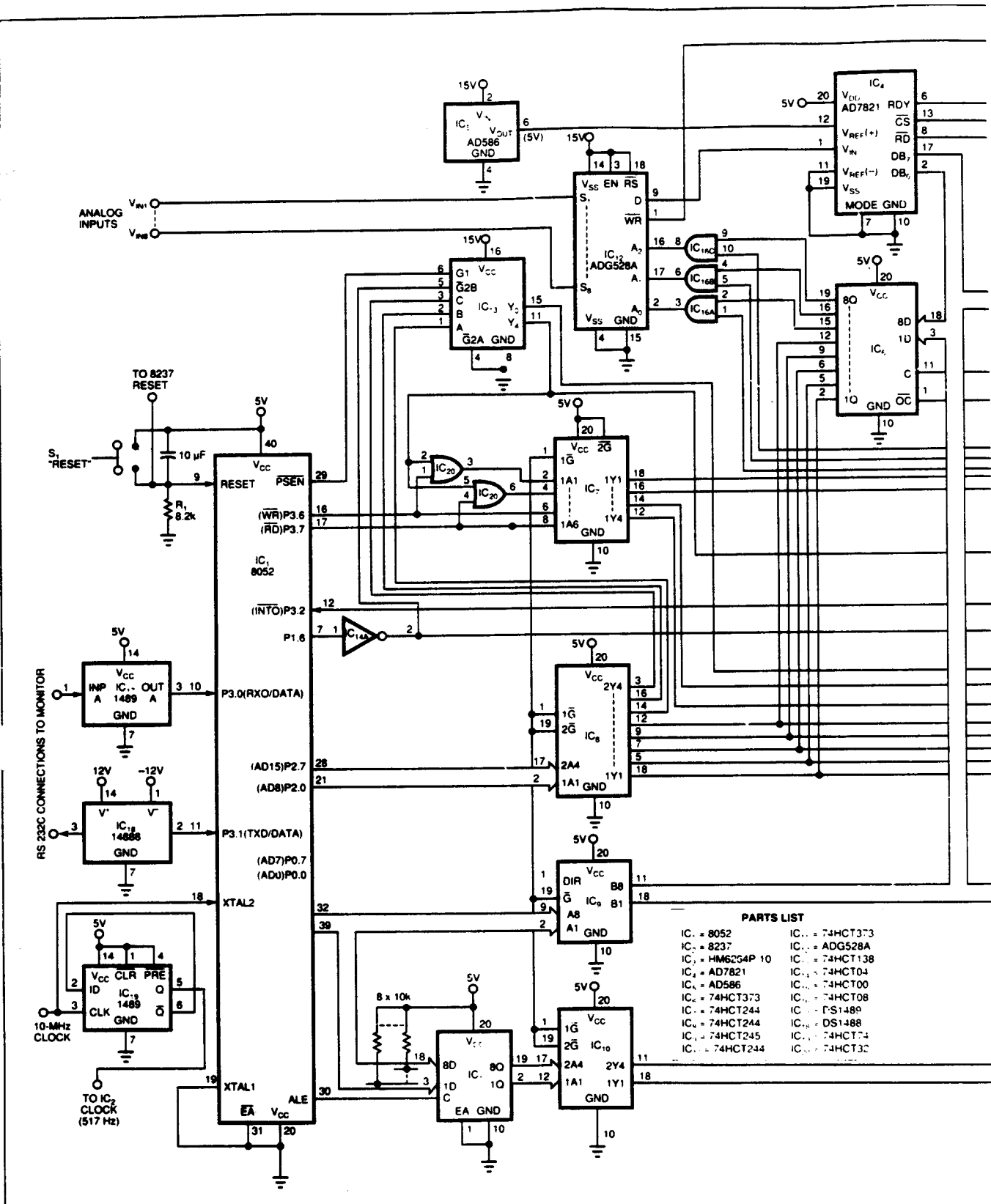
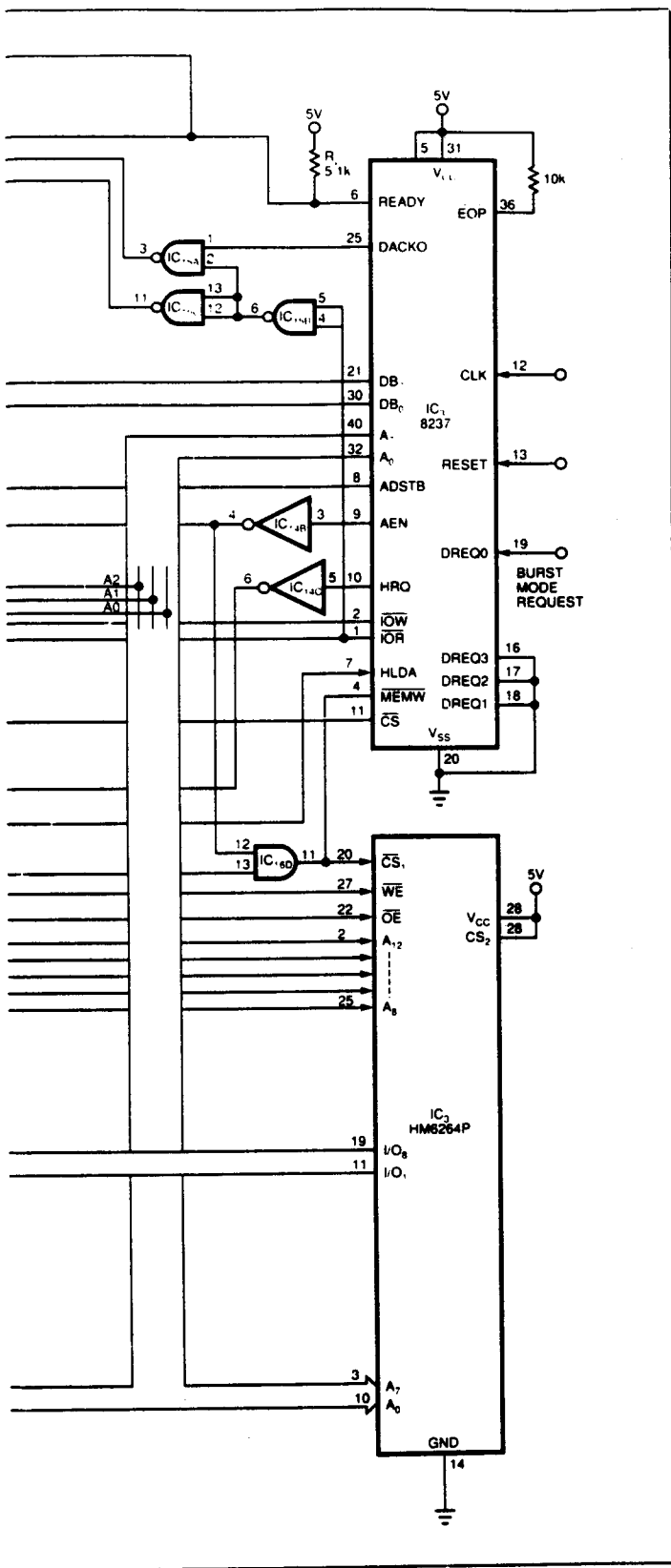


Fig 6—A burst-mode sampler using an 8052 microcontroller is roughly equal in complexity to the transient recorder shown earlier.

data from IC₄ is valid. The address lines of IC₂ determine where data loads into memory. IC₂ performs all of these operations automatically because a memory write accompanies each input/output read. Depending on the value loaded into the counting register, IC₂

will continue to issue read commands to IC₄ until the circuit completes the required number of conversions. IC₂ automatically increments the memory address after every write operation.

The multiplexer, IC₁₂, accommodates eight input



channels. The three upper and three lowest address lines of IC₂, gated through IC_{16A}, IC_{16B}, and IC_{16C}, select the input channel. If the three upper address lines are set to all 1s, IC₄ will convert each channel in sequence, and the conversion results will be stored in

consecutive memory locations. For example, if the first conversion takes place on the channel-1 input voltage, V_{IN1} , and the result is stored in location M of IC₃, the next conversion will take place on V_{IN2} , and the result will be stored in location M + 1. If the three uppermost address bits are set to 011, the circuit will sequence through channels 1 to 4 only.

Ready or not

The RDY line of IC₄ drives the \overline{WR} input of IC₁₂, loading the address for the next channel to be converted into the multiplexer. When you have only one input channel to convert, you can use an alternate design: Remove IC_{16A}, IC_{16B}, and IC_{16C}, and drive the A0, A1, and A2 inputs of IC₁₂ directly from the three uppermost address lines. Using this scheme, the program chooses the input channel.

IC₁ selects the device it talks to using a 1-of-8 address decoder, IC₁₃. The outputs of IC₁₃ provide signals for IC₁₂'s \overline{WR} line, IC₃'s \overline{CS} input, and IC₂'s \overline{CS} input. One of the outputs also gates the P3.7 (\overline{RD}) and the P3.6 (\overline{WR}) outputs from IC₁ to drive the \overline{IOW} and \overline{IOR} inputs of IC₂. The upper three address lines of IC₁ select the required device. The lower address lines are multiplexed with the data lines in a manner similar to the way IC₂'s address and data lines are multiplexed. IC₁₁ demultiplexes the lower eight address lines. IC₁'s ALE signal latches these address lines. The 3-state buffers, IC₇, IC₈, and IC₁₀, isolate IC₁ outputs from the address bus when IC₂ takes control. You must use these buffers because IC₁ can't place its address and data buses into a high-impedance state when IC₂ takes control of the circuit. IC₉ also acts as a buffer but is bidirectional because IC₁ must read data from and write data to memory.

IC₁ uses a 10-MHz input-clock frequency. A 74HCT74 counter (IC₁₉) divides down this clock to form the clock input to IC₂. The standard 8237 operates from a 3-MHz maximum clock frequency, so you can divide the 10-MHz clock by 4 to provide IC₂'s clock. You'll have a resultant acquisition rate of 608k samples/sec. A faster version of the 8237, the 8237-5, operates from a 5-MHz input clock, allowing you to divide the clock frequency by 2 and enabling the circuit to take 812k samples/sec. If you were to use IC₁ on its own to control the sampling of the input waveform, the best acquisition rate you could obtain would be approximately 100k samples/sec.

The entire circuit operates from 15V and 5V sup-

Listing 1—Initialization Routine

| | | |
|-----|--------------------------|--|
| 10 | XBY(8008H) = 80H | : SETS DACK SENSE ACTIVE HIGH |
| 20 | XBY(800FH) = 0EH | : CLEARS DREQ0 MASK REGISTER |
| 30 | XBY(800BH) = 94H | : SETS MODE REGISTER |
| 40 | XBY(800CH) = 00H | : CLEARS FIRST/LAST FLIP-FLOP |
| | | : (ONLY REQUIRED IF 8237 IS |
| | | : NOT RESET BETWEEN DMA REQUESTS) |
| 50 | XBY(8000H) = 00H | : LOADS LOWER BYTE OF STARTING DATA |
| | | : ADDRESS TO BASE AND CURRENT ADDRESS |
| 60 | XBY(8000H) = 08H | : LOADS HIGHER BYTE OF STARTING DATA |
| | | : ADDRESS TO BASE AND CURRENT ADDRESS |
| 70 | XBY(8001H) = 00H | : LOADS LOWER BYTE OF COUNTING NUMBER |
| | | : TO COUNT REGISTER |
| 80 | XBY(8001H) = 02H | : LOADS HIGHER BYTE OF COUNTING NUMBER |
| | | : TO COUNT REGISTER |
| 90 | DBY(38) = DBY(38).OR.02H | |
| 100 | IE = IE.OR.81H | |
| 110 | GOTO 10 | |

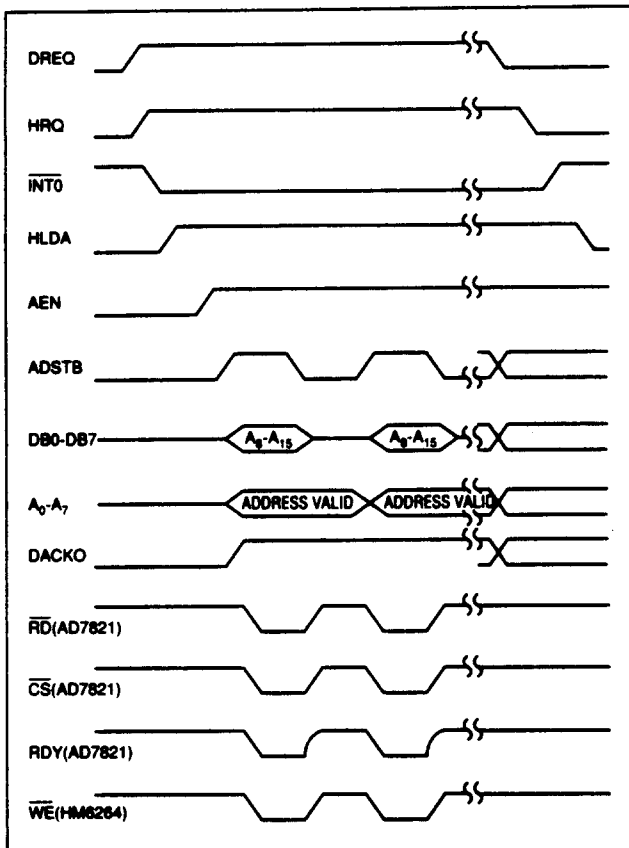


Fig 7—Although the 8052 does not support true DMA, you can create a “fake DMA” mode, which, though not as fast as real DMA, lets you transfer blocks of data directly to memory.

sponse of the 8052’s “fake DMA.” Because microprocessors that support genuine DMA will 3-state their address and data lines during a DMA transfer, you can eliminate the 3-state driver chips.

plies. If there isn’t a 5V supply in your system, you can add a regulator to generate 5V. In addition, plan to use a precision 5V reference (IC₆) for the A/D converter, allowing an input range of 0 to 5V. To obtain accurate conversion results, you must obey the same guidelines regarding decoupling and grounding as apply to the transient-recorder circuit.

You can use the same design (Fig 6) with slow- and medium-speed microprocessors that support DMA requests. With these microprocessors, you’ll find the DMA response time will be much faster than the re-