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DM330028

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## Phew!

Welcome to the second issue of Practical Electronics.
Renaming and redesigning a popular magazine is always something to be undertaken carefully. On the one hand you don't want to alienate a loyal existing readership - but on the other, if improvements are needed then there comes a point when you just have to take a leap of faith, do your best, and ultimately... hope for the best.

Waiting for $P E$ 's first sales figures from our distributor was a little nerve wracking, but I'm pleased to say that it sold more copies than April 2018, which is particularly reassuring because that was last year's best seller.
Also, we appreciate the positive messages of support that you have sent in. It seems that for many of our long-term subscribers the revival of the name Practical Electronics has brought back some fond memories - thank you John E and Stephen A for taking the time to write.
While positive feedback is of course welcome, we also need constructive 'negative' feedback. Any observations, tips or requests help us give you a better magazine. Do write in.
So, from all of us here at Practical Electronics, very many thanks for maintaining your faith in the magazine.

## Packed issue

What do we have for you this month? - a lot of goodies. There are four standalone projects to keep you busy - I particularly recommend the USB Port Protector if you are in the habit of powering projects from your computer. As Nicholas Vinen, the project's author puts it, ‘Don’t let one small "oops" fry your PC!'. Wise words, and not ones you want to learn after the event.
Phil Boyce's Make it with Micromite microcontroller series is gently accelerating to the point where you can start to read inputs and generate outputs. For those of you - especially beginners who have not been following the series, I strongly recommend you reconsider. It is a fabulous route to very-low-cost, easy-toimplement and hugely satisfying intelligent electronic control.
For those of you who want truly tiny control systems then Mike Hibbett's latest PIC n' Mix is just what you've been waiting for - a new series on the PIC10F202 microcontroller.

Next up, we have Paul Cooper's MIDI Ultimate Synthesiser. Since I'm not a musician, I must confess that I was really only dimly aware of what a truly professional-level analogue synthesiser could achieve. That all changed when Paul sent me a YouTube link (see article) demonstrating the MIDI Ultimate. It's impressive, and I hope you'll watch the video and consider building your own.
There's more, much more... but I'm out of space, so I'll hand over to you to enjoy this second issue of Practical Electronics.

Matt Pulzer<br>Publisher

# The Fox Report 

## The future of TV

## 4K, WCG, 8K, OETF... Barry Fox disentangles the latest acronyms, gets a handle on the future of TV and

 talks to the BBC tech gurus who explain that it is not just about pixel count.TThe International Moving Image Society's (IMIS) 88th Annual Awards Ceremony and lecture held recently in memory of Bernard Happé (once technical manager of Technicolor and author of seminal books on movie film technology) featured two BBC top tech gurus sharing the inside story of the joint work done by the BBC and Sky on shooting the 2018 British Royal Wedding in 4 K UHD HDR, and the BBC's work with 4K UHD on sporting events including the 2018 FIFA World Cup and Wimbledon Tennis.

Phil Layton (head of broadcast and connected systems, BBC R\&D) kicked off with his views on the need - or otherwise - for 4 K resolution, with 8 K coming soon.
'Screen sizes of 50/55 inches are needed to show the benefits of 4 K UHD, at the average UK viewing distance of 2.6 m ' he said. 'This holds good for screen sizes up to 100 or 110 inches. So 8 K is only needed if screens get larger than that or people start moving closer'.

Andrew Cotton (principal technologist, BBC R\&D's Broadcast \& Connected Systems Section) offered some basic background on HDR (high
dynamic range) video, with WCG (wide colour gamut).

## Signal sensitivity

The human eye's sensitivity to light is approximately logarithmic, with a dynamic range of around 46 stops; but the eye uses a moving range window of around 14 stops. Modern digital cameras capture 12-14 stops, and when TV signals are distributed with 8 -bit code the dynamic range is around 5-6 stops.
HDR seeks to bridge the gap between human vision and digital capture and display. The camera sensor uses an OETF curve (opto-electrical transfer function) and the display uses an EOTF curve (electro-optical transfer function). The OETF and EOTF curves are not same, so an OOTF processor (opto-optical transfer function) is used to compensate.
The HLG (hybrid log-gamma) HDR system developed by the BBC and Japanese broadcaster NHK, adapts to whatever the screen can handle. Dolby's rival proprietary system DolbyVision relies on PQ (perceptual quantisation) and continually changing metadata to control the display. Manufacturers must pay

Dolby a royalty to use DolbyVision. Hardly surprisingly, the BBC uses only HLG, which needs no such metadata and is royalty free.
Andrew Cotton then explained the practical challenges of using any HDR system: ‘The challenge for HDR is live sports, where there can be 40 cameras, most of them different - including stump cams inside cricket stumps and a mix of SDR (standard dynamic range) and WCG/HDR is inevitable. For the Royal Wedding we were using 76 cameras. I had to go out to a local shop and buy a memory card so that we could download and install some new software updates.
'For the foreseeable future mixing SDR and WCG/HDR camera signals will be inevitable, and conversion techniques developed by the movie industry do not work well for TV. Fortunately, most UHD HDR cameras also output an HD signal. And the BBC has developed 'scene light conversion' software to match HLG HDR and SDR signals. Details to follow....,
'There is still work to be done, though, especially on matching colour, even when cameras output both BT. 709 colour for SDR, and BT. 200 for HLG HDR. We thought


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we were doing all right at the Royal Wedding until Chris Johns (Sky's chief engineer) pulled out a Coke can and we found the reds from two makes of camera were not matching. Comparing camera outputs is like comparing phone tariffs!
'For the World Cup we found that HBS (host broadcast services), which provides the broadcast facilities for FIFA, use a proprietary HDR system from Sony, called S-Log3. So we had to convert that, too. And we had to take account of the fact that the grass at the Wimbledon tennis grounds actually has a blue tinge.'

## Streaming

Said Phil Layton: 'Because the BBC does not have any chance of broadcasting UHD by terrestrial TV, we could only distribute the pictures by streaming with iPlayer, using HEVC/H.265, Main 10, Level 5.1 compression. However, TV works with frames per second; for example, iPlayer works with four-second chunks of audio and video data. We stream four different quality levels, ranging from HD up to UHD, with adaptive bit rates of between 1.4 Mbps, 2.5

Mbps and 22.7 Mbps, and the receiver continually checks the available speed and self-adjusts.
'We streamed a soccer event on 17 February 2018 and everything was fine; we streamed gymnastics on 8 April and it was a disaster, everything that could go wrong did go wrong. But we were learning all the time. The good thing about streaming is that the iPlayer system knows exactly what is happening and when. For the World Cup and Wimbledon we were serving 400,000 devices, with data peaking at 1.7 TBit/s. There were 1.6 million stream starts. We had warned that we would have to cap the number of UHD streams at 60,000 to protect the HD stream, but we only had to do that once during the World Cup. The number of UHD streams was usually running at around 40,000 . The analysis graphs show steep peaks when the commentator reminded viewers that they could stream in UHD. On only one occasion the network broke and we had to shed all viewers.

## Consumer choices and quality

'Possibly the most significant thing we learned was that not all TVs
and not all ISPs are equal. Quality of service depends heavily on the device. We could see that viewers were mainly using eight types of receiver and five main ISPs. From 3000 completed viewer surveys we could see a wide range of opinions on picture quality, with phrases like 'dull pictures' and 'lacking vibrancy'. Consumer equipment has very variable performance. We can't reveal the names of the TVs and ISPs that came out best and worst, so what we have to do now is find a way of explaining to viewers that what they see depends very much on what make of TV they are watching and what ISP they are using. How to do that is an on-going discussion.'
'But we proved that streaming UHD by IP at scale is possible.
'The one thing that really stands out is that people hate the latency that means they hear neighbours who are watching live, shouting a minute or more before they see and hear from a stream. We think we have a solution, which we are now trialling.'

Barry Fox is a Fellow of the International Moving Image Society
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Marconi 2022E
Marconi 2024
Marconi 2030
Marconi 2023A

Signal Generator $9 \mathrm{kHz}-2.51 \mathrm{GHz}$ Opt 04/11
Communication Service Monitor Opts 03/25 Avionics
Microwave Systems Analyser $10 \mathrm{MHz}-20 \mathrm{GHz}$
Syn Function Generator $1 \mathrm{~Hz}-260 \mathrm{kHz}$
RF Network Analyser $300 \mathrm{kHz}-1300 \mathrm{MHz}$ Audio Analyser
Scaler Network Analyser
Synthesised Function Generator
Dynamic Signal Analyser
PSU 0-60V 0-50A 1000W
PSU 0-20V 4A Twice or 0-50V 2A Twice
PSU 4 Outputs
PSU 0-20V 0-5A
PSU 0-60V 3.5A
PSU 0-60V 0-9A
Synthesised Sweep Generator $10 \mathrm{MHz}-20 \mathrm{GHz}$
Synthesised Sweeper $10 \mathrm{MHz}-26.5 \mathrm{GHz}$
Synthesised Sweeper $2-20 \mathrm{GHz}$
Power Sensor 0.01-18GHz 3nW-10 $\mu \mathrm{W}$
Spectrum Analyser Synthesised $30 \mathrm{~Hz}-2.9 \mathrm{GHz}$
Spectrum Analyser Synthesised $9 \mathrm{kHz}-22 \mathrm{GHz}$
Spectrum Analsyer $100 \mathrm{~Hz}-22 \mathrm{GHz}$
RF Generator $10 \mathrm{kHz}-1280 \mathrm{MHz}$
Synthesised AM/FM Signal Generator $10 \mathrm{kHz}-1.01 \mathrm{GHz}$
Synthesised Signal Generator $9 \mathrm{kHz}-2.4 \mathrm{GHz}$
Synthesised Signal Generator $10 \mathrm{kHz}-1.35 \mathrm{GHz}$
Signal Generator $9 \mathrm{kHz}-1.2 \mathrm{GHz}$

| £400 | Marconi 2305 |
| :---: | :---: |
| £400 | Marconi 2440 |
| £900 | Marconi 2945/A/B |
| POA | Marconi 2955 |
| POA | Marconi 2955A |
| £295 | Marconi 2955B |
| POA | Marconi 6200 |
| £750-£950 | Marconi 6200A |
| POA | Marconi 6200B |
| £195 | Marconi 6960B |
| £650 | Tektronix TDS3052B |
| £750 | Tektronix TDS3032 |
| £350 | Tektronix TDS3012 |
| £400 | Tektronix 2430A |
| £195 | Tektronix 2465B |
| £400 | Farnell AP60/50 |
| £500 | Farnell XA35/2T |
| £2,000 | Farnell AP100-90 |
| POA | Farnell LF1 |
| POA | Racal 1991 |
| £75 | Racal 2101 |
| £1,750 | Racal 9300 |
| £2,250 | Racal 9300B |
| £1,200 | Solartron 7150/PLUS |
| £750 | Solatron 1253 |
| £325 | Solartron SI 1255 |
| £800 | Tasakago TM035-2 |
| £750 | Thurlby PL320QMD |
| £700 | Thurlby TG210 |

Function Generator 100 microHz - 15MHz Universal Counter 3GHz Boxed unused Universal Counter 225MHz
SYS2712 Audio Analyser - in original box Autocal Multifunction Standard
Pressure Calibrator/Controller Autocal Standards Multimeter RF Power Amplifier 250 kHz - 150 MHz 25 W 50 dB Voltage/Current Source
DC Current \& Voltage Calibrator

Modulation Meter
Counter 20 GHz
Communications Test Set Various Options
Radio Communications Test Set
Radio Communications Test Set
Radio Communications Test Set Microwave Test Set
Microwave Test Set $10 \mathrm{MHz}-20 \mathrm{GHz}$ Microwave Test Set Power Meter with 6910 sensor
Oscilloscope $500 \mathrm{MHz} 2.5 \mathrm{GS} / \mathrm{s}$
Oscilloscope $300 \mathrm{MHz} 2.5 \mathrm{GS} / \mathrm{s}$
Oscilloscope 2 Channel 100MHz 1.25GS/s
Oscilloscope Dual Trace 150MHz 100MS/s Oscilloscope 4 Channel 400 MHz PSU 0-60V 0-50A 1 kW Switch Mode PSU 0-35V 0-2A Twice Digital PSU 0-35V Supply 100V 90A Sine/Sq Oscillator $10 \mathrm{~Hz}-1 \mathrm{MHz}$ Sine/Sq Oscillator $10 \mathrm{~Hz}-1 \mathrm{MHz}$
Counter/Timer 160MHz 9 Digit Counter/Timer 160M Counter 20 GHz LED
True RMS Millivoltmeter $5 \mathrm{~Hz}-20 \mathrm{MHz}$ etc True RM
As 9300
6½ Digit DMM True RMS IEEE
Gain Phase Analyser $1 \mathrm{mHz}-20 \mathrm{kHz}$ HF Frequency Response Analyser PSU 0-35V 0-2A 2 Meters
PSU 0-30V 0-2A Twice
Function Generator 0.002-2MHz TTL etc Kenwood $£ 160-£ 200$


HP/Agilent HP 34401A Digital Multimeter $61 / 2$ Digit $£ 325$ - $£ 375$
ractical Electronics | May | 2019

# How's your soldering? 

Not bad? That's admirable, but have you considered taking it up as a competitive sport? Soldering (or 'welding' as many of those English-not-a-first-language eBay ads like to call it) is not yet recognised by the international Olympics committee, but that day will surely come and some folk already take the challenge very seriously. Even better, you can improve your prowess at home, so what's not to like? Read on, get some philosophical instruction and prepare to have your intelligence insulted, all at no cost to you.

In February, IPC (no, not the original publisher of this magazine, but the global trade association serving the printed board and electronics assembly industries, their customers and suppliers) hosted the world's first hand-soldering and re-working championship. Staged in San Diego, California, it was won, within the allotted time of 75 minutes, by Ryosuke Matsunami of Japan, gaining him a $\$ 1,000$ prize and a perfect score of 634 points, achieved without a single error. Contestants represented Britain, China, France, Germany, India, Indonesia, Japan, South Korea, Vietnam and Thailand. All competitors were tested with a fully functional soldered assembly, from which they were required to remove six specific components, remove old solder and clean the area of removed components.

## Do try this at home?

If you fancy an even tougher challenge, the 'SMD Challenge' might appeal. It's for seriously advanced builders only (find more at http://bit.ly/pe-may19tt1). Be warned that this kit involves hand-soldering an 0201 SMD package, which is only slightly larger than a grain of sand. There is also a 'Misery Edition' that uses even smaller 0805 packages and a QFN20 chip, which is much harder to hand solder. Neither I nor the publisher of this magazine accept any liability for your subsequent sanity damage.

## Free advice

Nothing lasts forever and there's no such thing as a free lunch. There you go: two truisms and nothing to pay for these wise words. But what else do you get for nothing? Well, there's Usenet, the first free online host for discussion forums, and I was just going to tell you when it finally bit the dust. But to my amazement, I see that it's still going and has done since 1980, predating public use of the Internet by nine years. But as Wikipedia concedes, Usenet has diminished in importance versus Internet forums, blogs and mailing lists.

Google Groups, operational since 2001, is also free to use. It not only hosts groups of its own, but also acts as gateway and unofficial archive of Usenet postings dating back to 1981. If you sign up for a Google Groups account, you can use this to read and post to Usenet groups. However, many groups that began at Google Groups have now migrated elsewhere.
The new host of choice was Yahoo Groups, established under that name in 2000. It became extremely popular but then lost its glitter after the platform started to act very erratically following concerted hacking attacks. Users' email addresses and passwords were stolen and resold on a grand scale, leading to a mass exodus of groups to pastures new. Many were re-established on the Groups.io platform, launched in 2014 to much acclaim.

## Engage BS alert now

With all of the foregoing, commercial sponsorship was unobtrusive to the users but some newcomer group hosting organisations have opted for more aggressive advertising, such as Tapatalk, which entered the fray in 2017. Reading advertisements is probably a reasonable price to pay for free-to-use forums (or fora, if you prefer), if you don't mind having your intelligence insulted from time to time. I don't mind too much, but the ads are not very well curated or selected, meaning you will be offered electronic gizmos such as the SkylinkTV antenna that lets you watch all of your favourite TV channels 'for free'. It's nothing to do with Sky TV and, with over 1.5 million units sold worldwide, it: 'Offers a more reliable and technologically advanced antenna than almost any other on the market. That means more channels, movies and shows for free, without any subscription and in a completely legal way. It's developed with military technology too and its use is entirely legal since the television operators themselves distribute the signal completely free of charge. Obviously television operators
do not like it at all, but they cannot do anything about it. They are required by law to maintain this signal. And now, with advanced antennas like SkyLink Antenna, you can finally capture it.'

## Dodgy claims

The 'amazing' SkyLink Antenna costs $\$ 36$ plus postage and import taxes (which cost a small fortune). You also need to be aware that it's an indoor antenna (we all know how fabulously well those work!) and it will not pick up US channels in Europe, despite the misleading claims. Independent reviews (http://bit.ly/pe-may19-tt3) are universally negative and of course viewing premium programmes without payment is legal neither Stateside nor here in Europe. To read their extravagant claims go to: http://bit.ly/pe-may19tt2 and read item 2. Or see the same product on Amazon for $£ 9.69$ (search for VicTsing Freeview antenna). Spoiler alert: 96 disappointed customers gave it negative reviews on Amazon UK.

## Toilet humour

Now go to item 11 on the same web page and you'll find something far more useful: an electronic 'Glow Bowl' that will transform any toilet into a multi-hued nightlight, changing colour constantly. It's awesome, it's 'motionactivated' (!) and it lights up the most important part of late-night relief, with a soft glow that doesn't wake up anyone else. It even features a built-in air freshener that leaves your bathroom smelling great. Mmm, nice.

Credit where it's due: this time the advertisement is tailored to the British market and lets you pay just $£ 15.62$, using PayPal. But my sleuthing discovered a better deal on Amazon, where it costs (wait for it) $£ 2.36$ delivered free (search for Sumbay nightlight).

## Compliance notice

Other brands of novelty gifts are available and products mentioned here are not endorsed by this magazine. $100 \%$ guaranteed not to contain nuts, probably.

# Experimenting with BMP280 Temperature and Air Pressure Chip 

by Peter Brunning



For this short course you need one of the GPIC28 training circuits shown in the picture, a PICkit 3, the 100-page book, and our BMP280 18F PIC C software library. Ideally, you will already have some experience, but the book does start with essential PIC C revision.
Then we study the BMP280 and learn to set up SPI serial communication. We experiment with code to display ID, raw temperature and calibration data. We use this data to calculate the temperature and then expand this to include air pressure. Air pressure reduces if we walk up a hill. We use this fact to calculate and display height gain.
Finally, we edit the code to display the total height gained when walking in hilly countryside. Both GPIC28 training circuits shown in the picture run the same code. The GPIC28sov4 on the right is supplied as a kit with the PIC already fitted. You need good soldering and workshop skills to fit this into a box as in the picture. The expected release date is early April 2019. Prices will be published as soon as possible. See our website for latest info.

## The Brunning Software P955H PIC Training Course

We start by learning to use a relatively simple 8 bit PIC microcontroller. We make our connections directly to the input and output pins of the chip and have full control of the internal facilities of the chip. We work at the grass roots level.

The first book teaches absolute beginners to write PIC programmes using assembler which is the natural language of the PIC. The first book starts by assuming you know nothing about PICs but instead of wading into the theory we jump straight in with four easy experiments. Then having gained some experience we study the basic principles of PIC programming, learn about the 8 bit timer, how to drive the alphanumeric liquid crystal display, create a real time clock, experiment with the watchdog timer, sleep mode, beeps and music. Then there are two projects to work through. In the space of 24 experiments two project and 56 exercises we work through from absolute beginner to experienced engineer level using the latest 8 bit PICs (16F and 18F).

The second book introduces the C programming language for 8 bit PICs in very simple terms. The third book Experimenting with Serial Communications teaches Visual C\# programming for the
 PC so that we can create PC programmes to control PIC circuits.

In the fourth book we learn to programme 32 bit MX PICs using fundamental C instructions. Flash the LEDs, study the 16 bit and 32 bit timers, write text to the LCD, and enter numbers using the keypad. This is all quite straightforward as most of the code is the same as already used with the 8 bit PICs. Then life gets more complex as we delve into serial communications with the final task being to create an audio oscilloscope with advanced triggering and adjustable scan rate.

The complete P955H training course is $£ 259$ including P955H training circuit, 4 books ( $240 \times 170 \mathrm{~mm} 1200$ pages total), 6 PIC microcontrollers, PIC assembler and programme text on CD, 2 USB to PC leads, pack of components, and carriage to a UK address. (To programme 32 bit PICs you will need to plug on a PICkit3 which you need to buy from Microchip, Farnell or RS for $£ 43$ ).

Prices start from $£ 175$ for the P955H training circuit with books 1 and $2(240 \times 170 \mathrm{~mm} 624$ pages total), 2 PIC microcontrollers, PIC assembler and programme text on CD, USB to PC lead, and carriage to UK address. (PICkit3 not needed for this option). You can buy books 3 and 4, USB PIC, 32 bit PIC and components kit as required later. See website for details.
Web site:- www.brunningsoftware.co.uk

## Alan Winstanley


#### Abstract

Alan Winstanley says dodge thè'Sunk Cost Fallacy' of keeping filament bulbs and embrace the brave new world of LED lighting - plus, 5 G and microsatellites are about to change our digital world.


The cost of electrical energy is a heavy burden for many households to shoulder, but any efficiency savings that consumers make are soon swallowed up by the escalating costs charged by power utilities. A recent discussion in our forum area on EEWeb (www.eeweb.com/forum/cat-egory/epe-magazine) highlighted the disparities in power prices levied in different countries; our friends in the US pay about $\$ 0.10$ per kWh or half the cost that we Brits are forced to pay, while Australians and New Zealanders tell me their unit costs are roughly on parity with UK prices but they face far higher 'standing charges' every month.

## Lamenting the lumen

In the hope of reducing electricity bills, the author has, like many readers, taken the plunge by replacing many old incandescent lights with modern LED bulbs. The lighting market faced turmoil when awful first-generation compact fluorescent tubes were the only alternatives available, but thankfully LED technology has come on in leaps and bounds, and buyers now enjoy more choice than ever. Some trial and error is to be expected as some promising-looking LED bulbs offer disappointing levels of output in practice, leaving buyers ruefully comparing 'lumens' against good old watts. A wide range of 'LED filament' bulbs are also sold that mimic gloomy vin-tage-style bulbs, but are probably best kept for ornamental use.
I probably should have bitten the bullet sooner. It can be hard to throw away a few dozen perfectly good, paidfor, incandescent light bulbs - especially traditional-quality ones that might even contain a Ballotini fuse, unlike the cheap end-of-an-era imports that I was now throwing away. Should one wring every last minute of working life out of a light bulb (due to the 'Sunk Cost Fallacy') until it blows, or write them off today and start benefiting from immediate and ongoing savings instead?

Behavioural economic theory explains that 'sunk costs' represent cash that has been spent and cannot be recovered
under any circumstances. Hence the pain - investment in those treasured old filament bulbs can be considered as 'sunk' and gone for ever, and the only benefit in keeping them until they blow is to postpone the inevitable cost of replacement, whilst all the time costing ten times more to run than LEDs do.

## False savings

Not wanting to throw away old lighting is a human, emotional and hence totally irrational thing. The same question taxes many British local authorities as they ponder converting high-pressure sodium street lights to those migraine-inducing LED bulbs that pierce our streets with their icy fingers of 'cold' light. Many enlightened councils have converted their street lights to LEDs, but some cash-strapped councils switch off street lights early to save money instead! For consumers, online auction sites are bursting with LED bulbs, some of them of very dubious quality, being unmarked and unbranded and perhaps with phony CE marks. They can have very poor heat dissipation properties or suffer from early failure due to pen-ny-pinching with cheap components or poor design. For consistent performance it's probably best to stick with reputable brands. A useful cost-saving calculator is provided online by Philips, for example, who manufacturer one of the world's most comprehensive ranges of LED bulbs, see: http://bit.ly/ pe-may19-nw1
Simply dial in the power, shape and base fitting and typical savings will be displayed. A huge range is sold by Lampshop Online, CPC, LEDbulbs.co.uk, BLT Direct and others. If you haven't invested yet, then now is a good time to convert to LEDs and start making some immediate savings. Having said that, I noticed that one of my new longlife LED bulbs has failed after just a few months. So much for progress!

## 5G - go for throttle up

An old acquaintance lives in one of Britain's largest cities and he had become alarmed by the growth of mobile phone
masts springing up in his locality. He worried about the risks of electromagnetic radiation on his health, and had taken the extreme steps of lining his attic with chicken wire to protect the household from potentially harmful emissions generated, so he thought, by some nearby phone masts that menaced his property.
While most of us take wireless-based communication for granted, others have genuine concerns about the associated health risks. In the worst cases, some claim to suffer from electromagnetic hypersensitivity (EHS) and find life near overhead pylons, phone masts or electric cables unbearable. Unfortunately for them, the growth of radio traffic in an overcrowded radio spectrum continues unabated: we live in a cloud of electromagnetic smog, and life for EHS sufferers or my friend living in his home-made Faraday cage could be about to get worse.
In wireless communications the buzz word of the moment is ' 5 G ' and the tech markets are queuing up to bring us the fifth generation of network hardware. 5G potentially operates at several gigabits per second with near-instantaneous latency values, reports the independent website 5GUK Ltd (www.5g.co.uk). Apart from enhancing mobile services the 5 G industry claims it could also control IoT devices or even driverless cars, thanks to 5G's high speed and su-per-responsive nature.


HTC has pre-announced their 5G Mobile Hub, one of the first 5 G consumer peripherals to hit the market.

## Health risks from 5G?

5G's higher frequencies could, however, give rise to some as yet unknown health risks. A group of 180 EU scientists recently called for a moratorium on the rollout of 5 G until its health implications had been independently assessed. The group cites the need for building many more 5 G antennas in built-up areas as a major factor, due to the shorter distance that 5 G waves can travel, and reminds us that only 5Gs's benefits have been praised by the media, but the consequences for the health of humans, plants and animals have not yet been discussed at all. One argument being made is that, as 5 G masts generate lower power transmissions, a much denser mesh of them will therefore be required. Typically, the EU's response to the matter of electromagnetic radiation is that public safety is a matter for EU member states themselves to sort out, meaning there is no EU-wide approach to assessing the safety of 5 G .

Similar concerns about 5G's health implications have been voiced in the US. In February, a Senate committee hearing on the future of 5 G learned that no independent studies on the impact of 5 G on human health had been undertaken at all, and US Senator Richard Blumenthal summed it up concisely: he believed Americans deserved to know what the health effects are, but the 5G industry was effectively 'flying blind' as far as any health or public safety assessments were concerned (see: https:// youtu.be/ekNC0J3xx1w).

## Coming to a hub near you

The technology sector industry is busily tantalising us with the potential of 5 G , such as Vodafone's demo last year of the UK's first 5G holographic call (see: https://youtu.be/Ilq2qtFHTf8). It would be churlish not to applaud early efforts like these, which uses 3D video capture and VR to offer a young football fan a memorable moment or two with a holographic football star, but the lack of any existing infrastructure hasn't got in the way of manufacturers queuing up to advance-sell us the latest 5G kit. First off the starting blocks is Taiwan's HTC, which trailed its new rechargeable 5G Hub for home or business use. The Hub offers a 5 -inch HD touch screen, 4 K video streaming, connectivity to 20 devices and 'Cloud VR support in the future'. Plus, HTC reckons it will replace your home Wi-Fi router and all the unnecessary cables that go with it, being able to stream directly to a VR headset without needing to attach a PC. Looking at my motley collection of networked Internet radios, PCs, NAS drives, IoT gadgets, Google Minis, IP security
cameras, phones and laptops, I'm not expecting to throw that lot away any day soon, but $P E$ readers can expect to see a barrage of 5 G hype heading their way well before the end of this year. Prices of the mobile hub have yet to be announced: HTC's UK pressroom has not been updated since 2017, but details were found on their US site. You can see what the HTC 5G Hub is about with a short Youtube video at: https://youtu.be/SGeNk9FiJMI

Already, the benefits of 5 G are being lauded with plenty of vapourware but there is next to no working hardware on retail sale and no assessments of public health and safety have taken place either. 5G promises much, but who will be an early adopter?

## OneWeb aims for the stars

There are many places on earth that are Internet 'not-spots' but the landscape could be about to change, thanks to space telecoms company OneWeb, which is set to bring high speed to the remotest areas of our planet. Headquartered in the UK, OneWeb has already started building a constellation of some 600 satellites, possibly scaling it up to 900 in the future, with the intention of serving remote users in homes, schools, businesses or even on the move. OneWeb Satellites (http://onewebsatellites.com) is a joint venture between Airbus Industries and OneWeb, and they are taking satellite production to an industrial level. It used to take hundreds of engineers months to hand-build a single space satellite, says OneWeb, but by using a modular satellite design they can mass produce a small 150 kg satellite every eight hours - or 15 a week - at its factory in Florida that is currently being commissioned.

OneWeb's satellites will aim to provide low latency, high throughput and global coverage. They are said to be easy to manufacture, lighter in weight and cheaper to launch and use fewer components. The first six satellites in OneWeb's constellation were launched successfully in February aboard a single Soyuz rocket, and one can only marvel at the engineering that was behind the six-satellite separation sequence shown on Youtube at: https://youtu.be/ MnJZ3gJ9bAY

Up to 36 satellites could be released per launch in the future. Helped by some UK Space Agency Funding, OneWeb aims to develop novel AI techniques to manage their fleet of satellites as well as ways of interfacing with terrestrial 5G communications networks, holding


OneWeb successfully launches the first six of its fleet of 600 satellites in February.
out the promise of OneWeb playing a key role in delivering a far-reaching 5G service down on the ground.

## Quantum leap

Flexibility and adaptability are keywords for a new wave of satellites that are set to revolutionise space-bound telecoms. Eutelsat's new Quantum satellite is a product of Airbus Industries and the UK and European Space Agencies, and has been dubbed a 'software-driven satellite', said to be the first satellite ever produced that can be completely reprogrammed in orbit to cover different (or multiple) geographical areas, as explained at: https://youtu.be/0iKgOahW5y0

Quantum can also be re-tasked to deal with governmental duties, such as public protection or disaster recovery, for example. The Quantum's platform has been built in Britain by Surrey Satellite Technology (SSTL) and the satellite is currently being readied by Airbus in Toulouse.

## Maplin opens its doors

The former UK electronics mail-order house and retailer, Maplin, has finally re-opened for business under an entirely new business model. Now trading as Maplin Online Ltd, the new web-only presence is a valiant attempt to keep an old brand alive, but the firm is focussing on gadgets, IoT, makers and STEM, gaming, smart tech, AV and similar lines instead. Here at $P E$ we believe that having more choice is a good thing for hobbyists and students, and we wish the new enterprise well in its endeavours. For all your component-level needs, however, please do continue to support our very hard-working advertisers who strive to offer readers a comprehensive mail-order service, often going the extra mile to provide constructors with a friendly helpful and informed source of kits and parts.
See you next month for more tech commentary from Net Work!

## The author can be reached at: alan@epemag.net





#### Abstract

Two 12 V batteries are often significantly cheaper than one equivalent 24 V battery, but you need to be careful connecting batteries in series as their voltages and state-of-charge may not be identical. The difference in voltage can increase over time, leading to battery damage from over-charging and/ or under-charging. This compact, low-cost device keeps them balanced so that they last a long time.


If you're in the market for a 24 V battery then you have probably discovered that it costs a lot more than two 12 V batteries. The obvious solution is two 12 V batteries in series, but as our introduction explains, that's a solution that brings a new set of problems. Fortunately, an economical answer is within your reach - a 'battery balancer'.

Our version can't handle quite as much current as some commercial designs because it lacks a large heatsink, but you can easily parallel several of our balancers if you need a higher current capacity and the cost would still be quite reasonable.

It can be used with pretty much any battery chemistry, as long as the battery voltages will stay within the range of $5-16 \mathrm{~V}$.

Balancing is most critical with lithium-based rechargeable batteries because they tolerate overcharging much less than a similar lead-acid battery would.


## Balancing operation

There are two sections to the circuit; the balancer and the low-battery cut-out. The entire
circuit is shown in Fig.1, with the balancing ancer and the low-battery cut-out. The entire
circuit is shown in Fig.1, with the balancing circuitry in the top half and the low-voltage cut-out below.
Starting with the balancing section, schottky
odes D1 and D2 are connected in series with
Starting with the balancing section, schottky
diodes D1 and D2 are connected in series with the two batteries so that no damage should occur if they are wired up incorrectly. These diodes are then connected to MOSFETs Q1a and Q2b at the right-hand side of

Shown rather significantly oversize for clarity (the PCB measures only $31.5 \times 34.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) - see the coin for reference all components mount on this single board.

This design incorporates a low-voltage cut-out which prevents the batteries being discharged too far if it is unable to keep them balanced and its very low quiescent current of under 0.02 mA means it will have virtually no effect on battery life.

It also incorporates an LED to show when it is monitoring the battery voltages and two more LEDs to show when one or the other is being discharged or shunted.

By default, the low-voltage cut-out is set up so that the batteries are only balanced when they are being charged. However, there are definitely situations where you might also want the batteries to be balanced during discharge.

In that case, you just need to change a resistor or two in order to adjust the cut-out threshold so it is near the minimum battery voltage. In this case, the cut-out will still act to protect the batteries but will allow balancing during charging and discharge, right down to that lower threshold.

It's a compact unit at just $31.5 \times 34.5 \times 13 \mathrm{~mm}$, so you can tuck it away inside just about any device. And if the 300 mA balancing current is not sufficient for your purposes, all you need to do is wire two or more units in parallel and they will operate in concert to keep the batteries balanced. the circuit diagram, via a pair of $27 \Omega 3 \mathrm{~W}$ resistors.

These MOSFETs are normally switched off and no current can flow through them. If the voltage across one battery


Fig.1: the circuit for the Battery Balancer, shows the balancing section at top and low-voltage cut-out at bottom, based around dual micropower op amps IC1 and IC2 respectively. IC1 drives dual MOSFETs Q1 and Q2 to perform balancing when necessary; IC2 drives the indicator LEDs and disables IC1 using MOSFET Q3 when the battery voltage is low.
rises by more than 100 mV above the other, the MOSFET across that battery is switched on.

If the battery is being charged, this has the effect of shunting some of the charge current around that battery so that it receives a lower charging current than the other, decreasing the voltage differential over time, as the battery with the lower voltage is then receiving more charging current.
If the unit is operating while the battery is not being charged, the effect is to slightly discharge the battery with the higher voltage until they are closer in voltage.

It's a linear circuit, so the shunt current is proportional to the difference in voltage. As the imbalance rises, so does the shunt current until the limit of around 300 mA is reached. This is to prevent the MOSFET and resistor from overheating.

## Detecting a voltage difference

A resistive divider comprising two $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ resistors and a $200 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ trimpot VR1 is connected across the battery, before diodes D1 and D2 so that their forward voltage does not affect the calculation of the difference in voltages.
VR1 is adjusted so that the voltage at its wiper is exactly half that of the total battery. This half-battery voltage is buffered by voltage-follower op amp IC1a. This op amp has a very high input resistance of around $40 \mathrm{G} \Omega$, resulting in a low input bias current of approximately 250 pA , so the high values of these resistors (chosen to minimise the quiescent
current) will not result in a large error voltage. The other half of the dual op amp (IC1b) compares the voltage at the junction of the two batteries (from pin 2 of CON1) to the output voltage from IC1a. If the upper battery has a higher voltage than the lower battery then the half-battery voltage will be higher than the voltage at pin 2 of CON1. That means that the voltage at non-inverting input pin 5 will be higher than at the inverting input, pin 6.
As a result, IC1b's output will swing positive. The ratio of the $390 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ feedback resistor to the $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor that goes to the battery junction (ie, 39:1) means that the output will increase by 40 mV for each 1 mV difference in battery voltages.
Once the voltage at output pin 7 has risen by a couple of volts, N-channel MOSFET Q1a will switch on because its gate is being driven above its source, which connects to pin 2 of CON1 via a low-value shunt resistor ( $47 \mathrm{~m} \Omega$ ).
So current will flow from the positive terminal of the upper battery, through diode D1, the $27 \Omega 3 \mathrm{~W}$ resistor, MOSFET Q1a and then the $47 \mathrm{~m} \Omega$ resistor to the negative terminal of the upper battery.
Once this current starts to flow, it will also develop a voltage across the $47 \mathrm{~m} \Omega$ resistor, which will increase the voltage at pin 6 of IC1b, providing negative feedback. This feedback is around $1 \mathrm{mV} / 20 \mathrm{~mA}$, due to the shunt value.

This prevents Q1a from switching fully on. Rather, its gate voltage will increase until the current through the $47 \mathrm{~m} \Omega$ resistor cancels out the difference in the two voltages.

## Features and specifications



Note that 8.1 V is slightly more than half the typical voltage of one 12 V battery and this is why the resistor dissipates slightly more than the MOSFET, in line with their ratings.

## Balancing the other battery

The other half of the balancing is a mirror-image; for balancing the lower battery, MOSFET Q2b is a P-channel type and thus switches on when its gate is driven below its source. As with Q1a, its source is connected to the junction of the two batteries via the $47 \mathrm{~m} \Omega$ resistor.

When the lower battery voltage is higher than the upper battery, output

Hence, the maximum shunt current of 300 mA will be achieved with an imbalance around $130 \mathrm{mV}(100 \mathrm{mV}+$ $300 \mathrm{~mA} \times 0.047 \Omega \times 2$ ) .

The $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ resistor between pin 3 of IC1a and pin 2 of CON1 serves mainly to prevent the balancer from operating should the junction of the batteries become disconnected from CON1. It also makes setting the unit up and adjusting VR1 easier. It has a negligible effect on the voltage at pin 3 since there's normally such a small voltage across it.

## Current limiting

Had we specified $68 \Omega$ resistors in series with Q1a and Q2b (rather than $27 \Omega$ ), there would be no need for additional current-limiting circuitry since the resistors would naturally limit the balancing current within their dissipation ratings.

However, this would mean that at the maximum balancing current, all the dissipation would be in this resistor and none in the MOSFET, meaning the maximum current would be 200 mA [ $14 \mathrm{~V} \div 68 \Omega$ ].

We realised we could increase this by $50 \%$ by splitting the dissipation between the MOSFET and its series resistor. The resistor has a 3 W rating while the MOSFET has a 2 W rating, giving the possibility of a total of just under 5 W . With a battery voltage of 29 V and a balancing current of 300 mA , dissipation is around 2.7 W in the resistor and 1.7W in the MOSFET.

We achieve this dissipation sharing by preventing the MOSFET from turning on fully and using a lower value limiting resistor. This is the purpose of Q1b and the three resistors between TP2 and TP3.

These resistors bias the gate of Q1b at a voltage that's initially about halfway between the negative and positive terminals of the upper battery (ie, at a voltage between that of pins 1 and 2 of CON1). However, as the balancing current for the upper battery increases, the voltage at the junction of the $27 \Omega$ resistor and Q1a drops, and therefore, so does Q1b's gate voltage.

Q1b is a P-channel MOSFET, and so it switches on when its gate is a few volts below its source terminal. The source terminal is connected to the gate of Q1a, which is about 2 V above pin 2 of CON1 when Q1a is in conduction.

So as the current through Q1a builds and Q1b's gate voltage drops, eventually Q1b begins to conduct, pulling the gate of Q1a negative and cutting it off. This forms a negative feedback path and due to the gate capacitances, the circuit stabilises at a particular current level.

With 300 mA through the $27 \Omega$ resistor, the voltage across it will be 8.1 V [0.3A $\times 27 \Omega$ ] and this translates to a gatesource voltage for Q1b of around -2 V ; ie, just enough for it to conduct current. The $4.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor between output pin 7 of IC1b and the gate of Q1a prevents Q1b from 'fighting' the output of the op amp too much.
pin 7 of IC1b goes negative, switching Q2b on.
The same current-limiting circuitry is present, but this time, Q2a is an N-channel MOSFET, so that as current builds through the lower $27 \Omega$ resistor and the voltage at the junction of it and Q2b rises, Q2a switches on and limits the current to a similar 300 mA value, with roughly the same dissipation split between the two components.

A 10 nF capacitor across IC1b's $390 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ feedback resistor slows down its action so that it doesn't react to any noise or EMI which may be present at the battery terminals (eg, due to a switch-mode load).

It also prevents the circuit from oscillating due to the negative feedback and the action of the current limiters.

## Under-voltage cut-out

Commercial battery balancers tend to only operate when the battery voltage is near maximum, as this is when they are being charged. That avoids the possibility of the balancer discharging the batteries when they are under load.

However, we're not convinced this is a good idea. It's possible to have a sufficient initial imbalance that one battery could be over-charged before the balancer even activates. And full-time balancing also has the advantage that it can start re-balancing the cells as soon as an imbalance occurs, which also avoids over-discharge and gives it more time for re-balancing.

There is one other advantage to having a higher undervoltage lockout threshold - it will prevent the balancer being triggered due to differing internal resistance of the batteries when under heavy load. This could create a voltage difference between the batteries even when they are at an equal state of charge.

If you want the balancer to be active, even when the batteries are not being charged, you still need the undervoltage lockout circuitry to prevent the balancer from over-discharging either battery. But in that case, you would change its threshold to be close to the fully discharged voltage of your combined battery.

For a pair of lithium-based 12 V rechargeable batteries, this would normally be around 20 V total. That's to protect the case where one battery has a failure (eg, shorted cell) which causes its voltage to drop dramatically. The under-voltage detection circuitry will then prevent the balancer from overdischarging the other battery in response, and potentially destroying it. See the section below on how to change the cut-out threshold if you want to take this approach.

The increased battery drain of the low-voltage cut-out section is only about $10 \mu \mathrm{~A}$. As a bonus, it drives the three LEDs to indicate when the balancer is operating and which battery is being shunted.

This is implemented using IC2a, another LT1495 op amp. Its positive supply is the same as for IC1a, but its negative


Fig.2: use the PCB overlay diagram at left and matching photo at right as a guide to assembling the PCB. Only one SMD component (a $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ resistor) is soldered to the bottom, the rest go on the top as shown. The main aspects to pay attention to during constructon are that the semiconductors are correctly oriented and that you fit the resistors and capacitors in the correct locations.


Two more examples would be a 22 V cut-out, which would require $5.67 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ total; you could use $5.6 \mathrm{M} \Omega+68 \mathrm{k} \Omega$. Or for a 20 V cut-out, you would need $5.06 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ which could be formed using $4.7 \mathrm{M} \Omega+360 \mathrm{k} \Omega$.

## Paralleling multiple boards

As stated, one board can handle around 300 mA and will dissipate up to around 4.5W. If you're using a 3A charger, that means it can handle a $\sim 10 \%$ imbalance in charge between batteries (which would be unusually high).
However, with a 10A charger, it will only handle a $\sim 3 \%$ imbalance, with a 20 A charger $\sim 1.5 \%$, and so on. A greater imbalance could potentially lead to over-charging as the balancer can't 'keep up'. So if your charger can deliver more than 5A, you may want to consider paralleling multiple balancers and we would strongly recommend it for a charger capable of 10A or more.
When properly adjusted, the balancers will share the load. Realistically, one of them will start balancing first, but if it's unable to keep the imbalance voltage low, the others will quickly kick in and shunt additional current.

Since the only external connections are via 3-way pin header CON1, you could simply stack the boards by running thick ( 1 mm ) tinned copper wire through these pads and soldering them to each board in turn. You can then solder the battery wires to these wires.

## Sourcing the parts

The PCB is available from the Practical Electronics PCB Service, board code 14106181.

All the other parts are available from Digi-Key. You can find the semiconductors on their website by searching for their part number and then narrowing down the list (eg, ignoring listings which are out of stock or only sold in large quantities). Visit: www.digikey.co.uk

For the other, more generic parts like SMD resistors, you can find them by searching for (for example) 'SMD resistor $12064.7 \mathrm{k} 1 \%$ ' and then sorting the result by price. The cheapest part which matches the specifications should do the job just fine. But be careful - sometimes the search results include parts with different properties than you are expecting. You will need to skip over those.
Mouser, another large electronics retailer, will almost certainly have all the required parts too - www.mouser.co.uk

If either of these suppliers are out of stock for a device then it's also worth checking element14 (formerly Farnell) - see: https://uk.farnell.com

## Construction

The 12V Battery Balancer is built on a small double-sided PCB measuring $31.5 \times 34.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ and uses mostly surfacemounted parts. These are all relatively large and easy to solder. Refer to the overlay diagram, Fig.2, to see where each component goes on the board. Some of them (the ICs, MOSFETs, diodes and trimpot) are polarised, so be sure to fit them with the orientation shown.
There are two small SOT-23 package devices, MOSFET Q3 and voltage reference REF1. Fit these first. They look
almost identical so don't get them mixed up; only the tiny coded markings on the top of each set them apart.

Tack solder the central pin to the pad in each case, then check that the other two pins are centred on their pads and that all pins are in contact with the PCB surface. If not, reheat the initial solder joint and nudge the part into place. Then solder the two remaining pins and add a little extra solder to the first pin (or a bit of flux paste and heat it) to ensure the fillet is good.

Next, solder IC1, IC2, Q1 and Q2. They are all in eightpin packages and must be oriented correctly. Identifying pin 1 can be a bit tricky. For IC1 and IC2, you have to find the chamfered edge, which is quite subtle. Pin 1 is on that side. Q1 and Q2 have pin 1 marked by a much more clear divot in the corner of the package. But you can also orient IC1 and IC2 by matching the position of the markings up to our photo.

In each case, make sure the device is positioned correctly and tack solder one pin, then as before, check the locations of the other pads are correct and solder them before refreshing the first joint. If you accidentally bridge two pins with solder, use a little flux paste and some solder wick to clean it up.

The only remaining SMD parts which are polarised are diodes D1 and D2. Fit these now, ensuring the striped end goes towards the top edge of the PCB, as shown in Fig. 2 and marked with ' $K$ ' on the PCB. Then solder the two 3W resistors in place. Follow with the remaining SMD ceramic capacitors and chip resistors, as shown in the overlay diagram.

For the two-pin devices, make sure that you apply the soldering iron long enough so that the solder adheres to the PCB and the component. Adding a little flux paste to the PCB pads before positioning the part will make this easier.

There is a single component on the underside of the board, a $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ resistor positioned between CON1 and VR1. Solder it in place, but use a minimal amount of solder, so that you don't plug the through-holes underneath. You can add more solder later after CON1 and VR1 are in place.

All that's left is to solder trimpot VR1 with the adjustment screw oriented as shown, and a pin header for CON1. We used a normal pin header, but a polarised header would be a good idea if you're going to use a plug to make connection to the batteries so that it can't be accidentally reversed. If it is reversed, D1 and D2 should prevent damage but the balancer won't work!

Or you can solder the battery wires directly to these three pads. They only need to be rated to handle 300 mA per board; medium-duty hookup wire should be more than sufficient, even if paralleling multiple boards.

## Testing and set-up

Connect your batteries in series, then connect the negativemost terminal directly to the negative terminal on CON1. Do not connect the junction of the two batteries to the Balancer just yet.

Ensure that the total battery voltage is well above the threshold and that they are reasonably close to being balanced. You can ensure they are balanced by charging both independently and then connecting them in parallel via a low-value, high-power resistor (eg, $1 \Omega 5 \mathrm{~W}$ ) and leaving them for a few hours. The voltage across the resistor should drop to a very low level once their voltages equalise.

Now connect the most positive terminal to the positive pin of CON1 via a $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor and check that LED1 lights up. LEDs 2 and 3 should remain off. Measure the voltage across the $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor. It should be under 20 mV . If it's under 5 mV or over 20 mV , disconnect the battery and check for errors in your PCB assembly or battery wiring.

## Parts list 2× 12V Battery Balancer

1 double-sided PCB, coded 14106181, $31.5 \times 34.5 \mathrm{~mm}$
3 3-way right-angle or vertical pin header (CON1)

## Semiconductors

2 LT1495CS8 dual micropower op amps, SOIC-8 (IC1,IC2)
1 ZXRE330ASA-7 micropower 3.3V reference, SOT-23 (REF1)
2 DMC3021LSDQ dual N-channel/P-channel power MOSFETs, SOIC-8 (Q1,Q2)
12 N7000 N-channel signal MOSFET, SOT-23 (Q3)
1 green LED, SMD 3216/1206 (LED1)
1 red LED, SMD 3216/1206 (LED2)
1 blue LED, SMD 3216/1206 (LED3)
2 S1G 1A schottky diodes or similar, D0-214AC (D1,D2)
Capacitors (all SMD 3216/1206 X7R ceramic)
2100 nF 50 V (measure value before installing!)
110 nF 50 V (measure value before installing!)
Resistors (all SMD 3216/1206 1\%)
$610 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ (Code 1005)
$16.8 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ (Code 6804)
$25.6 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ (Code 5604)
12.2M (Code 2204)
$11 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ (Code 1004)
2 390k (Code 3903)
2 100k $\Omega$ (Code 1003)
2 10k $\Omega$ (Code 1002)
$24.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ (Code 4701)
$11 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ (Code 1001)
2 27 3 3W (SMD 6331/2512)
[eg, TE Connectivity 352227RFT]
$147 \mathrm{~m} \Omega$ [eg, Panasonic ERJ-L08KF47MV]
$1200 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ 25-turn vertical trimpot (VR1)
For tips and tricks on soldering SMD components, refer to the July 2010 EPE article: How to Solder Surface Mount Devices.

Assuming the voltage is within the specified range, remove or short out the $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ test resistor and then connect the junction of the two batteries to pin 2 of CON1. LED2 and LED3 may light up. If so, rotate the adjustment screw in VR1 until they are both off.

Now check that there is no balance current flowing by measuring the voltage between TP1 and TP2, and between TP3 and TP4. In each case, the reading should be zero. If you get a non-zero reading between TP1 and TP2, current is flowing through Q1a. And if there's a voltage between TP3 and TP4, current is flowing through Q2b.

Since you started out with balanced voltages, this should not be the case, so adjust VR1 further until you get a zero reading across both pairs of test points. Ideally, VR1 should be adjusted to halfway between the point where the voltage starts to rise between one pair of test points, and the point at which the voltage rises across the other pair of test points. This ensures the balancing will be, for lack of a better word, 'balanced'!

The maximum reading you should get between one pair of test points should be 8.8 V . Any more than that and you risk the resistor dissipation rating being exceeded. In this case, disconnect the batteries and change the $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ resistor right next to VR1 on the top side of the board with a slightly lower value (eg, $9.1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ or $8.2 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ ) to reduce the current limit.

If that doesn't fix it then it's likely that the current-limiting circuitry is not working so you should check for soldering problems or faulty components.

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here are many applications for a device of this type. Just some of the things we thought of 'off the top of our heads', include:

- Cutting power (or fuel) to a motor if it exceeds a certain speed
- Switching a fan on at low vehicle speeds to provide improved cooling
- Giving a warning to change gears when the engine RPM is approaching the tacho red line
- Switching from long to short intake runners at a particular engine RPM to optimise power delivery
- Switching off a pump if a flow meter records the water flow is outside a specific range
- Switching on an alarm if wind speed exceeds a certain threshold
- Applying a brake or feathering blades on suitably equipped turbines.

Of course, there are countless other uses - you're probably thinking of others that suit your particular application.

As long as it has, or can be fitted with a sensor, to provide a frequency which varies with speed, temperature, flow or other parameter, you can use our new Deluxe Frequency Switch. It can do all of this and much more.

## Setting the two frequencies

 You need to set up two frequencies, not one as you might have initially thought.Why do you need two frequencies? We need to set two frequencies because if the signal from your chosen sensor varies by even a small amount at close to the switching threshold, the relay would be constantly chattering on and off - not good at all. So we set an upper frequency threshold
above which the sensor signal must rise before the relay switches on. And then we set a lower frequency threshold below which the sensor signal must drop before the relay is switched off.

You can set these two frequencies close together or far apart.
Setting the frequencies is dead-easy and there are several methods for doing it. The first method is to feed in your wanted set frequency, say 500 Hz , from an oscillator or other source to the sensor input and then press switch S2. Then feed in the wanted lower frequency, say 400 Hz , and then press S1.

The second method is arguably even easier. You just set one frequency, say 500 Hz , and then use an on-board trimpot (VR1) to set the hysteresis. This will effectively set the lower frequency (down to a minimum of 250 Hz in this example) and you can tweak it at the time of installation.

If you don't have an oscillator you could use the real signal that you intend controlling the unit with, so long as you can hold it steady at the required frequency/frequencies for long enough to press the switch(es).

Alternatively, if that's too difficult, you actually can get the microcontroller to generate the wanted frequencies. This second method is more involved
than the first and we will describe the procedure later in this article.

## Detection time and delay

You can also configure the unit with a switching delay which is adjusted with trimpot VR2 and can be set between zero and 500 ms (ie, half a second). This ensures that if the signal frequency only momentarily crosses one of the thresholds, it will not cause the relay to switch.

The input signal frequency must remain at or beyond the threshold for the entire delay time before any relay switching will occur.

Each time the frequency crosses the threshold, the delay time starts again.

If you prefer switching to happen immediately then set the response time to zero (ie, VR2 fully anticlockwise).

## LED indicators

To help in the set-up and installation procedures, we have included indicator LEDs to show when an input signal is present and its frequency range:

- LED2 lights for frequencies between 0.5 Hz and 10 Hz
- LED3 lights between 10 Hz and 100 Hz
- LED4 between 100 Hz and 1 kHz
- LED5 for frequencies between 1 kHz and 10 kHz and all four LEDs light if the frequency is above 10 kHz .

Other LEDs show when the set threshold frequency is reached and whether the relay is on or off.

## Relay options

The relay is a double-pole change-over (double throw) type (ie, DPDT) which can switch one or two loads, each
up to $5 \mathrm{~A} / 48 \mathrm{~V}$ ( 8 A if you use the specified relay from Altronics).

You have the option to get the relay to switch on if the sensor signal rises above the threshold frequency (set by S2) and switch off if the sensor signal drops below the threshold set by S1.

The alternative is to get the relay to switch on if the sensor drops below the lower threshold frequency (set by switch S1) and switch off if the sensor signal rises above the threshold frequency (set by switch S2). The second mode is activated by installing a link at JP1 on the PCB.

## Block diagram

Fig. 1 (above) shows how the Deluxe Frequency Switch monitors the signal frequency. The PIC16F88 micro's internal clock is derived from a 20 MHz crystal which is driven by an internal oscillator amplifier.

The resulting 20 MHz clock signal is divided by four to produce a 5 MHz signal which drives an internal 16-bit timer, TIMER1. This comprises two 8 -bit cascaded timers, TIMER1H and TIMER1L.

We have implemented an 8-bit overflow counter (OVER) in the unit's firmware. That extends TIMER1 out to 24 bits, so it rolls over every 3.355 seconds [or $2^{24} \div 5,000,000$ ]. This equates to an input frequency close to 0.3 Hz . Hence, the unit is designed to handle signals from 1 Hz and up.
The input signal is fed to pin 6, which is also the Capture/Compare/ PWM (CCP) pin. The Capture module hardware in the micro is configured so that on each positive signal transition at this pin (ie, low-to-high), the values of TIMER1H and TIMER1L are copied into the CAPTURE1H and CAPTURE1 L registers and an interrupt flag is set.

This then triggers an interrupt handler routine which copies the contents of the OVER register into the CAPTURE OVER variable.

The timers and overflow counters are then reset to zero, ready to count until the next input positive-going edge.

The captured count represents the number of pulses from the 5 MHz clock signal over the period between the two positive input signal edges.

So for example, a 1 Hz input signal will have a one-second period between each positive edge. The count value stored will therefore be 5,000,000 (5M). At 1 kHz , the period between positive edges is 1 ms and the captured value will be 5000 .
To calculate the frequency, all we need to do is to perform the calculation $\mathrm{F}(\mathrm{Hz})=5,000,000 \div$ value. Or we can calculate the period as $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{s})=$ value $\div$ 5,000,000.


Fig.1: This block diagram describes how the microcontroller measures frequency.

In reality, the micro just has to convert the upper and lower threshold settings to these same count units and then compare the counter values to those stored values, to determine whether either threshold has been crossed.

## On-board frequency generation

Where the microcontroller produces an output frequency for you to measure during adjustment (as per setup method on page 23), pin 6 (CCP1) is configured differently. Rather than being in Capture Mode, with pin 6 as an input, it is used in Compare Mode and pin 6 is an output.

TIMER1 is still driven with the same 5 MHz signal but the TIMER1L, TIMER1H and OVER registers are preloaded with values calculated from the frequency to be produced. Each time OVER register overflows, the pin 6 output toggles and new values are loaded into the TIMER1L, TIMER1H and OVER registers.

Because pin 6 toggles each time the counters overflow, the output frequency would be half what you might expect based on the period value for the required frequency. So we need to divide the period by two to give two separate half periods.

This means there will be an error whenever an odd period value is used, since dividing it by two will yield a remainder of one.

To solve this, and avoid the inaccuracy, two different pre-load values are used. They are used alternately to load into the TIMER1L and TIMER1H registers. So the duty cycle will not quite be $50 \%$ but the frequency produced will be accurate. The values from each of the separate period values are loaded into the TIMER1L, TIMER1H and OVER counters alternately. At the same time, the output at pin 6 is changed in level.

For those interested, the values to pre-load into TIMER1L, TIMER1H and the OVER variable are calculated

## Features

- Energises a relay when a signal goes above a preset frequency and keeps it on until the signal drops below a second preset frequency
- Adjustable hysteresis can be used instead of setting upper and lower frequencies
- Switching frequency can be from 1 Hz to 10 kHz
- Adjustable switching delay
- Two sets of 5A changeover relay contacts
- Easy pushbutton set-up
- Can be set up on the bench or in situ
- Threshold can be set using a signal generator or frequency meter (eg, DMM)
- On-board signal frequency range indicators
- Power, threshold and relay-on LED indicators.
as $2^{24}-(5,000,000 \div f(\mathrm{~Hz})) \div 2$, with the alternative value being one higher in cases where $5,000,000 \div f \mathrm{~Hz}$ is odd.


## Circuit description

The full circuit shown in Fig. 2 is based on microcontroller IC1, a PIC16F88. This monitors the input frequency, jumper state (JP1 and JP2), switch state (S1 and S2) and trimpot settings (VR1 and VR2). It also drives the frequency LEDs (LED2-LED5), threshold LED (LED6) and the relay coil (RLY1) and its associated LED (LED7) via NPN transistor Q2.

Power is fed in via CON1 and the supply is nominally 12 V DC. Diode D1 provides reverse polarity protection and its cathode connects directly to the positive terminal of the relay coil, applying a nominal 11.4 V to it as well as to the 5 V regulator, REG1 and it powers the rest of the circuit.

A $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ electrolytic capacitor is used to filter the supply voltage and transients are clamped using a 16 V zener diode (ZD1), with the peak current limited by the series $47 \Omega$ resistor.

The supply is further filtered by another $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitor and then REG1 reduces the 11.4 V supply to 5 V for IC1 and input conditioning transistor Q1. The power LED (LED1) is connected across the 5 V supply with a $3.3 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ series current-limiting resistor.

The input signal is fed into CON2 and it's AC-coupled via a $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitor and $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor to the


Fig.2: the circuit is based around a PIC16F88-I/P, which measures the incoming frequency and energises the relay if the frequency is above or below certain values and whether JP1 is present or not. It also has pre-settable response times and hysteresis to prevent 'chattering'. LEDs give you visual indication of the operation as well.
base of Q1. The 470 pF capacitor filters any transients while diode D2 clamps the base voltage at -0.7 V for negative excursions. Q1 inverts and amplifies the signal, suitable for the capture compare input (CCP1) at pin 6 of IC1.

## Frequency measurement modes

When the micro is configured to generate frequencies for setting the upper and lower thresholds, the output signal appears at pin 6 and TP3. For this to work, there must be no input signal at CON2 and this means that Q1 is biased off and it will not load the output signal from pin 6.

20 MHz crystal oscillator X 1 is connected to IC1, between its CLKO and CLKI pins, to allow for accurate and wide-ranging frequency measurements. The MCLR reset input is tied to the 5 V supply via a $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor to provide a power-on reset for the microcontroller (IC1).

Internal pull-up currents within IC1 hold the RB1 and RB2 inputs high when switches S1 and S2 are not pressed and similarly, are enabled for the RB5 and RB6 inputs which are connected to jumpers JP1 and JP2. These inputs are pulled low if a switch is pressed or jumper plug inserted, and this can be sensed by IC1.

Output pins RA0 (17), RB4 (10), RB7 (13) and RA1 (18) drive signal indicators LED2-LED5 via $3.3 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ currentlimiting resistors at around 1 mA each. Similarly, output RA4 (pin 3) drives the threshold LED (LED6). The RB3 output (pin 9) switches transistor Q2 on when it goes high. This transistor in turn switches on the relay. Diode D3 quenches back-EMF from the coil as Q2 is switched off.

LED7 is also switched on when the relay is powered. It's wired across the relay coil and uses a $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ series resistor due to the higher voltage ( 11.4 V ). It provides the same current to LED7 as for the other LEDs.

Trimpots VR1 and VR2 set the default hysteresis and delay time and both are connected across the 5 V supply, with their wipers connected to analogue inputs AN2 (pin 1) and AN3 (pin 2) respectively. The voltages at these pins are converted to digital values using IC1's inbuilt 10-bit analogue-to-digital converter (ADC). The 100 nF capacitors between each of these two pins and ground provide a low-impedance source for the ADC during conversions.

## Construction

The Deluxe Frequency Switch is built on a double-sided PCB coded

05104181, available from the Practical Electronics PCB Service. It measures $102 \times 58.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ and fits in a plastic utility box measuring $129 \times 68 \times 43 \mathrm{~mm}$.

Follow the overlay diagram, Fig.3, when installing the parts. Fit the resistors first - we recommend you use a digital multimeter (DMM) to check the values before soldering them.

Diodes D1, D2, D3 and ZD1 are next, and these need to be inserted with the correct polarity, with the striped end (cathode, k) oriented as shown in the overlay diagram. Diode D2 is the 1N4148 type while D1 and D3 are 1N4004.
We recommend using an IC socket for IC1. Take care with orientation when installing the socket and when

Table 1: Hysteresis setting versus voltage at TP1.

| TP1 voltage <br> (adjusted <br> with VR1) <br> 5 V | Hysteresis <br> when setting <br> upper threshold <br> $50 \%$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 3.75 V | $43 \%$ |
| 2.5 V | $33 \%$ |
| 1.25 V | $20 \%$ |
| 625 mV | $12 \%$ |
| 312.5 mV | $6 \%$ |

inserting the IC. For the test points, we used two PC stakes, one for TP GND and the other for TP3. We left the remaining test points as bare pads so a multimeter probe can be inserted.

Install the two 2-way pin headers for JP1 and JP2 and then follow with the capacitors.

The electrolytic types must be fitted with the polarity shown (long lead to pad marked plus; the stripe indicates the negative side) and note that the $10 \mu \mathrm{FNP}$ capacitor is non polarised and so can be installed either way around.

Next, mount transistors Q1 and Q2 and also REG1. Take care not to mix them up because they come in identical packages.

Trimpots VR1 and VR2 are next to be fitted. They may be marked as '103' instead of $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$. Orient VR1 with the adjusting screw as shown.

CON1 to CON3 can now be installed. CON1 and CON2 are 2-way types and CON3 comprises two 3-way screw connectors dovetailed together. Fit all connectors with the wire entry to the edge of the PCB.

Finally, the LEDs and relay RLY1 can be installed. We placed the LEDs close to the PCB, but they can be mounted higher or mounted off the PCB if you wish, connected with flying leads.

Although presented as a bare PCB, the unit fits in a UB3 Jiffy box. In this case, attach the PCB to the base of the box using spacers. First, mark out and drill 3 mm holes for each of the corner mounting holes.

You will also need to drill holes at each end of the box for cable glands. A gland at one end is used for the power and signal wires while a gland at the other end allows the relay contacts to be wired up as required.

## Set up

You have several options for setting the unit up. You can set it up before installation using an oscillator or the actual signal source (if it can be held steady enough) when you install it.

## 1) Oscillator method

Power the unit up with a 12 V power supply wired to CON1. Connect the oscillator to CON2. Set the signal amplitude to 2 V peak-to-peak or 0.7 V RMS.

Set the oscillator to your desired upper threshold frequency (eg, 500 Hz ) and press S2. Then reduce the oscillator to set the lower threshold (eg, 400 Hz ) then press S1. That's all there is to it.

If you want to set a single threshold frequency (ie, the upper threshold) and use the hysteresis setting, fit a link to JP2. Then adjust trimpot VR1 for the required hysteresis (percentage) while you monitor the voltage at TP1. Then


Fig.2: component layout for the Deluxe Frequency Switch with a matching photo below. We suggest using an IC socket for IC1 - and make sure when you place the connectors, their wiring access holes all point to the outside of the PCB.

set the oscillator for the desired frequency and press S2.

Alternatively, if you want to set a single threshold frequency at the lower threshold and use the hysteresis setting for the upper threshold, fit a link to JP2. Then adjust trimpot VR1 for the required hysteresis while you monitor the voltage at TP1. Then set the oscillator for the lower threshold frequency and press S1.

Table 1 shows example relationships between the voltage at TP1 and the percentage hysteresis. For example, if you set VR1 to give 1.25 V at TP1, the hysteresis will be $20 \%$ and the resulting lower threshold frequency will be $20 \%$ lower than the frequency you set with switch S2.

Note that you can also set the unit with only one threshold frequency and that will mean the relay will latch on when the signal goes above the threshold and will stay on until the power is turned off.

To set just a single threshold frequency, set the oscillator to the desired frequency and then press S2. Then disconnect the signal from CON2 and wait until the signal LEDs all are off. Then press S1 to set the lower frequency to zero.

No link is required at JP1 if you want the relay to switch on as the frequency rises above the threshold set by S2 (and
turns off when the frequency drops below that set by S1).

Alternatively, install JP1 if you want the relay to switch on as the frequency falls below the threshold set by S1 (and turn off when the frequency rises above the threshold set by S2).

## 2) Frequency meter method

The advantage of this approach is that you don't need an oscillator but you will need a frequency meter or oscilloscope to measure the frequency at TP3.

To get into this mode, connect your frequency meter or DMM between TP3 and GND.

Switch off power, hold down both S1 and S2 and then switch on the power. The micro then produces a 100 Hz signal at TP3.

To adjust this default frequency to obtain your desired upper threshold, press S1 and S2 until it reaches your target. S2 increases frequency, while S1 decreases frequency.

Short presses of the switches will alter the frequency at a slow rate. For faster changes, hold the switch down and the rate will change to a faster rate after two seconds. Continue to depress the switch for another two seconds and the frequency will change at an even faster rate.

This allows you to run through the entire frequency range in less than
one minute but still be able to do finer adjustments with brief switch presses.

Having reached your target frequency, insert JP1. Then press S2 to set the upper threshold frequency. Then remove JP1. Then press S1 to reduce the frequency to the lower threshold. Then re-insert JP1 and press S1 to set the lower frequency threshold.

Note the two-step process to set each frequency. In other words, with JP1 out, use S2 and S1 to adjust the frequency to

## Parts list - Deluxe Frequency Switch

1 double-sided PCB coded 05104181, $102 \times 58.5 \mathrm{~mm}$
1 DPDT 12V DC coil relay (RLY1) [Jaycar SY-4052 \{5A\}, Altronics S 4270A \{8A\}]
22-way screw terminals with 5.08 mm pin spacing(CON1,CON2)
23 -way screw terminals with 5.08 mm pin spacing (CON3)
2 2-way pin headers with shorting blocks (JP1,JP2)
1 18-pin DIL IC socket (for IC1)
1 20MHz crystal (X1)
2 SPST PCB-mount tactile pushbutton switches (S1,S2)
[Jaycar SP0600, Altronics S 1120]
2 PC stakes (TP GND,TP3)

## Semiconductors

1 PIC16F88-I/P microcontroller programmed with 0510418A.HEX (IC1)
1 LP2950ACZ-5.0 low dropout regulator (REG1)
1 BC547 100mA NPN transistor (Q1)
1 BC337500mA NPN transistor (Q2)
1 16V 1W zener diode (1N4745) (ZD1)
2 1N4004 1A diodes (D1,D3)
11 N4148 signal diode (D2)
7 3mm LEDs (LED1-LED7)

## Capacitors

$1100 \mu \mathrm{~F} 25 \mathrm{~V}$ PC electrolytic
$210 \mu \mathrm{~F} 16 \mathrm{~V}$ PC electrolytic
$110 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ non-polarised (NP) PC electrolytic
4 100nF 63V/100V MKT polyester
1 1nF 63V/100V MKT polyester
1470 pF ceramic
2 27pF NPO/COG ceramic
Resistors and Potentiometers
(all 1\%, 0.25W)
$11 \mathrm{M} \Omega \quad 1100 \mathrm{k} \Omega \quad 410 \mathrm{k} \Omega$
$63.3 \mathrm{k} \Omega \quad 11 \mathrm{k} \Omega \quad 147 \Omega$
$110 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ vertical multi-turn trimpot, 3296W style (VR1)
$110 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ mini horizontal trimpot, 3386F style (VR2)
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the wanted value, insert JP1 and press S2 to set the upper threshold.

Then remove JP1, use S1 and S2 to obtain the lower threshold frequency, insert JP1 again and press S1.

Alternatively, if you just want to set the upper threshold frequency with S2 and have the hysteresis setting made for the lower threshold as set by trimpot (VR2), then you must have a link fitted to JP2 before you start the procedure. Similarly, you can set the lower threshold with S1 and have the upper threshold set by the hysteresis percentage value as set by VR2.
Now turning off the power takes the micro out of the mode whereby it produces an output frequency at TP3. It then reverts to normal operation, monitoring the input frequency instead.

Then fit a link to JP1 if you want the relay to switch on as the frequency falls below the threshold set by S1 (and turns off when the frequency rises above that set by S2).

No link is required at JP1 if you want the relay to switch on as the frequency rises above the threshold set by S2 (and turns off when the frequency drops below that set by S1).
If you want to configure the unit with a switching delay (as described earlier) you need to adjust trimpot VR2. You can set the delay anywhere between zero and half a second. If you don't want a delay set VR2 fully anti-clockwise.

## Installation

Connect the $10-16 \mathrm{~V}$ DC power source between the +12 V and GND inputs at CON1. For automotive installations, automotive-rated wire should be used and the +12 V terminal needs to connect to the switched side of the ignition.

That way, the unit only operates when the ignition is switched on and

## Using a tacho signal

Imagine you are using the engine tacho signal to switch the relay if a certain engine RPM is exceeded - for example, 6000 RPM.
If you have a 4-cylinder, 4-stroke engine, 6000 RPM = 100 revolutions per second. Since this type of engine fires two cylinders per crankshaft rotation, then the threshold should be set to 200 Hz [100 x 2].
the vehicle battery won't go flat after long periods of being parked.

The easiest way to connect the GND terminal in a vehicle is to wire it to the chassis using a crimped eyelet secured to a convenient screw terminal.

You may need to drill a separate hole in the chassis for this connection, or utilise an existing earth connection.

Wire CON2 to a suitable sensor. This can be the speedometer sensor, an ECU tachometer output, an injector or camshaft position sensor and so on. If you haven't already set the unit up, do so as described above above.

The relay contacts are labelled Normally Open (NO), Normally Closed (NC) and Common (COM).

To switch power to a load, wire one of its supply lines in series between either the COM and NO terminals (so that it's only powered when the relay is energised) or COM and NC terminals (so that it's switched off when the relay is energised).

Note that the relay contact current rating is 5A for the Jaycar relay and 8A for the Altronics relay (see parts list).

If a higher current is required, you can switch 12 V DC to the coil of a larger relay using RLY1.


The Deluxe Frequency Switch PCB is designed to fit into a UB3 Jiffy box, as shown here - but it could also be 'built in' to equipment it is controlling. You may also be able to source the $\mathbf{1 0 - 1 6 V}$ DC from that equipment - as long as it isn't turned off by the frequency switch!

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- Microchip MPLAB IDE XC8 8-bit compiler
- PICkit 3 User Guide
- Lab-Nation

Smartscope software.


## Using Cheap Asian 引ectronic Modules Part 16: by Jim Rowe

# 35MHz-4.4GHz digitally controlled oscillator 

This programmable frequency module is based on the ADF4351 PLL (Phase-Locked Loop) IC and it can produce a sinewave from 35 MHz to 4.4 GHz , with crystal accuracy. It can even be used as a sweep generator and costs around $£ 12.50$.



TThat's an impressive range of frequencies that can be produced by this surprisingly compact ( $48 \times 36.5 \mathrm{x}$ 10 mm ) module. It is available from various Chinese websites including Banggood (http://bit.ly/pe-may19-rf), AliExpress and eBay, for around $£ 12.50$.

It's essentially a smaller, lower-cost version of the ADF4351 development board sold by Analog Devices. It runs from 5 V and has two RF outputs, one $180^{\circ}$ out of phase with the other, allowing it to produce either single-ended or differential signals.

It's controlled using a serial bus that's connected via a 10-pin header, which also makes connection to the 3.3 V supply rail.

The ADF4351 chip at the heart of the module is an advanced phase-locked loop (PLL) device. Before we delve into how the ADF4351 works, it's a good idea to briefly cover the operation of PLLs.

Fig. 1 shows the block diagram of a basic PLL. It incorporates a negative feedback loop, similar to the one used to improve the performance of audio amplifiers. However, in this case, rather than having a voltage divider providing the feedback signal, we have a frequency divider in the loop.

The PLL's output signal ( $\mathrm{F}_{\text {OUT }}$ ) is produced by the voltage-controlled oscillator (VCO) at upper right. The frequency divider divides this output frequency by a factor of N .

The resulting signal ( $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{FB}}$ ) is then fed to the negative input of phase detector PD , which compares its frequency and phase with $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{REF}}$, the signal from a low-frequency reference oscillator, fed to its positive input.

The PD output 'error' pulses are fed to charge pump CP, which uses them to develop a fluctuating DC voltage with a polarity and amplitude proportional to the frequency/phase differences between $F_{\text {REF }}$ and $F_{F B}$. This voltage is then low-pass filtered and used to control the VCO's frequency.

This feedback action causes the VCO frequency ( $\mathrm{F}_{\text {OUT }}$ ) to stabilise at very close to N times the reference frequency, $\mathrm{F}_{\text {REF }}$. The PLL is then described as being 'in lock', since the feedback action keeps $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{FB}}$ locked to $\mathrm{F}_{\text {REF }}$ in both frequency and phase.

So even if $\mathrm{F}_{\text {REF }}$ is fixed, by changing the division ratio N , we can control the frequency of $\mathrm{F}_{\text {out }}$. Basic PLLs like this have been in use for many decades but more elaborate versions have also been developed, to overcome some of the limitations of a basic PLL.

One of these limitations is that the minimum change in $\mathrm{F}_{\text {out }}$ is equal to $F_{\text {REF }}$, so you need quite a low reference frequency to have fine control over the output frequency.
But it's easier to produce accurate and stable reference oscillators at higher frequencies, so one of the first enhancements to PLLs was to add a reference frequency divider between the $\mathrm{F}_{\text {REF }}$ input and the phase detector PD.

Also, if the output frequency needs to be up in the GHz (gigahertz) range, it's not easy to provide a programmable divider working at these frequencies.
So another early PLL improvement was to add a fixed 'prescaler' to the feedback loop, between the VCO output and the input of the main (programmable) feedback divider.
Unfortunately, this reduces the output frequency adjustment resolution. However, this can be overcome by adopting what's referred to as a 'dual modulus prescaler'.

This is essentially a prescaler with a division ratio that can be switched from one value (say P) to another (like $\mathrm{P}+1$ ) by an external control signal.

We don't have space here to fully explain the operation of modern (and quite elaborate) PLLs, but the prior description should be enough to understand how the ADF4351 works.

## Inside the ADF4351

The block diagram of the ADF4351 IC (Fig.2) is somewhat more complex than the basic PLL shown in Fig.1. The VCO part of the device is labelled 'VCO CORE' and shaded pink.
There are actually four VCOs inside the core, each used to generate a different frequency range. They are all tuned


Fig.1: block diagram of a basic phase-locked loop. They're typically used to generate a stable high-frequency signal from a fixed lowfrequency signal.


Fig.2: block diagram of the ADF4351 wideband synthesiser IC. The integrated voltage-controlled oscillator has an output frequency range of 2.2 to 4.4 GHz , which, when combined with the RF divider, provides the $\sim 35 \mathrm{MHz}$ to 4.4 GHz range. The fractional-N PLL controls the frequency from its three registers via the equation: $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{OUT}}=\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{FB}} \times($ INT $+\mathrm{FRAC} \div \mathrm{MOD})$.
by the dual varicap diode shown to its right, using a tuning voltage fed in via the $\mathrm{V}_{\text {TUNE }}$ pin.

Above the VCO core, you can see the phase comparator and charge pump, both blue. The charge pump output goes to the $\mathrm{CP}_{\text {out }}$ pin, so that an external low-pass filter can be used to smooth the pulsating output of the charge pump before it is fed back into the ADF4351 via the $\mathrm{V}_{\text {TUNE }}$ pin.

The differential outputs from the bottom of the VCO core go to three different destinations. One of these is to the yellow 'RF DIVIDER' block to its right. This programmable frequency divider can divide the VCO output frequency by 1 (ie, no division), 2, 4, $8,16,32$ or 64.
This lets the chip generate low output frequencies while the VCO core is operating at much higher frequencies $(2.2-4.4 \mathrm{GHz})$.

The outputs from the RF divider are fed directly to the chip's main RF output stage, which drives the A+ out and A- out pins. The RF divider outputs also go to the inputs of two different multiplexers (digital selector switches), shown in mauve.
The auxiliary multiplexer on the right switches between the direct output lines from the VCO core and the outputs from the RF divider and so determines which is fed to the auxiliary RF output stage and then to the B+ and B- output pins. The PDBRF pin allows both RF output stages to be disabled when they are not needed, to save power.

The feedback ( $\mathrm{F} / \mathrm{B}$ ) multiplexer at left determines which of the same two signal pairs go to the feedback divider, in the yellow box. It's also rather more complex than the simple feedback divider shown in Fig.1. That's because the ADF4351 offers the ability to implement either an integer- N or a frac-tional-N PLL, as required.

So the feedback divider needs three registers which hold the integer division value, the fractional division value and the modulus value, plus control circuitry labelled 'third-order fractional interpolator'. This circuitry effectively allows the feedback frequency to be divided by a rational number (fraction). The output of this divider is then fed, via a buffer, to the phase comparator.

The circuitry shown in the upperleft corner of Fig. 2 takes the input from the external reference oscillator (fed into the $\mathrm{REF}_{\text {IN }} \mathrm{pin}$ ) and processes it before feeding it to the other phase comparator input.

As mentioned earlier, one of the refinements to earlier PLLs was to add a
reference signal frequency divider, so that high-frequency reference oscillators could be used; hence the 10-bit R counter.

But the ADF4351 also provides a frequency doubler and an additional divide-by-two stage for the reference input, both of which can be switched in or out under software control. This gives the chip a great deal of flexibility.

The whole chip is controlled by means of a simple 3-wire serial peripheral interface (SPI), shown at centre left of Fig.2.

Serial data from the PC or microcontroller is fed in via the DATA pin, clocked into the serial data register and function latch via clock pulses fed to the CLK pin, and then latched into the various control registers by feeding in a pulse via the LE (latch enable) pin.

All functions of the ADF4351 chip are configured using six 32-bit control words, sent over this serial bus.

Multiplexer C and the other blocks at the upper right of Fig. 2 allow external monitoring of the ADF4351's status.

The bottom view of this module is shown at approximately twice actual size. The bottom of the board is populated by five $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ pull-down resistors for the breakout pin connections.



All of the programming and status monitoring signals to and from the module are available at CON1. This includes the DATA, CLK and LE lines (ie, the serial bus) and also the CE (chip enable), LD (lock detect), $\mathrm{MUX}_{\text {Out }}$ and PDBRF (power down RF buffer) lines.

The reference signal is provided by a 25 MHz crystal oscillator (XO), shown at upper left, with its output fed to the $\mathrm{REF}_{\text {IN }}$ pin of IC1 via a loading/coupling circuit comprising two 1 nF capacitors and a $51 \Omega$ resistor.

The 'LOCK DETECT' block monitors the phase comparator and provides a high logic output on the LD pin when the PLL is locked. Multiplexer C allows either of the two phase comparator inputs or this lock status to be fed to the MUX $_{\text {OUT }}$ pin.

The fast lock switch provides a signal which can be fed into the external
low-pass filter (between the $\mathrm{CP}_{\text {out }}$, and $\mathrm{V}_{\text {TUNE }}$ pins) when in 'fast lock' mode. So that covers the operation of the IC itself.

## The synthesiser module

The full circuit of the module is shown in Fig.3, and most of the real work is done by IC1.

$$
x-1+2+2+2
$$



Fig.4: when connecting the ADF4351 synthesiser module to an Arduino-based device, a few extra resistors are needed. These resistors form a voltage divider, as the module can only handle 3.3 V signals, while the Arduino's outputs have a swing of 5 V . Note the changes needed if using a V2 module at the end of this article.


Note that there is also provision for feeding in a different reference signal, via the SMA socket labelled MCLK. In order to do this, you'd need to remove the $0 \Omega$ resistor connected to pin 3 of the onboard XO. If you are using the onboard XO, the MCLK socket can be used to monitor its output via a scope or frequency counter.
The resistors and capacitors connecting the $\mathrm{CP}_{\text {OUt }}$ and SW pins of IC1 (pins 7 and 5) to the $\mathrm{V}_{\text {TUNE }}$ pin (pin 20) form the low-pass loop feedback filter.

The RF output signals from the RFOA+ and RFOA- pins (12 and 13) are taken to the $\mathrm{RF}_{\text {OUT+ }}$ and $\mathrm{RF}_{\text {out- }}$ SMA sockets via matching/filtering circuits using L2, L3, L5 and L6, plus two 1 nF capacitors.
Notice that the output pins are fed with the +3.3 V supply voltage via L2 and L3. In this module, the auxiliary RF outputs $\mathrm{RF}_{\mathrm{OB}+}$ and $\mathrm{RF}_{\mathrm{OB}-}$ (pins 14 and 15) are not wired up.

The whole module operates from a 3.3 V supply, derived from the 5 V input at CON2 via REG1, an ASM1117 low-dropout regulator. This $\mathrm{AV}_{\mathrm{DD}}$ rail powers all of the analogue/RF circuitry directly.

The digital supply rail, $\mathrm{DV}_{\mathrm{DD}}$, is derived from $A V_{D D}$ using LC filters comprising inductors L4 and L1, plus a number of bypass capacitors.

There are two indicator LEDs. LED1 is connected between the $\mathrm{DV}_{\mathrm{DD}}$ line and ground and indicates when the module has power, while LED2 is connected to the LD (lock detect) pin of IC1 (pin 25) and indicates when the PLL is in lock.
All the other components are for bypassing and stability, apart from fuse F1

Fig.5: when connecting the ADF4351 module to a Micromite no extra components are needed, unlike with an Arduino. However, the newer version of the module requires a $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor between CE and +3.3 V .


[^0]

The sample program running on a Micromite LCD BackPack. These are the only two screens the software uses: one to enter a specific frequency for the module to output and another to display the current frequency.

When you're happy with the new figure, simply touch the OK button and the module jumps to the new frequency. The program returns to the main screen, displaying the new frequency.

So for those who would like to team up the module with a Micromite, this program (Simple ADF4351 driver program.bas) should get you off to a good start. Like the Arduino sketch, it's available from the Practical Electronics website.

## Performance

I checked the module's RF output performance at quite a few different frequencies, using my Signal Hound USB-SA44B spectrum analyser, which was controlled by Signal Hound's 'Spike’ software.


Fig.6: CON1 has been changed completely on the newer version of the ADF4351 module. Every signal, except for CLK, is connected to a different pin location.

The results were quite impressive, as you can see from the two spectrum plots. One plot shows the output at 275 MHz , with the only significant spurs visible being at $\pm 50 \mathrm{MHz}$ with an amplitude of -57 dBm .

The other plot shows the output at 4.200 GHz , with two spurs again visible but this time both on the low side: one at 4.150 GHz (far left) with an amplitude of about -53 dBm and the other at 4.175 GHz with an amplitude of -61 dBm . In both cases, the amplitude of the main output carrier is very close to 0 dBm . This turned out to be the case over most of the range, in fact.

The only region where the carrier level did drop (to around -20 dBm ) was in the vicinity of 2.45 GHz - perhaps by design, to minimise interference with Wi-Fi and Bluetooth systems.

Overall, the ADF4351 frequency synthesiser module is very impressive, especially when you consider its frequency range and price.

It could even be used to make your own VHF/UHF signal and sweep generator, teamed up with a Micromite and a 4 GHz digital attenuator module that we will describe in next month's issue.

## A new version of the ADF4351 synthesiser module

Just recently we received a second ADF4351 Synthesiser module and discovered that it was a 'V2' module which had been changed in a number
of ways compared with the original version ('V1').

These changes will be critical to successfully connect the module to a micro, so here are the main details listed below:

1. Many of the connections to the 10-way pin header (CON1) have changed, as shown in Fig. 6.
2. There is now no on-board pull-up resistor connecting IC1's CE pin to the $+3.3 \mathrm{~V}\left(\mathrm{DV}_{\mathrm{DD}}\right)$ line, nor are there pull-down resistors connected between the CLK, DATA and LE pins and ground.
To ensure normal operation of the module with either an Arduino or a Micromite, an external $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor must be connected between the CE and +3.3 V pins of CON1.
To ensure maximum stability, it's a good idea to also connect an external $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistors between the LE pin and the ground.

Once the above changes are made, version 2 of the module performs just as well as the earlier version.

## Useful links

The module, available from AliExpress: http://bit.ly/pe-may19-ali
The module from eBay - at the time of going to press, item 143041004110 Analog Devices ADF4351 data sheet: http://bit.ly/pe-may19-ad Fundamentals of PLLs from Analog Devices: http://bit.ly/pe-may19-pll


Spectrum analysis of the ADF4351 module's output performance at 275 MHz (left) and 4.2 GHz (right). The RF output performance over the full range was good, with only a few visible spurs outside the programmed frequency. These normally correspond to beat frequencies or integer-multiples of the reference and oscillator frequency.


Using your PC or laptop to power a 5 V project that you're working on is very convenient - but it's so easy to make a small slip while plugging something into a breadboard... and... oops! That's exactly what happened to one of our staff members. For a while after the incident, it looked like his laptop was toast. But fortunately he was able to safely reset it and it came back to life. But he was so lucky! Next time he won't trust to luck he'll definitely be using this simple, economic device.

We won't name the hapless person who thought he'd cooked his laptop. To avoid embarrassment, we'll simply refer to him as 'A.P.' (aka, 'Accident Prone').
This is one of those projects we know will be useful because A.P. kept asking 'is it finished yet' - he obviously needed it!
That incident spooked him and why wouldn't it? He could have lost a lot of work and spent quite a bit of money and time on buying a new computer and then setting it up, which could have taken several days.
We do a lot of development work, increasingly with Arduinos and similar microcontroller modules. We also do quite a bit of bread-boarding, often in combination with the Arduinos.
When you're doing this kind of work and you have external power supplies or voltage sources connected to your circuit, that's just asking for trouble.
You may not realise it, but when an Arduino board (or similar) is plugged into your computer's USB port, you're just a slip away from potential disaster.
For example, say you're running the Arduino from a 12 V plugpack, because it's driving some 12 V relays or a motor or whatever. So there's a source of 12 V
right near a bunch of other connections on the Arduino board, just looking for an excuse to find its way onto the USB 5 V rail and into your computer. One slip, and oops! It could blow up the Arduino, your shield(s), and even your computer.

Not only will this USB Port Protector vastly improve the chances of your computer surviving such an event, it may also prevent damage to the Arduino board and whatever shields or other circuitry are plugged into the USB port. We can't promise it will be $100 \%$ safe, but it's certainly a lot safer than if you aren't using any protection...

You might expect USB ports to have some kind of built-in protection against external voltages being fed in. After all, all kinds of devices can be plugged into these ports, including external hard disks and amplifiers and other gear which may have its own, separate power supply.

In fact, many USB ports do have some kind of protection, for example series PTC thermistors ('polyswitches') to limit fault currents, transient voltage suppressors and so on. But this protection varies between computers and is often absent in laptops and notebook computers.

Let's face it, there's a lot less space inside portable computers - and manufacturers also want to keep the computer as light as possible and save money where they can. That means leaving out anything that isn't absolutely necessary.

Regardless of what sort of protection your USB port may have, this USB Port Protector is small and cheap, so why not add in an extra layer of defence? If you ever manage to activate its protection, it will have paid for its cost many times over!

## Circuit description

The circuit of the USB Port Protector is shown in Fig.1. USB plug CON1, which plugs into your computer, is shown on the left side, while the USB socket, CON2, goes to the connected device (eg, Arduino) and is on the right. Just to be clear - the potential danger of overload from excessive voltages or currents comes via CON2.

The ground connection and the two differential data lines, $\mathrm{D}+$ and $\mathrm{D}-$, are wired straight through between plug and socket (ie, CON1 and CON2) while the 5 V power flows through fuse F 1 and positive temperature coefficient thermistor PTC1.


Fig.1: the circuit diagram of the USB Port Protector. Diode D3, zener TVS1 and transistor Q1 are all connected between $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ and GND and shunt current when an excessive voltage is applied, while polyswitch PTC1 and fuse F1 prevent large currents from flowing if the fault is serious. Diodes D1, D2 and zener TVS2 protect the D+ and D- data lines.

We've used both a fuse and PTC because the fuse reacts faster to very high currents, protecting the rest of the circuitry on the board if there's a serious fault, but the PTC does not need to be replaced if it 'trips' and helps the circuit to handle moderate overloads without damage.

PTC1 normally has a low resistance - around $100 \mathrm{~m} \Omega$ below 1 A - but if the current through it increases, its resistance rises, limiting it at around 2A (given enough time for it to heat up). This would normally only occur if the 5 V line rises above 5.5 V and the USB Port Protector is shunting current in order to prevent it rising further.

In fact, the USB Port Protector does very little as long as the USB supply voltage is in the normal range of 0 V to 5.25 V and the D - and $\mathrm{D}+$ lines are in the normal range of 0-3.3V. Green LED1 lights up to indicate power is present, but that's about it. The $U S B$ Port Protector draws around 3 mA in this condition.

If the 5 V rail is pulled negative, ie, below 0V (eg, you've accidentally shorted it to the output of a transformer or some other supply rail) then schottky diode D3 will conduct. This prevents $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ from going below about -0.5 V .

D3 is a high-current diode, capable of handling 15A continuously and 275A for around 5 ms , so it makes a very effective clamp. It limits the voltage on $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ to -0.55 V at 15 A , so your PC is safe from damage from negative voltages on the supply line.

Should the overload condition persist, either PTC1 will limit the overload current to a safe level or F1 will blow, disconnecting the compromised circuitry from your computer.

## Clamping positive voltages

It's even more likely that you might accidentally short the 5 V rail to a higher voltage; eg, 12 V from a car battery. Just think of the heavy currents which will fry anything connected to it! The USB Port Protector has active and passive systems to handle this situation.

The active system is the first line of defence. It comprises high-current PNP transistor Q1 and shunt voltage reference REF1. The $1.2 \mathrm{k} \Omega / 1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistive divider across the 5 V supply feeds $45.45 \%$ of the supply voltage to the adjust terminal of REF1. It sinks current into its cathode terminal as soon as this adjust terminal exceeds +2.5 V .

So, given the voltage divider, that means that it will sink current when the supply exceeds $5.5 \mathrm{~V}(2.5 \mathrm{~V} \div$ $45.45 \%$ ). This will cause a voltage to develop across the $470 \Omega$ resistor and once that voltage exceeds around 0.7 V (Q1's base-emitter voltage), Q1 will switch on and shunt the 5 V supply rail, pulling it down.

In this manner, REF1 and Q1 act to limit the 5 V supply rail to just over 5.5 V . Q1 is capable of handling more than 10A, but since there will be 5.5 V between its collector and emitter, it can only do that for a very short time before it overheats. But at the same time PTC1 will rapidly heat up and increase its
resistance, to limit that current. And in any case, if the current exceeds 3 A , for example, the fuse will very quickly blow before Q1 is damaged.

So REF1/Q1 act together as a very precise and very fast clamp. When REF1 is sinking current from Q1's base, Q2 will also normally switch on as its base is also pulled around 0.7 V below its emitter, via the $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor. This will light up red LED2, indicating that the clamp is operating and that you have a problem. LED2's current is limited by its low base current and relatively fixed gain ( $\mathrm{h}_{\mathrm{FE}}$ ).

REF1 can sink up to at least 100 mA and Q1 has a current gain ( $\mathrm{h}_{\mathrm{FE}}$ ) in the hundreds, so Q1 is more than capable of passing its full peak current rating of 24 A in this circuit.
Note that LED2 may go out if there is a persistent overload, since when Q1 heats up, its base-emitter voltage will drop and it may drop low enough below Q2's base-emitter switch-on voltage that it will no longer switch on. But chances are that PTC1 and/ or F1 will have acted to limit the fault current by that stage anyway.

The only problem with the clamp provided by Q1 and REF1 is the reaction time. It takes a short time for REF1 to react to an increase in the feedback voltage and it also takes time for Q1 to switch on - around a microsecond.

## Passive clamping

This is why we also have a transient voltage suppressor (TVS1) connected across the 5 V supply rail. It's a passive


Fig.2: safe operating area (curves) for the ECH8102 PNP transistor, used in this device as a protective shunt. The vertical red line corresponds to a shunt voltage of 5.5 V and its intersection with the SOA curves shows how long the transistor is guaranteed to survive at various collector current levels.

Fig.3: the fuse blow time for F1 (black) and 'trip' time for PTC1 (blue) at various current levels. The relevant portion of Q1's SOA curve from Fig. 2 is plotted in red and you can see that F1 will protect Q1 for fault currents above 2 A .

device which will react more-or-less instantly to excessive voltage.

But like most zener-type devices, the difference between the voltage at which it will start to conduct current and the voltage across it when a large current is flowing is quite large. We've selected the most suitable device possible, but it's still not ideal.

The 'working voltage' for TVS1 is defined as 5 V but it's designed to pass only 1 mA or so at 6.0 V . The clamping voltages are specified as 9.8 V at 1 A and 13.5 V at 42 A .

So clearly, we can't rely on this device to protect the PC since it would allow quite a high voltage to be fed back in before taking effect. Hence our dual-action strategy, with TVS1 there to limit very brief, high-voltage excursions (eg, a static discharge) and also to 'fill in the gaps' for the short period until Q1/REF1 are able to switch on and shunt the fault current.

## Protection for the signal lines

We've also included 3V transient voltage suppressor TVS2 and dual schottky diodes D1 and D2 to protect against damaging voltages being fed in via the $\mathrm{D}+$ and $\mathrm{D}-$ signal wires. This is unlikely, since these lines normally go straight to some sort of USB/serial adaptor or micro on a development board, and so there aren't many exposed components to accidentally short.

But it's still possible that a high voltage fed into your +5 V rail (or +3.3 V rail, or some other supply point) could damage the USB/serial adaptor or microcontroller and allow current to flow through into the D+ and/or Dlines. So we decided that we should
provide at least some protection for these lines, as well.

The half of dual diodes D1/D2 that connects between ground and the signal line prevents them from being pulled too far below ground.

We're using smaller diodes here since a large diode would have too much capacitance and would interfere with USB signalling. But these diodes are still rated at 300 mA continuous and 1.25 A for 10 ms , with a forward voltage below 1 V up to several hundred milliamps. So they should provide decent protection.

TVS2 has a breakdown voltage of around 3.6 V at 1 mA and a clamping voltage of 6.5 V at 25 A . So the combination of D1/D2 and TVS2 should conduct significant current away from the D+/D- lines well before their voltages reach 5 V . Most USB ports would not be damaged by these voltages.

We can't put a voltage suppressor like TVS2 directly between the D+ and D- lines and ground because it would have far too much capacitance. But the series diodes between $\mathrm{D}+/ \mathrm{D}$ - and TVS2 have a much lower capacitance that's effectively in series with that of TVS2, so they have virtually no effect on signalling. We tested our prototype with a 'hi-speed' USB card reader and it functioned normally.

## Is it bulletproof?

In a word, no, but if it does fail, the USB Port Protector is likely to fail in such a way that it still protects your computer. While our testing shows that it's robust and can handle significant overloads without damage, if you apply just the right (worst possible) combination of
voltage and current, it may be possible to blow Q1 or TVS1 before fuse F1 blows.

Still, our testing suggests that the most likely outcome of a serious overload is for F1 to blow and at least it's cheap and (relatively) easy to replace.

The difficulty in designing a circuit like this to be able to withstand anything you can throw at it is that in order to effectively protect against a high current source being connected to the $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ line, it needs to absorb quite a lot of power in a brief period. And while the PTC and/or fuse should ideally cut the power to protect the other components, they may not be fast enough.

Fig. 2 shows the 'safe operating area' (SOA) curves for transistor Q1, taken from the ECH8102 data sheet. We've added a vertical red line to show the typical voltage of about 5.5 V across Q1 while it is conducting.

While this is a high-current transistor, it is quite tiny, so if a high current is applied, it will quickly overheat and might fail. As shown in Fig.2, it's guaranteed to survive 24 A at 5.5 V (132W!) for somewhere between $500 \mu \mathrm{~s}$ and 1 ms . For longer periods, the maximum allowable current is lower; around 3A (16.5W) for 10 ms , $1.5 \mathrm{~A}(8.25 \mathrm{~W})$ for 100 ms and 300 mA (1.65W) continuously.

Beyond this it may survive - but that isn't guaranteed. Our testing has shown that for a single pulse, these ratings are very conservative. But it's good practice to design a circuit to stay within these ratings.

The 'trip' times for PTC1 (blue) and F1 (black) are shown in Fig.3. We've also plotted the relevant portion of
the SOA curve for Q1 in red so that you can compare them. As you can see, F1 responds considerably faster than PTC1, and in fact is very likely to blow before Q1's SOA is exceeded for currents above 2A.

For fault currents between 300 mA and 2A, it's possible that Q1 will overheat and fail before either F1 blows or PTC1 acts to limit the current. And in fact, PTC1 is not guaranteed to do anything for fault currents below 1A. You will need to notice red LED2 lighting and resolve the fault yourself.

Still, as we said above, the ratings for Q1 seem to be pretty conservative and as long as the overload is limited

## Parts IIst <br> USB Port Protector

1 double-sided PCB, coded 07105181, $32.5 \times 19 \mathrm{~mm}$
1 PCB-mount USB Type A horizontal plug (CON1)
1 PCB-mount USB Type A horizontal socket (CON2)
[eg, Altronics P1300]
1 SMD fuse, 3216/1206 package,
1A super fast blow [Vishay MFU1206FF01000P100]
1 SMD 1.1A PTC thermistor, 3216/1206 package [Bourns MF-NSMF110-2]
130 mm length of 20 mm diameter clear heatshrink tubing

## Semiconductors

1 AN431AN shunt reference IC, SOT-23 (REF1)
1 ECH8102 12A PNP transistor, ECH8 (Q1)
1 BC856 100mA PNP transistor, SOT23 (Q2)
1 high-brightness green LED, 3216/1206 package (LED1)
1 high-brightness red LED, 3216/1206 package (LED2)
1 CDSOD323-T05S transient voltage suppressor, SOD-323 (TVS1)
1 SM2T3V3A transient voltage suppressor, D0-216AA (TVS2)
2 BAT54SFILM dual 300mA schottky diodes, SOT-23 (D1,D2)
1 15A 30V schottky diode, D0-214AB (D3; MCC SK153)

## Capacitors

1 100nF SMD X7R ceramic, 3216/1206 package
Resistors (all SMD 3216/1206 package, 1\%)

| $147 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | (coded 4702 or 473) |
| :--- | :--- |
| $110 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | (coded 1002 or 103) |
| $11.2 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | (coded 122) |
| $11 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | (coded 102) |
| $1470 \Omega$ | (coded 471) |

to no more than a second or two, we would expect it to survive.

Looking at Fig.2, you may wonder why we've bothered with the PTC at all, given that its 'trip' current is higher than the fuse blow current over most of the graph. But keep in mind that PTC1 is considered to be 'tripped' when it has reached a high enough resistance value to keep the fault current below 2.2A.
It will still have some effect in reducing the fault current, even at lower current levels and shorter time spans, because its resistance will start to increase well before it has fully tripped.

And you also have the option of replacing F1 with a zero-ohm resistor (or just soldering across the pads) and relying on PTC1 to limit fault currents. This does increase the risk of blowing Q1 in a serious fault (although, as we said, it's pretty robust) but doing so would also increase the chance that the unit will survive a moderate overload unscathed and you won't have a blown fuse to replace.

Note that while replacing Q1 is a bit of a pain, it's actually quite cheap (under 50p) so if Q1 does 'throw itself on the grenade' and fail while protecting your computer from damage, at least it isn't an expensive failure.

## Sourcing the parts

Most of the parts are surface-mount devices (SMDs) and they are all available from Digi-Key, Mouser or element14.

## Construction

The USB Port Protector is built on a double-sided PCB available from the PE PCB Service. It measures 32.5 x 19 mm and is coded 07105181 . All but four of the components are mounted on the top side of the board, as shown in the overlay diagrams, Figs. 4 and 5 and matching photos. The only through-hole components are the USB plug and socket. (By the way, you may notice a minor difference between the overlay diagrams and the PCB photos: we've changed TVS2 to a more suitable part since building the prototype.)
Most of the parts are fairly easy to solder, although some of them are quite close together, to keep the unit compact. It's easiest to do in the following order.

Start with transistor Q1. This is in a fairly small ECH8 package, with four short leads on each side. The good news is that most of the adjacent leads are connected together so it doesn't matter if you bridge the pins when soldering (in fact, it's pretty much unavoidable). Pin 4 is the base connection and you need to make sure it doesn't short to pin 3, the emitter.

Start by identifying pin 1. There is a dot printed in the corner on the top of the package, but you will need a magnifier and good light to see it. Orient the part so that it matches the pin 1 markings on the PCB and smear a thin layer of flux paste on all eight of its pads.
Apply a tiny amount of solder to the pad for pin 4, then heat this solder while sliding the part into place. Check that the other seven pins are correctly located above their pads using a magnifier. If not, re-heat the solder joint and carefully nudge the part. Repeat as necessary until it's lined up, then solder the four pins on the opposite side of the package. These are all joined together so you can do it as one big solder joint.

Now apply solder to the three remaining pins and add a bit of fresh solder to pin 4 as well. To tidy up the solder joints, apply a little more flux paste on top of the solder and then use some solder wick to remove the excess. Clean up the flux residue with some methylated spirits, isopropyl alcohol or other flux cleaner and then inspect it visually to ensure all the solder joints are good.

That's the trickiest part out of the way. Next, solder TVS1 in place, next to Q1. It's fairly small and its cathode stripe will not be terribly obvious; so again, use magnification to identify the cathode and orient it correctly before tacking it in place and soldering the opposite pin.

Now solder the SMD passive components in place; this includes five resistors, one capacitor and the PTC thermistor. None are polarised; just be careful to fit each in the location shown in Fig.4. The resistors will be printed with a small code indicating their value ( $\mathrm{eg}, 1.2 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ code is 122 ; or $12 \Omega \times 10^{2}$ ) but the capacitor will not be marked.

The resistor codes are also shown in the parts list opposite.
The next components to mount are reference REF1 and transistor Q2. These are in identical SOT-23 packages so don't get them mixed up after taking them out of their packaging. They are polarised, but have three pins each, so the orientation is obvious - see the pinouts in Fig.1.
Next are the two LEDs. Usually, the cathode is marked with a green dot but sometimes the anode is marked instead. The easiest way to check is with a DMM set on diode test mode. The LED will light up with the red probe connected to the anode and black to the cathode. You can confirm the colour at the same time. Note that some DMMs (eg, those powered by two AA cells) may not apply sufficient voltage to light up a green LED.


Figs. 4 and 5: top and bottom overlay diagrams for the USB Port Protector. Use these as a guide during construction. Be careful with the polarity for TVS1, TVS2, Q1 and LEDs1 and 2. It's easiest to start by fitting Q1 and TVS1, then the remainder of top-side SMD components, then the bottom-side components and finally, CON1 and CON2. The matching photographs above are reproduced close to twice actual size, for clarity.

Solder these where shown on the overlay diagram; LED1 is green while LED2 is red and the cathodes are oriented towards the USB plug, as shown by the ' $K$ ' markings on the PCB.

Now solder schottky diode D3 in place. Add a little flux paste to the pads first as it's quite large, but the procedure is much the same as for the other two-pin devices. Just make sure you apply the iron for long enough to form good solder fillets between the PCB and terminals of the device.
Then flip the board over and fit the four remaining SMDs on the bottom side, as shown in Fig.5. D1, D2 and ZD1 are polarised; also pay particular attention to the location of the cathode stripe on ZD 1 . The fuse is not polarised.
Finally, fit the USB plug and socket as shown. Both need to be pushed down firmly onto the PCB before soldering. The plug has a notch on the underside which the edge of the PCB fits into. Note that the USB plug pins may be quite short and may not protrude very far through the bottom of the PCB, so it's a good idea to solder them on both sides. Just make sure you don't accidentally bridge the pins.

## TVS2 note

The TVS2 (SM2T3V3A) is in an unusual package - its anode runs the full length of its body. When soldering it, ensure that its body is not on top of the cathode pad (marked K) or else it could short out the USB data signal lines.

## Testing

Inspect the board to verify that all the solder joints are good and that you have no unwanted bridges, then plug it into a USB port on your PC. If you have a USB charger, you could use that instead. Check that the green LED lights up but the red LED should not.

You can then carefully measure the voltage across D3. You should get a reading in the range of $4.5-5.25 \mathrm{~V}$ (usually quite close to 5 V ), with the red probe to its cathode (striped) end.

Now plug a small device like a USB card reader or flash drive into the socket and verify that it powers up correctly. Try reading the contents of the card/flash drive on your PC and verify that it works normally without any unexpected disconnection events.

If you want to verify that the $U S B$ Port Protector will definitely protect your computer, you will need a $\sim 6 \mathrm{~V}$ supply and a resistor with a value between $2.2 \Omega$ and $10 \Omega$.

Unplug the USB Port Protector and anything that's plugged into it and use a clip lead to connect the USB socket shell to the ground terminal of your 6 V supply. Connect one end of the test resistor to the positive output of the 6V supply (battery pack, plugpack...) and then touch the other end of the resistor to the USB socket pin that's immediately adjacent to fuse F1, on the underside of the board.

If you can do this while looking at the top of the board, you should see both LED1 and LED2 light up. LED2 indicates that the protection is operating. If you have a helper, they is working.



For Part 4 of the MIDI Ultimate Synthesiser build, we are going to add the circuits for the modulation sources. Control voltages can also enact many of the manual potentiometer controls used to modify the characteristics of the sound being produced. These control voltages take various forms, including cyclic waveforms, random voltage sequences and envelope generators. Envelope generators can be single shot or continually re-triggered to make more complex cyclic waveforms.

We briefly discussed each of the modulation sections of the MIDI Ultimate in Part 1. The patching diagram (Fig.5, Part 1) shows how the modulation sources can be routed to the oscillators (VCOs), filter (VCF) and the voltage-controlled amplifier (VCA). Sounds that have a constant frequency, amplitude and harmonic content can
be rather bland. Being able to change some or all of these characteristics over time using modulation sources is what brings the synth to life.

No synth will be complete without two main modulations sources, the envelope generator (ADSR) and the low-frequency oscillator (LFO). Recognising how important these are, the MIDI Ultimate includes two of each of them. Another modulation source at our disposal is the sample and hold (S\&H) generator that outputs a snap shot or sample of a waveform periodically. The waveform being sampled by the S\&H can be any of the wave shapes from LFO 2 or from the noise source we built in Part 3. The rate of sampling can be manually adjusted, as can the glide, or portamento, from one note to the next.

Those familiar with analogue synthesis can skip this next section on
modulation, but for those new to analogue synths the following will aid in understanding the synthesiser's operation and use.

## Modulation

The waveforms from the LFOs can be patched to the VCOs to vary their frequency - this is know as 'vibrato'. As the LFOs have four choices of wave shape, the vibrato effects can be quite different. A square wave will cause the VCO to alternate between two frequencies, whereas a triangle wave shape will cause the VCO frequency to rise and fall linearly between two frequencies. The difference between the two frequencies is determined by the amount of modulation depth set on the VCO(s). The starting frequency can vary with what key is being pressed on the MIDI keyboard or other modulation sources.


Fig.59. Switches mounted into their corresponding positions, pots clipped into position and LEDs ready for inserting into the PCB.

The LFOs can also modulate the VCA to create a varying amplitude (volume) of the sound, better known as 'tremolo'. Some manufacturers of guitars, for example, have incorrectly called the vibrato arm or bar a 'tremolo arm'. So, to be clear:

- Vibrato is a change in pitch
- Tremolo is a change in volume.

Finally, the LFOs can be used to modulate the cut-off frequency of the VCF and thus alter the timbre of the sound between two frequency cut-off points.
The envelope generators can be used in AR or ADSR mode (see Fig. 20 to Fig. 22 in Part 1). In ADSR gate mode, on a gate pulse, the envelope generates a voltage that initially climbs to the maximum voltage level over a period of time called the attack period (A). When the maximum voltage has been reached, the voltage will reduce to a voltage level set by the sustain (S) potentiometer in the decay (D) period. The output will now stay at the sustain voltage until the gate pulse is removed and the output voltage decays to zero over the release $(\mathrm{R})$ period. This is why the envelope generator is frequently just called an ADSR. Variations on the ADSR - depending on mode and potentiometer settings - can also achieve an envelope just consisting of the AR stages. Envelope generators can modulate the VCOs (ADSR2 only), VCA and VCF just like
the LFOs, although they are not often used for VCOs. Their principle function is with the VCA for amplitude modulation; imagine striking a piano key where you would hear the note immediately but it would take time for the note to diminish. Many small synths like the MIDI Ultimate only include one AR let alone an ADSR, so why do we have two ADSRs? Having two ADSRs means you can simultaneously control both the VCA and the VCF with different envelopes, offering a far greater range of sounds and enables the user to better emulate what happens with traditional instruments. Triggering an ADSR can be from a MIDI key being pressed or from the dedicated repeat gate generator, or even from the S\&H gate generator.

Last but not least is the S\&H; feed in a sawtooth waveform from LFO2 and the synth generates a staircase of increasing voltage levels. This control voltage can not only be used to modulate the VCOs for a sequencer effect, but also creates excellent timbre effects when used with the VCF. Select other source waveforms for different effects, including the white noise source for random voltage levels.

## Construction

Techniques used for this month's construction are similar to that in Part 2 and Part 3, so do refer back to the
previous articles as needed. Additionally, two pushbuttons and four LEDs are mounted on the pot/switch side of the PCB. We now have six sections on the main PCB to populate with components, these are:

- ADSR1 and ADSR2
- LFO1 and LFO2
- Repeat gate generator
- S\&H

I recommend soldering in the components for all six sections before moving onto the switches, pots and LEDs (see Fig.59). As before, do not insert the chips until you are ready to test, and then only one section at a time. Testing is covered at the end of this article.

The LEDs require spacing off the PCB by 8 mm , we achieved this by cutting some sleeving and sliding over each leg


Fig.60. Finish height of LEDs is 16 mm above the PCB.


Fig.61. MIDI Ultimate LFO1 circuit.
of the LEDs. First check that the LEDs go into the holes in the aluminium panel as we have had some reports that the hole diameter may be a bit tight. If necessary, run a 5 mm drill through the LED holes to make sure and deburr afterwards. The long leg of the LED goes into the pad marked with a ' + '. After soldering the LEDs, do not clip their legs just yet in case you need to adjust their height. The finish height of the LED is around 16 mm above the PCB (see Fig.60).

## LFO circuit description

The two LFOs are identical in operation, so only LFO1 will be described here. The LFO has two frequency ranges selected


Fig.62. LFO1 and LFO2 assembled.
by S602. 'High' gives a frequency range of a few Hz to about 300 Hz , 'Low' from 0.1 Hz to 30 Hz . VR601 sets the frequency within the range selected. Two switches are used to select the output waveform, S601 selects 'Ramp' or 'Square', if ramp is selected, then S603 further selects what type of ramp waveform, 'Saw', 'Inverted Saw' or ‘Triangular.
This LFO integrator/comparator design is not unique; Jake Rothman described a similar circuit he used in his Gen X-1 Stylephone (see: EPE, August 2018, Fig.13) and again in his article from October 2018 (see Fig 61).

Referring to the LFO1 circuit diagram in Fig.61, U601.2 forms an integrator and U601.1 a comparator. The output of the comparator U601.1 feeds back into the integrator U601.2 via the frequency pot VR601 and R607 or R607 in parallel with R605 if the range switch has 'High' selected. The setting of the potential divider VR601 determines the current flow into/from integrator U601.2 and how quickly the integrator capacitor (C602) is charged/ discharged, and thus the rate at which the output of the integrator ramps up and down. This ramping voltage is fed into the comparator's non-inverting input; the inverting input is connected to ground. The comparator has significant hysteresis due to feedback resistor R604.

## Oscillation

When the comparator output is high at 11 V , the integrator capacitor (C602) is charged up via VR601 and the integrator output voltage ramps down towards -11 V (inverting). When this voltage falls below about -5 V , the comparator output switches to -11 V . Now the integrator capacitor is discharged via VR601 and the integrator output begins ramping up towards +11 V . When it reaches around +5 V , the comparator
output switches to +11 V and the process repeats, resulting in oscillation.

## Square operation

When 'Square' is selected on S601, the LFO waveform is the output of the comparator reduced to $\pm 5 \mathrm{~V}$ by potential divider R601/R602, which is toggling between high and low and thus produces a square waveform.

## Ramp operation

When 'Ramp' is selected on S601 and 'Triangle' on S603, the output via R603 is now from the integrator output which is as described above, a ramp up and ramp down waveform already at $\pm 5 \mathrm{~V}$.

## Sawtooth Ramp operation

To generate the sawtooth and ramp (inverted sawtooth) waveforms, diode feedback from either D601 or D603 and R610 is introduced. This feedback has the effect of cutting short either the rising or falling ramp to around 1 ms , depending on the waveform selected. So, when S603 is selected to 'Sawtooth' and with the comparator output low, the integrator ramps high in 1ms through D601 which in turn forces the comparator output to go high. With the comparator output high, D601 is reversed biased so the normal ramping through VR601 occurs, as described above. When 'Ramp' is selected, D603 is in place of D601 in the feedback loop. As D603 is reversed in relation to D601, you get the opposite effect to the sawtooth, which is a slow ramp up, and a 1 ms ramp down. This is a fairly simple circuit, which has one side effect, when either sawtooth or ramp is selected, the LFO frequency is doubled because one half of the ramping cycle is cut short to 1 ms . An LED, D602 driven by Q601 illuminates in sync with the output waveform.


Fig.63. MIDI Ultimate ADSR1 circuit.

## ADSR circuit description

The ADSR circuit shown in Fig. 63 is perhaps the most complex in this synth. (You can get simpler ADSR circuits that do not perform as well, or use dedicated ADSR chips). A philosophy for this synth was to use discrete components to ensure longevity through servicing with 'off the shelf' components. (Even that approach is now being tested by the decreasing availability of through-hole versions of many common chips that we have used for many years due to the move to sur-face-mount construction.)

Both ADSRs are identical in operation; the circuit in Fig. 63 is for ADSR1. The ADSR has two modes of operation, namely gate and trigger. These terms are sometimes used interchangeably, but at Soundtronics, like many other synth designers we adopt the convention as best explained though the use of a keyboard:

- Gate - goes high when a key is pressed and remains high for as long as the key is pressed. The rising edge indicates that a key has been pressed, a falling edge that the key has been released
- Trigger - goes high when a key is pressed but almost immediately goes low again even though the key has not yet been released. The pulse width depends on the trigger source, but could be in the range of $50 \mu$ s to 5 ms , ideally less than 1 ms .

Various manufacturers have taken different approaches to implementing gates and triggers, and their polarity. Some modular synth ADSRs respond simultaneously to both gate and trigger signals where the trigger can re-trigger the attack phase. For the MIDI Ultimate, we kept things simpler due to some constraints through the use of the toggle patching switches, but did
include the mode option. The ADSR circuit is capable of re-triggering but not in this particular implementation. This is worth noting in case you decide to expand the MIDI Ultimate in the future with the addition of external modules.

Now that you have an understanding of the output envelope from the ADSR with its four distinct stages we shall move straight on with the circuit description.

Starting with the ADSR in Gate mode at S703 and with no gate pulse present, the ADSR is in its quiescent state with the output of U701.4 - point ' R 1 ', high. Point ' R 1 ' is high because both of its inputs are low. The high state of point 'R1' closes the bilateral switch U705.3, which discharges C715 to ground through the Release pot (VR704).

U702.1 is a comparator with the inverting input set at 2 V by R706/R710 which determine the voltage threshold


Fig.64. ADSR1 and ADSR2 assembled. (Whoops, I managed to solder the IC socket for U804 upside down!)
for the gate pulse at which the comparator switches state. When the gate pulse voltage exceeds 2 V , the comparator U702.1 output will rapidly go from a negative to a positive voltage. This positive-going voltage via D704 creates a short duration pulse at pin 1 of U701.1. The pulse width is determined by the values of the RC circuit of C705 and R705. U701.1 and U701.2 form a flip-flop or latch circuit, with pin 1 being the set and pin 6 the reset. The pulse at pin one sets the flip-flop so its output at pin 4 of U701.2-point 'A1' - goes high, which turns off bilateral switch U705.3 and turns on bilateral switch U705.2. C715 (and C718 if range switch is set to 'long') begins to charge up at a rate depending on the Attack pot (VR701). The voltage across C715 is buffered by U704.2 and connects to the ADSR1 output bus through R719. So, we are now in the attack phase with the period set by the RC circuit of VR701 + R720 and C715 (+C718).

The ADSR output voltage also feeds a comparator (U704.3) with its threshold set to 10 V by U704.4, R716 and R718. When the attack voltage exceeds 10 V , the output of U704.3, pin 8, quickly goes from a negative state to a positive state. This positive-going signal resets (pin 6) the flip-flop of U701.1 and U701.2 with its output (pin 4) point 'A1' going low. As the gate signal is still present at pin 13 of U701.4 via Schmitt inverters U703.1 and U703.6, point ' R 1 ' remains low,
but with point 'A1' going low, bilateral switch U705.2 opens. These conditions also cause U701.3 output, pin 10 (point 'D1') to go high indicating that we are now in the decay phase.

With point ‘D1’ high, bilateral switch U705.1 closes, which discharges C715 (plus C718) through the decay pot (VR702 plus R720). This time, C715 (plus C718) will only discharge to the voltage level at the output of U704.1, which is the sustain level set by VR703. This is now a steady-state condition and will remain so until the gate pulse is removed, at which point C715 (plus C718) is discharged to ground when bilateral switch U705.3 closes through the release pot (VR704 plus R720).

If the gate is applied and release before the decay phase, the output of U703.1 goes high and resets the flip-flop, so that the release phase is immediately commenced.
If the mode is changed to trigger at S703, a trigger pulse is generated with U702.2 and the flip-flop latches as in the gate mode. However, on completion of the attack phase and as there is no gate signal present, the release phase is executed. Therefore, in trigger mode the ADSR is actually an AR envelope generator with the period independent of how long a key is present.

## Repeat gate circuit description

The repeat gate generator in Fig. 65 is a square wave oscillator used to continually trigger the ADSR envelope generators, especially in trigger mode.

U5 has positive feedback applied through R41 to its non-inverting input. On power up, U5's output may be high or low as it is indeterminate, but let's assume low at around -11 V . C22, which is a non-polarised aluminium capacitor and was at ground potential begins to charge towards -11 V through VR12 plus R38. A potential divider of R41 and R40 hold the non-inverting input at around -1.4 V . Eventually, C22 charges up a voltage lower than -1.4 V and as U5 acts as a comparator, its output flips high to +11 V . Now the voltage at the non-inverting input is held at +1.4 V and C 22 begins to charge towards +11 V . Once the voltage across C 22 exceeds +1.4 V , U5 flips low again and the cycle repeats - oscillates. LED D 4 driven by Q 4 indicates the state of the pulse output.


Fig.65. MIDI Ultimate repeat gate circuit.

## Sample and Hold (S\&H) circuit description

The S\&H circuit of Fig. 67 consists of two sections, the sample and hold plus a pulse generator. The pulse generator is very similar to the repeat gate generator described above. The main difference is the introduction of D1, which quickly charges C17 through R24 when U3 output is high, bypassing the sample rate pot (VR9). Unlike the square wave output from the repeat gate generator, the S\&H clock is a pulse waveform with a short positive-going pulse with a frequency range of around 0.5 to 50 Hz .

The S\&H section has a choice of two input signals to sample, LFO 2 output and the white noise source, selected by S1. The selected input signal is applied to the input level pot (VR11) and from there to the inverting input of op amp U4.1 via R27. U4.1 inverts this signal with a gain of 0.5 and offsets the voltage to a level of about 6.5 to 7 V . The output of U4.1 is applied to the sampling FET transistor switch (Q2). Q2 provides a higher off resistance when the signal on the source pin ' $S$ ' is kept above ground potential.

The pulse output from the clock generator is applied via the differentiator circuit of C11 and bias network of R22 and R23 to the gate pin of Q2 to shorten


Fig.66. Repeat gate assembled.


Fig.67. MIDI Ultimate S\&H (sample and hold) circuit.


Fig.68. S\&H (sample and hold) ssembled.
the pulse width even further. This ensures Q2 is only switched on for the briefest of time and effectively connects the output of U4.1 to C15 which charges up to the same voltage level as U4.1 output. C15 is a low-leakage polystyrene capacitor, chosen because we need it to retain or 'remember' that voltage level for up to two seconds. After the gate pulse, the gate voltage returns to around -6 V bias from R22 and R23, which effectively makes Q2, open circuit between the source and
drain pins. This means C15 has nowhere to discharge to other than the non-inverting input of U4.2. However, U4.2 has a high input impedance of 100s of megohms, thus preventing any significant voltage droop. The sampled voltage from U4.2 is re-inverted again by U4.3, which also has a gain of 2 to restore the voltage to the original level. The output of $U 4.3$ is fed to an RC circuit consisting of glide pot VR10, R21 and C13 which is buffered by non-inverting op amp U4.4 The output of U4.4 feeds the S\&H bus via R30. D3 indicates the clock sample rate and the clock is also available on the S\&H gate bus, which can also be used to trigger the ADSRs.

You should now have completed the assembly of the modulation sources, and the pot side of your PCB should look like Fig.69.

We have had a request for a PCB layout drawing showing the component identification because the number is hidden once the component is soldered in. A PDF is available from the Soundtronics website and from the Practical Electronics website.

## Testing the modulation sources

Inserting chips for each new section one at a time for testing before moving onto the next is recommended but not essential.

As the patch switches allow for numerous routing options, the focus here is to prove the functionality of the modulation sources assembled this month using VCO1. Once proven, you should then try out similar tests with the other two VCOs, VCF and VCA.

Before you start testing, set all 3-way switches to centre off, all 2-way switches to the down position, all pots fully counter-clockwise except the master level, which you should adjust to a comfortable level. You will also need the headphones connected as described in Part 3, Fig.58. In table 4, some pot settings are referenced to clock setting because at this point, you have no front panel scales to use. Each pot has a slot in the end that you can use as a pointer.

None of the modulation sources covered in this part requires calibration. The VCOs and VCF calibration are best left until the MIDI interface is


Fig.69. PCB assembled and ready for testing.

Table 4: Schedule of tests to prove functionality of the modulation sources - LFOs, ADSRs, Repeat Gate and S\&H.

| No. | Test | Pots | Switches | Result |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Establish a base point | VC01 coarse frequency 12 o'clock, mixer for VC01 square $100 \%$, VCF filter cut-off 100\%, VCA initial level 100\% |  | You should hear a tone from VC01 |
| 2 | Prove LF01 | VC01 modulation 9 o'clock, LFO1 rate 9 o'clock | VCO1 - LFO1 Mod, LFO1 - Square | 'Nee-nah' tone |
| Vary LF01 rate for the speed of the nee-nah. Switch LF01 square to ramps and try the different ramp waveforms |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | Prove LFO2 | VCO1 modulation 12 o'clock, LFO2 rate 12 o'clock | $\begin{aligned} & \text { VCO1 - LFO2 Mod, } \\ & \text { LFO2 - Square } \end{aligned}$ | Nee-nah tone at a faster rate than test 2 |
| As for LFO1, carry out same tests for LF02 then return switches and pots to their position as in test 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | Prove ADSR2 | VC01 modulation 9 o'clock, ADSR2 attack 3 o'clock, decay 12 o'clock, sustain 12 o'clock, release 3 o'clock | VC01 - ADSR2, Press, hold then release ADSR 2 manual gate button | Tone will increase in frequency, then decrease and remain steady until gate button released, then the frequency will decrease to the starting point |
| Return switches and pots to their position before test 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | Prove ADSR1 and Repeat Gate | VCO1 coarse frequency 12 o'clock, mixer for VC01 square $100 \%$, VCF filter cut-off 9 o'clock, VCA initial level $100 \%$. ADSR1 attack, decay, and sustain to 12 o'clock, release 3 o'clock. VCF ADSR mod fully clockwise | ADSR1 Repeat Gate, VCF ADSR1 | Repeating dull to bright sound |
| 6 | Prove S\&H gate | S\&H sample rate to 12 o'clock | ADSR1 gate to Trig mode, ADSR1 S\&H Gate | Pulsating sound |
| 7 | Prove S\&H | S\&H input level to 3 o'clock. | VC01 to S\&H Mod | Random notes |

available, but we can now set up the VCA as we have the LFOs available.

## VCA Calibration

In Part 3, we constructed the VCA (Fig.53), now we can calibrate it using the two presets P501 and P502 and LFO1.

1. Turn all mixer controls to minimum, LFO1 set to square wave, its frequency set to maximum with the range switch set to 'high'. VCA modulation pot set to maximum. VCA
modulation switches, LFO1 selected, other two switches centre off.
2. Attach your scope (see Part 2, page 41 on how to make your own PC soundcard oscilloscope) to the output of U501.1 pin 8 where it links to the top of R501, or plug your headphones in with the volume level set to maximum. There are numerous 0 V ground points but I find clipping a lead to one of the mounting holes works just fine.


Fig.70. Test points for setting up P501 and P502 presets.
3. The adjustment we are making is to ensure the minimum breakthrough of the control voltage onto the audio output. Adjust the CV Null preset P502 until the amplitude of the LFO1 square wave is at a minimum, which should be less than 5 mV . If using headphones, adjust P502 until the audible tone from LFO1 is at its quietest.
4. Switch the VCA modulation switch from LFO1 to centre off. Connect a DC voltmeter to the VCA output at the same point as the scope was connected to and adjust P501 until the output voltage is as close to 0 V as you can make it. P501 can easily adjust to around 0.1 mV , but that depends on the resolution of your voltmeter.

Last, but not least this month, here is some inspiration for constructors - a link to a patch which I have called 'Pulsing filter': https://youtu.be/kjMuVyiLIP8 - worth playing back through some big speakers.

## Next month

You now only have one section remaining to build on the main PCB, which is the MIDI interface - so you can now really start to find your way around the synth.
Next month, is all about MIDI, both as a general topic and how it is implemented within the MIDI Ultimate.

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## 

## by Mike Tooley

Your project is finished and ready to go, but the job isn't done until you've found an appropriate source of power. This could be as simple as choosing a suitably rated mains adapter or as complex as designing a switched-mode power supply with multiple outputs and battery backup. Our latest series - Teach-In 2019 - is here to help, and will provide you with insight into all aspects of powering your electronic projects and designs.

Last month, we examined switchedmode power supplies (SMPS) and explained the basic principles of buck (step-down) and boost (step-up) switching regulators. This month, we will be revisiting some of the rectifier circuits that we first met in Part 2, and show how we can easily produce multiples of the basic DC output voltage with voltage doublers, triplers, and quadruplers. These are useful circuits
that can be built using just a handful of low-cost components.
We will also provide some important advice and guidance on how to select and use electrolytic capacitors.
Our Practical Project takes the form of a simple voltage doubler designed for producing a low-current 15V DC output from a small 9V battery. This project is ideal for supplying power to 15 V CMOS logic circuits.

## UAl朗

The simple half-wave and full-wave rectifiers that we met in Part 2 can be easily modified and extended to produce multiples of the basic DC output voltage. For example, Fig.6.1(a) shows a simple half-wave voltage doubler arrangement. On the first negative-going half-cycle of


Fig.6.1. Simple half-wave and full-wave voltage doublers.
the input AC supply voltage, D1 will conduct and charge C 1 to the negative peak secondary voltage (less the forward 0.7 V voltage drop associated with D1). This positive voltage appears at the anode of D2, which then conducts on the positive-going half-cycle, charging C 2 to double the applied peak voltage (less the forward voltage drop associated with D1 and D2). With a sinusoidal AC input, two 1N4001 diodes, and an RMS secondary voltage of $V_{S}$, the peak DC voltage appearing across the load ( $R_{\mathrm{L}}$ ) will be approximately:

$$
\begin{aligned}
V_{\text {out }}= & \left(2 \times 1.4 \times V_{\mathrm{S}}\right) \\
& -(2 \times 0.7 \mathrm{~V}) \\
= & 2.8 V_{\mathrm{S}}-1.4 \mathrm{~V}
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that the 1.4 factor converts the RMS value to a peak value (strictly speaking the factor is $\sqrt{ } 2=1.4142 \ldots$ ). So, with a transformer delivering 12 V RMS from its secondary, the no-load output voltage can be expected to be approximately 32 V (and also at low load currents of up to about 50 mA ).
An alternative voltage doubler arrangement is Fig.6.2. Voltage tripler and voltage quadrupler shown in Fig.6.1(b). This arrangements.
circuit offers better performance to that shown in Fig.6.1(a) since both diodes are conducting for part of every half-cycle of the secondary input (its action is that of a

(a) Vollage tripler

(b) Vottage quadrupler


Fig.6.3. Voltage multiplier Cockcroft-Walton 'n-tupler' ladder.


Fig.6.4. A bridge rectifier with, and without, reservoir capacitor. Note how the current flows alternately into and out of the capacitor in order to maintain current through the load.

The Cockcroft-Walton arrangement cascades ladder networks of rectifiers and reservoir capacitors, and offers the advantage of not requiring a bulky and expensive high-voltage transformer. Note that in Fig.6.3 we have added a shunt resistor in parallel with each reservoir capacitor. These not only assist with equalising the voltages developed across the reservoir capacitors, but also provide a discharge path for the capacitors, making the circuit safe to handle when the power is no longer applied. Typical values for the shunt resistors are in the range $47 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ to $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$. It should perhaps be emphasised that a high-
full-wave rectifier rather than a half-wave rectifier). With a 24 V RMS secondary, this circuit will deliver approximately 65 V at load currents of up to 50 mA .
Fig.6.2(a) shows a simple voltage tripler. The upper part of this circuit (C1/C2 and D1/D2) forms a voltage doubler with double the peak secondary voltage appearing across C 2 . To this is added the negative peak voltage produced by the rectifying action of D3 which charges C3 on negative-going half cycles. Thus, the voltage appearing across the load ( $R_{\mathrm{L}}$ ) will be approximately three times the peak secondary voltage delivered by T1.
With a sinusoidal AC input, three 1N4001 diodes, and an RMS secondary voltage ( $V_{S}$ ) the peak DC voltage appearing across the load ( $R_{\mathrm{L}}$ ) is approximately given by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
V_{\text {out }} & =\left(3 \times 1.4 \times V_{\mathrm{S}}\right)-(3 \times 0.7 \mathrm{~V}) \\
& =4.2 V_{\mathrm{S}}-2.1 \mathrm{~V}
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, with a transformer delivering 24 V RMS from its secondary, the no-load output voltage will be approximately 98 V and also with load currents of up to 50 mA .
Fig.6.2(b) shows a simple voltage quadrupler. The upper part of this circuit (C1/C2 and D1/D2) forms a voltage doubler with double the peak secondary voltage appearing across C2.

The lower part of the circuit ( $\mathrm{C} 3 / \mathrm{C} 4$ and D3/D4) forms a further negative output voltage doubler, with its output appearing across C4. The resulting output voltage delivered to the load $\left(R_{\mathrm{L}}\right)$ is the sum of the voltages appearing across C2 and C4. With a sinusoidal AC input, four 1N4001 diodes, and an RMS secondary voltage ( $V_{S}$ ) the peak DC voltage appearing across the load $\left(R_{\mathrm{L}}\right)$ will be approximately:

$$
\begin{aligned}
V_{\text {out }} & =\left(2 \times\left(2 \times 1.4 \times V_{\mathrm{S}}\right)\right)-(4 \times 0.7 \mathrm{~V}) \\
& =4 V_{\mathrm{S}}-2.8 \mathrm{~V}
\end{aligned}
$$

With a transformer delivering 24V RMS from its secondary, the no-load output voltage will be approximately 130 V , which can be maintained at load currents of up to 50 mA .

## Higher voltages

It is possible to generate much higher voltage using multiplier arrangements, but at the cost of poor regulation and limited output current. The general arrangement of an $n$-tupler ladder voltage multiplier is shown in Fig.6.3. Originally devised by John Cockcroft and Ernest Walton more than 90 years ago, this circuit was employed in a high-voltage DC power supply for use with a nuclear particle accelerator.


Fig.6.5. Effect of a reservoir capacitor on the output waveform of a full-wave bridge rectified DC power supply.
order Cockcroft-Walton power supply is only capable of delivering relatively small currents. For example, a nine-times multiplier ( $n=9$ ) will only be capable of delivering a few tens of milliamps. This may be sufficient for a few applications but wholly insufficient for many others.

## Reservoir capacitors

In both switched-mode and conventional linear supplies, the reservoir capacitors have the important role of 'holdingup' the output voltage from the bridge rectifier. The capacitors will charge on each peak of the applied voltage (during which the respective rectifier diodes will be conducting) and it will retain this charge when the secondary voltage falls (see Fig.6.4). The general rule of thumb is to use a capacitor, suitably rated in terms of working voltage and ripple current, with a value that is as large as possible within the physical constraints of the board on which it is mounted.
It is possible to obtain a rough 'ball park' value of the capacitance required by assuming that the capacitor has a maximum discharge time equivalent to the time for one half-cycle of the AC supply (recall that the bridge rectifier is providing full-wave rectification, and so the 'ripple' frequency will be 100 Hz , twice the 50 Hz frequency for a standard UK mains supply). The recommended value of capacitor can then be estimated from the relationship:

$$
C=\frac{I_{\max } \times t_{\mathrm{dmax}}}{V_{\mathrm{pk}}-V_{\mathrm{tr}}}
$$

Where $I_{\text {max }}$ is the maximum load current, $t_{\text {dmax }}$ is the maximum discharge time, $V_{\mathrm{pk}}$ and $V_{\mathrm{tr}}$ are the peak and trough voltages respectively (see Fig.6.5) and the DC output voltage ( $V_{\mathrm{DC}}$ ) is simply the average of these two.
Let's take a simple example based on a reservoir capacitor that what we might need for a basic audio amplifier operating
from a full-wave bridge rectified 12 V RMS AC supply and requiring a maximum current of 1 A . The 12 V RMS supply derived from a mains transformer secondary will have a peak value of approximately $17 \mathrm{~V}(12 \mathrm{~V} \times 1.4)$. Let's assume that we would not be prepared to tolerate a voltage fall of more than 1 V on the DC supply rail when the maximum load current is being supplied. We should thus plan for a worst-case situation in which $V_{\mathrm{pk}}=17 \mathrm{~V}$ and $V_{\mathrm{tr}}=16 \mathrm{~V}$ (in other words, we are designing for a maximum ripple voltage of 1 V peak).
With a 50 Hz supply the value of $t_{\text {dmax }}$ would be 10 ms and the maximum load current will be around 1A. Hence:

$$
C=\frac{1 \times 10 \times 10^{-3}}{17-16} \mathrm{~F}=10 \mathrm{mF} \text { or } 10,000 \mu \mathrm{~F}
$$

As a general rule, reservoir capacitors should have a maximum working voltage rating of at least $50 \%$ more than the expected DC voltage and with a ripple current that is at least $50 \%$ more than the maximum DC load current. Thus, a component rated at 30 V or 35 V with a ripple current rating of 1.5 A , or more, would be suitable.
In this simple example we considered the bridge rectifier to be perfect and didn't account for any voltage drop that might be attributable to the rectifier diodes when in the conducting state. In some cases (and for low-voltage supplies in particular) it would be wise to consider the additional voltage drop that is developed across each semiconductor junction when it is conducting. We will illustrate this with a slightly more complex example.
Let's assume that we are using a linear three-terminal 5 V regulator based on a 7805 and a mains transformer with an 8 V secondary and a bridge rectifier arrangement (as before). The peak voltage appearing across the reservoir capacitor will be $(8 \times 1.41)=11.3 \mathrm{~V}$ less the forward voltage drops associated with two of the four rectifier diodes (only two of the four diodes will be conducting at any time). Thus, the peak voltage appearing across the reservoir capacitor will not be 11.3 V but nearer to $(11.3-(2 \times 0.7))=9.9 \mathrm{~V}$.

The minimum input voltage for the 7805 regulator is specified as 7.5 V (see Table 3.1 on page 45 of EPE, February 2019). Thus, for a maximum load of 1 A , we can now estimate the minimum required value of reservoir capacitance from:
$C=\frac{1 \times 10 \times 10^{-3}}{9.9-7.5} \mathrm{~F}=4.17 \times 10^{-3} \mathrm{~F}=4,170 \mu \mathrm{~F}$
In practice a $4,700 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ component would be suitable with a working voltage of at least 16 V .

## Tix

As you've seen, the vast majority of capacitors used in power supplies are electrolytic types that permit relatively large values of capacitance in a small volume. In the manufacture of electrolytic capacitors, an oxide film (the dielectric) is grown onto a metal anode by electrochemical means. The oxide film is very thin and offers a dielectric constant of up to about 25 . In normal operation, the dielectric must be polarised by the application of a DC voltage.
Electrolytic capacitors need to be treated with care; they are not as widely applicable as other types of capacitor for a number of reasons, including the need for a polarising voltage, wide tolerance, poor temperature characteristics and relatively large values of leakage current, significant effective series resistance (ESR) and effective series inductance (ESL). Electrolytic capacitors are also significantly less reliable than other types and are prone to failure at high temperatures (see later). This serves to emphasise the need to choose the correct type of capacitor for power supply applications and particularly where reliability is paramount. The properties of various common types of electrolytic capacitor are listed in Table 6.1.

## Electrolytic capacitor characteristics

It's worth spending a little more time explaining why large electrolytic capacitors need to be treated carefully. We will start by explaining some important characteristics that have a major effect on the way capacitors operate.

## Dielectric

A capacitor is an energy-storing device made of two parallel conductive plates separated by an insulating (dielectric) material. When a voltage is applied across the plates, the electric field in the dielectric displaces electric charges, and thus it stores energy. It is assumed that there are no free charges in the dielectric (at least in the ideal case), and that while they are displaced, they are not free to move (as they can in a conductor).

## Value and tolerance

The capacitance of an electrolytic capacitor is usually stated in $\mu \mathrm{F}$ (microfarads) and is determined by the physical properties of the capacitor (effective plate area and separation) as well as the dielectric material. Tolerance is the maximum allowable deviation from the nominal capacitance value at a specified temperature. Typical values of tolerance for electrolytic capacitors can range from $-20 \%$ to $+50 \%$ and so you can certainly expect some deviation from any marked value of capacitance.

## Maximum working voltage

The maximum working voltage for an electrolytic capacitor is defined as the maximum DC voltage that can be applied to the capacitor continuously at the rated temperature. Note that AC and DC ratings are not the same and the sum of the DC and any peak AC voltages simultaneously applied to the capacitor must never exceed the rated DC voltage.

## Equivalent series resistance

ESR is the internal resistance of the capacitor expressed as a single resistance value, modeled as connected in series with the capacitor (which is then viewed as a 'perfect' component (see later)). It is important to note that ESR is made up of the sum of the resistance loss in the dielectric (important in electrolytic components) and the resistance of the conducting path between the capacitor plates and its external connections. ESR varies slightly with frequency, usually falling to a minimum value in the range associated with most switched-mode

Table 6.1 Comparison of electrolytic capacitor types

| Type of <br> capacitor | Typical range of <br> values | Typical working <br> voltage | Temperature <br> range | Typical ripple <br> current | Typical leakage <br> current | Typical <br> ESR | Life expectancy <br> (hours) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Miniature radial <br> lead electrolytic | $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ to $2,200 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 6.3 V to 25 V | $-55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+105^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | 0.4 A to 9.7 A | 0.01 CV or $4 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ | $15 \Omega$ to <br> $350 \Omega$ | 2,000 at $105^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| Miniature SMD <br> electrolytic | $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ to $1,000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 6.3 V to 50 V | $-45^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+85^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | 0.01 A to 0.33 A | 0.01 CV or $3 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ | $0.4 \Omega$ to <br> $166 \Omega$ | 2,000 at $85^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| PCB-mounting <br> electrolytic | $220 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ to $22,000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 16 V to 400 V | $-40^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+85^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | 0.7 A to 4.1 A | 0.02 CV | $0.03 \Omega$ <br> to $4 \Omega$ | 2,000 at $85^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| SMD low-ESR <br> electrolytic | $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ to $1,000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 6.3 V to 50 V | $-55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+105^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | 0.3 A to 0.45 A | 0.01 CV or $3 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ | $0.17 \Omega$ <br> to $0.4 \Omega$ | 2,000 at $85^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| Low-ESR radial <br> lead electrolytic | $2.2 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ to $1,000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 16 V to 100 V | $-55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+105^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | 0.03 A to 1.5 A | 0.01 CV or $2 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ | $40 \mathrm{~m} \Omega$ <br> to $2.8 \Omega$ | 5,000 at $85^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| High-grade <br> electrolytic | $1,000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ to $47,000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V to 385 V | $-40^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+85^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | 5 A to 42 A | 0.006 CV or $4 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ | $5 \mathrm{~m} \Omega$ to <br> $70 \mathrm{~m} \Omega$ | 4,000 at $85^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |

power supplies (ie, 50 kHz to 150 kHz ). Notealso that the power loss in a capacitor increases with ESR. Because ESR is so important to the correct operation of a capacitor (it is often the reason why an apparently 'good' component fails to work) we shall examine this in much greater detail later.

## Dissipation factor

The dissipation factor ( D or DF ) of a capacitor is the ratio of the effective series resistance (ESR) of a capacitor to its reactance ( $X_{\mathrm{C}}$ ) at a specified frequency. Dissipation factor is sometimes also referred to as 'tan $\delta$ ', i.e. the tangent of the angle in which ESR ( $R_{\mathrm{E}}$ ) and $X_{\mathrm{C}}$ are the adjacent sides of a right-angle triangle.

$$
\mathrm{D}=\tan \delta
$$

Note that dissipation factor is usually quoted for sinusoidal AC power applications and is less meaningful when conditions are non-sinusoidal (as in switched-mode power supplies). Dissipation factor is given by:
$D F=\frac{R_{\mathrm{E}}}{X_{\mathrm{C}}}=\frac{R_{\mathrm{E}}}{\left(\frac{1}{2 \pi f C}\right)}=2 \pi f C R_{\mathrm{E}}$
To help put this into context, consider the following example. A capacitor of $68 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ with an ESR of $1.5 \Omega$ is used at a frequency of 50 Hz . The dissipation factor can be determined from:

$$
\begin{aligned}
D F & =2 \pi f C R_{\Xi}=6.28 \times 50 \times 68 \times 10^{-6} \times 1.5 \\
& =0.032 \text { or } 3.2 \%
\end{aligned}
$$

## Quality factor

The quality factor ( $Q$ or $Q_{\mathrm{F}}$ ) is the ratio of capacitive reactance ( $X_{\mathrm{C}}$ ) to ESR $\left(R_{\mathrm{E}}\right)$ at a specified frequency. $Q_{\mathrm{F}}$ is the inverse of the dissipation factor, hence:
$Q=\frac{1}{D}$ and $D=\frac{1}{Q}$

## Volumetric efficiency and energy density

The volumetric efficiency (VE) of a capacitor is a measure of how much capacitance is provided for a given component volume. Volumetric


Fig.6.6. Four large electrolytic capacitors connected in parallel to form a large reservoir capacitance at the high-voltage DC input of a highcurrent switched-mode power supply.


Fig.6.7. Surface-mounte reservoir capacitors in a low-power switchedmode power supply.
efficiency is mainly determined by the dielectric constant ( $k$ ) and the construction of the capacitor. It's worth noting that for a given dielectric material, the volume of a capacitor varies roughly with the square of its maximum voltage rating. Thus a 63 V capacitor is likely to have around 100 times the volume of a similar component rated at a mere 6.3 V !
The energy density (ED) of a capacitor is related to its volumetric efficiency. Energy density is given by:
$\mathrm{ED}=\frac{C \times V}{\text { volume }}$
where $C$ is the capacitance and $V$ is the working voltage.

## Maximum ripple current

The maximum ripple current of a capacitor is the maximum RMS current (usually quoted in amps) that can be allowed to flow in the capacitor at a specified frequency. Note that the permissible ripple current for a capacitor is limited by the capacitor's internal temperature, which increases due to internal power dissipation associated with its ESR.

## Dielectric absorption (DA)

Few electronic enthusiasts can fail to have noticed that, once charged, a capacitor seems to retain some of the charge, even after a concerted attempt is made to discharge it! Even shorting its terminals for several seconds can stubbornly fail to remove the charge from a large value capacitor. The reason for this puzzling phenomenon is dielectric absorption (sometimes referred to as 'voltage retention' or 'soakage') resulting in the generation of a potential between the terminals of a capacitor after it has been discharged.
Dielectric absorption can be checked using the following simple procedure:

1. Charge the capacitor to its rated voltage (eg, $63 \mathrm{~V}, 100 \mathrm{~V}$ or 150 V ) for five minutes.
2. Disconnect the capacitor from its charging supply.
3. Short the capacitor's terminals for five


Fig.6.8. Equivalent circuit of a capacitor.
seconds, then leave the capacitor to recover for 60 seconds.
4. Connect a high-resistance voltmeter to the capacitor terminals and readthe recovery voltage present.

The value of dielectric absorption can be determined from:
$D A=\frac{V_{\mathrm{R}}}{V_{\mathrm{s}}} \times 100 \%$
$V_{\mathrm{R}}$ is the recovery voltage and $V_{\mathrm{S}}$ is the charging supply voltage.
For example, if a capacitor is charged from a 63 V supply (its rated working voltage) and it exhibits a recovery voltage of 9 V , then the value of dielectric absorption will be given by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
D A & =\frac{7}{63} \times 100 \%=\frac{1}{9} \times 100 \% \\
& =0.11 \times 100 \%=11 \%
\end{aligned}
$$

## Equivalent series inductance

Acapacitor's equivalentseriesinductance (ESL) is the effective inductance of the capacitor expressed as a single inductance considered to be connected in series with a perfect inductor (see Fig.6.8). It is important to note that ESL is made up of the sum of the internal inductance and the inductance of the conducting path between the capacitor plates and its external connections. ESL reduces the effectiveness of a capacitor at high frequencies. It is also responsible for a sharp dip in impedance that occurs at the series resonant frequency of some types of capacitor. Depending on the component type and value, this resonant effect occurs at frequencies of between about 700 kHz for a small axial lead electrolytic capacitor to around 40 MHz for small PCB-mounting film dielectric capacitors. ESL is mostly of concern for power-supply filtering in high-frequency switched-mode power supplies.

## Insulation resistance

A capacitor's insulation resistance (IR) is the parallel (or 'shunt') resistance of a capacitor (see Fig.6.8). Insulation resistance is usually specified in $\mathrm{M} \Omega$ (a typical value for an electrolytic capacitor being in the range $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ to $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ ). The lower values of insulation resistance are associated with higher values of
capacitance. Some manufacturers quote insulation resistance as a product of the insulation resistance (in $\mathrm{M} \Omega$ ) and capacitance (in $\mu \mathrm{F}$ ). The insulation resistance may thus be specified in $\mathrm{M} \Omega-\mu \mathrm{F}$.
To determine the insulation resistance for a given capacitor it is simply a matter of dividing the $\mathrm{M} \Omega-\mu \mathrm{F}$ value by the component's capacitance. For example, if a $2.2 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitor is taken from a range with a quoted IR value of $4.4 \mathrm{M} \Omega-\mu \mathrm{F}$, it will havean insulation resistance of $2 \mathrm{M} \Omega$.

## Leakage current

Leakage current is often specified in terms of the amount of stored charge (ie, as a constant multiple of capacitance ( $C$ ) and applied voltage, $V$ - typically $0.01 C V$ - or as a maximum current in $\mu \mathrm{A}$ (whichever is the greater). Leakage current decreases with insulation but increases with applied voltage and temperature. Typical leakage currents for electrolytic capacitors are in the range $1 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ to $10 \mu \mathrm{~A}$, and this is usually not significant in power supply applications.

## Findual Mit firnild de Catiaetiou

Having explained some of the characteristics of electrolytic capacitors youwillnowrealisethatsuchcomponents are inherently imperfect and their operation is affected by internal factors such as the presence of small amounts of series resistance and inductance. We can model a real capacitor using the equivalent circuit of a capacitor shown in Fig.6.8. The components shown are: - Effective capacitance, $C$

- Parallel (or 'shunt') resistance ( $R_{\mathrm{P}}$ ) through which a small leakage current flows
- Equivalent series resistance (ESR), $R_{\mathrm{E}}$
- Effective series inductance (ESL), $L_{\mathrm{S}}$.

It is important to understand that the components shown in Fig.6.8 have quite different effects on a capacitor's performance in a working circuit. For example, at low frequencies, ESL $\left(L_{\mathrm{S}}\right)$ is insignificant, it does become increasingly important at high and very high frequencies. $R_{\mathrm{P}}$, on the other hand is


Fig.6.9 In-circuit measurement of the ESR of a PCB mounted radial lead electrolytic capacitor.
of little consequence in low-impedance equipment (such as in a power supply) but it does become important in highimpedance circuit applications (for example, in a sample and hold circuit). Conversely, while $R_{\mathrm{E}}$ is unimportant in a high-impedance circuit, this component becomes critical in low-impedance situations (such as conventional and switched-mode power supplies).
Fortunately, for most power supply applications we can simply ignore the shunt resistance and series inductance leaving us with just the ESR ( $R_{\mathrm{E}}$ ) to consider. Modern high-current switchmode power supplies have increased the demand for low-impedance, highfrequency capacitors with high ripple current ratings. These components must always have a low value of ESR.

## Capacitor failure

Capacitor failure may be either drastic or progressive. There are two types of drastic failure: short-circuit and opencircuit. The likely consequence of either condition is that the equipment to which the component is fitted will fail to operate totally or will fail to operate within specification. A progressive failure, on the other hand, is when one or more aspects of the capacitor fall outside their specified limits. For example, when a capacitor's leakage current increases to a value that is significantly greater than the maximum rating for the component.
Short-circuit failures normally result from failure of the dielectric due to voltage stress. Open-circuits, on the other hand, are usually attributable to mechanical failure of the joint between the foil and capacitor terminals. Such failures are very much less common than electrical failures in the dielectric. Exposure to hydrogenated hydrocarbon solvent cleaners (which enter electrolytic capacitors through the pressure seal) can often result in chemical attacks on the aluminium foil electrodes of electrolytic capacitors. This type of failure is now less common due to the use of no-wash or water-washable fluxes while soldering. When electronic equipment requires cleaning, it is important to ensure that electrolytic capacitors are treated very sparingly, if at all!

## Temperature effects

Failure of large electrolytic capacitors is often caused by relatively high values of working temperature which, in turn, are usually caused by relatively high values of ESR. Since ESR increases with temperature this can become a vicious circle!
The reduction in the working life of a capacitor working at a high temperature usually occurs because the electrolyte starts to evaporate, and its vapour passes through the end seal. The consequent loss of electrolyte reduces the capacitance and increases the ESR (since less electrolyte is present). In turn, this can result in early equipment failure where correct circuit operating conditions are no longer maintained due to ineffective power line filtering or decoupling.


Fig.6.10. Various capacitor ESR measurements showing how ESR varies for different types and sizes of capacitor.

Another contributor to internal temperature rise is ambient temperature. The life expectancy of a capacitor is reduced significantly as the ambient temperature increases simply because this also results in evaporation of the electrolyte, which becomes worse as the temperature increases. In practice, the life expectancy of an electrolytic capacitor at $60^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ is twice that when operating at $75^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Beyond that, the life expectancy of the capacitor is halved for every $10^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ increase in temperature.
It is particularly important to be aware that high internal temperatures can result in a significant increase in the capacitor's internal pressure. This situation can be relieved by several methods, including a controlled thickness vent in the can, a diaphragm in large cans, or by expulsion of the rubber end plug in miniature axial and radial lead electrolytic capacitors.

## Working voltage

The voltage rating for a capacitor is related to the voltage used while forming the dielectric during manufacture and normally represents the maker's

Table 6.2 Typical characteristics for conventional electrolytic capacitors

| Voltage rating (V) | $\mathbf{1 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 6}$ | $\mathbf{2 5}$ | $\mathbf{3 5}$ | $\mathbf{5 0}$ | $\mathbf{6 3}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dissipation factor (D) | 0.19 | 0.16 | 0.14 | 0.12 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| ESR $(\Omega)$ | 1.15 | 0.97 | 0.84 | 0.72 | 0.6 | 0.6 |
| Max ripple current (mA) | 260 | 320 | 430 | 480 | 540 | 580 |

Table 6.3 Typical characteristics for 'low-ESR' electrolytic capacitors

| Voltage rating (V) | $\mathbf{1 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 6}$ | $\mathbf{2 5}$ | $\mathbf{3 5}$ | $\mathbf{5 0}$ | $\mathbf{6 3}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dissipation factor (D) | 0.15 | 0.1 | 0.08 | 0.07 | 0.06 | 0.05 |
| ESR ( $\Omega)$ | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.32 | 0.28 | 0.22 | 0.21 |
| Max. ripple current (mA) | 380 | 450 | 600 | 700 | 900 | 1,100 |

recommended maximum value. With older electrolytic capacitors it was possible for the dielectric to slowly deteriorate when the capacitor was operated at significantly less than its rated value. Nowadays, use of high purity aluminium foil has largely eliminated this effect. Indeed, the effect of using an electrolytic capacitor at less than its rated value is to increase the reliability of the dielectric in accordance with a fifth power law. It's worth illustrating this with two contrasting examples:

## Capacitor A

Capacitor value. $\qquad$ .. 10,000 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ Manufacturer's voltage rating ...... 100V Actual working (operating) voltage .. 67 V Basic failure rate $\qquad$ $0.1 \% / 1,000 \mathrm{hrs}$

## Capacitor B

Capacitor value $\qquad$ .. $6,800 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ Manufacturer's voltage rating ........ 50 V Actual working (operating) voltage .. 50 V Basic failure rate...... $0.05 \%$ per 1,000 hrs

The effective failure rate (EFR) for a capacitor can be calculated from:
$E F R=B F R \times\left(\frac{V_{\mathrm{w}}}{V_{\mathrm{MR}}}\right)^{5} \%$ per 1,000 hours
where BFR is the basic failure rate (\% per 1,000 hours), $V_{\mathrm{W}}$ is the actual working (operating) voltage (in volts), and $V_{\mathrm{MR}}$ is the manufacturer's rated voltage.
Hence, the effective failure rate for capacitor A will be:

$$
\begin{aligned}
E F R & =0.1 \times\left(\frac{67}{100}\right)^{5}=0.1 \times 0.135 \\
& =0.0135 \% \text { per } 1000 \text { hours }
\end{aligned}
$$

While the effective failure at for capacitor B will be:

$$
\begin{aligned}
E F R & =0.05 \times\left(\frac{100}{100}\right)^{5}=0.05 \times 1 \\
& =0.05 \% \text { per } 1000 \text { hours }
\end{aligned}
$$

From this it is worth noting that, even with a lower basic failure rate, capacitor $B$ is over three times more likely to fail than capacitor A!

## Dissipation factor and ESR

Table 6.2 lists typical electrolytic capacitor characteristics in relation to voltage rating. Note how dissipation factor decreases as the voltage rating increases. Higher-voltage electrolytics
tend to have a larger case sizes together with lower ESR values (see Table 6.2). As a result, internal temperature and dissipation factor can be significantly reduced by selecting a component with a higher voltage rating than is strictly necessary for a given application. By limiting internal dissipation, the working temperature of the capacitor is reduced, enhancing dielectric life and ensuring long term reliability. Thus, when the time comes to select an electrolytic component for use as a reservoir capacitor or ripple filter, it is generally wise to apply some voltage de-rating.


Fig.6.11. Some low-cost component checkers incorporate capacitor ESR measurement. Here a good quality $4700 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ axial lead capacitor is being tested.

## PRation Prilicisiliolici 

This month's Practical Project takes the form of a 9 V -to- 15 V voltage converter based on a low-cost 555 timer and voltage doubler. This circuit is ideal for supplying power to CMOS logic devices that require a nominal 15 V supply. The specifications are shown in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4 Specifications for the 9V-to15V CMOS Logic Supply Converter
Input voltage ......................................................... 15 V ( $\pm 0.5 \mathrm{~V}$ )
Output voltage....................
Load current........ 15 mA nominal ( 25 mA max)
Switching frequency.................. 32 kHz approx
Load regulation ....................... $13 \%$ approx
Output resistance................. $100 \Omega$ approx

The circuit of our 9V-to-15 VCMOS Logic Supply Converter is shown in Fig.6.12.


Fig.6.12. Teach-In Practical Project: 9V-to-15V CMOS Logic Supply Converter. (To improve output voltage accuracy, a 15 V Zener diode (in red) can be added.)

A 555 timer (IC1) is used as an astable oscillator with its operating frequency determined by R1, R2 and C2. The square wave output from pin-3 at approximately 32 kHz is fed to a simple voltage-doubler arrangement comprising D2/D3 and C4/ C5. The final DC output appearing across C5 is approximately double that of the supply (less the forward voltage drops associated with D2 and D3).

## You will need...

Perforated copper stripboard (9 strips each with 25 holes)
2 2-way PCB screw terminal connector (ST1 and ST2)
$11 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor (R1)
$122 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor (R2)
$3100 \mu \mathrm{~F} 35 \mathrm{~V}$ capacitors (C1, C4 and C5)
11 nF ceramic capacitor (C2)
1100 nF ceramic capacitor (C3)
1555 8-pin DIL timer (IC1)
1 low-profile 8-pin DIL socket
3 1N4148 diodes (D1 to D3)
115 V Zener diode (optional, see text)
4 stand-off pillars and mounting screws

## Construction

The stripboard layout of the 9 V -to- 15 V CMOS logic supply converter is shown in Fig.6.13. Note that there are 23 track


Fig.6.13. Striphoard layout of the 9V-to-15V CMOS Logic Supply Converter.


Fig.6.14. The finished 9V-to-15V CMOS Logic Supply Converter.
breaks on the underside of the board and 12 links on the upper side. As always, once assembly is complete it is well worth carrying out a careful inspection of the circuit board, particularly checking the off-board wiring and linksto ST1 and ST2.
The off-load output voltage of the 9 V -to15 V CMOS supply converter is just less than 17 V . Due to its inherent ability to operate over a wide range of supply voltages, this is not usually a problem with CMOS logic. However, if it is necessary to maintain the output much closer to the nominal 15 V then a 15 V shunt Zener diode can simply be connected in parallel with C5, as shown in red in Fig.6.12. The
off-load output voltage will then be nearer to 15.1 V , falling to 14.9 V at the nominal 15 mA load current (see Fig.6.15).

## Next month

In next month's Teach-In 2019 we will be introducing negative voltage converters and taking a detailed look at thermal design considerations for power supplies. Our Practical Project will take the form of a simple low-current +12 V to -9 V converter.

Fig.6.15. Load regulation characteristic for the 9V-to-15V CMOS Logic Supply Converter.


## Get it Right! - Selecting and using reservoir capacitors

Failure can be catastrophic, so electrolytic capacitors should always be selected and used with care. The following precautions are recommended:

1. Always ensure that a capacitor is correctly rated in terms of value, working voltage, ripple current, dissipation factor and ESR.
2. Never exceed the working voltage and ripple current ratings of a capacitor. There is a very risk of overheating and explosion if electrolytic components are operated beyond their ratings!


Fig.6.16. Reservoir capacitor arrangements.
3. In critical applications, always use 'low-ESR' capacitors. If in doubt, use a larger value of capacitor with a lower value of ESR in order to improve performance and reduce internal temperature rise.
4. Remember, ESR increases with temperature, so power supply cooling is important. In order to permit convection cooling check that there is sufficient space around large capacitors and avoid placing them in close proximity to heatsinks and dissipators.
5. Large electrolytic capacitors can retain their charge for long periods after the supply has been disconnected. It is essential to ensure that such components are fully discharged before attempting to work on circuits. To ensure that this is the case, a high-value fixed resistor can be connected across the capacitor's terminals, as shown in Fig.6.16(a). Suitable values for resistor $R$ range from around $47 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ to $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$.
6. Electrolytic capacitors that have been kept in store for long periods will invariably be less reliable than
new-stock components. Where performance and reliability are important, you should avoid using surplus and old-stock components.
7. Where electrolytic capacitors are connected in series it is advisable to connect fixed voltage equalising resistors in parallel with each component, as shown in Fig.6.16(b). Suitable values for $R$ usually range from around $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ to $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$, depending upon working voltage.
8. A simple LED indicator (see Fig.6.16(c) can be fitted to indicate that charge is present in large electrolytic components. This also provides a discharge path (see point 5). Suitable values for $R$ range from $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ to $47 \mathrm{k} \Omega$, depending upon working voltage.
9. Electrolytic capacitors should be disposed of with care, particularly in cases where the seal may have ruptured and chemical material may have become exposed.

## 

TThe circuit presented here is a very small Baxandall tone control module designed by Mike Grindle; owner of 'Life is Unfair Audio Devices' (www.facebook.com/ lifeisunfairaudio) who make and design bespoke audio products, mainly guitar pedals. This circuit is specially designed as a little add-on for fuzz pedals and other effects, but as pointed out in Part 1, it can be used in inexpensive HiFi. (In a future issue I'll present a more refined Hi-Fi tone control using 5532 op amps.) This module is based on the TL072/62 Bi-Fet op amp, which suits high impedance sources like electric guitar. However, you can use the 5532 op amp, but you will need to make a few small mods, which I will detail below.
Note that the input bias current for the op amp goes directly through the bass pots wiper, which could cause noise. This only matters with bipolar op amps, such as the 5532 and 4558 . With Bi-Fet op amps, their bias currents are so low it is not a problem. Note also, that with bipolar op amps, the input bias resistor R2 should be dropped to $220 \mathrm{k} \Omega$. If DC blocking is required, put a $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitor in
series with R5 and put a $220 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor across C6 to provide a DC negative feedback path (see Fig.16).

## Battery power and op amp selection

Most guitar foot pedals work on a +9 V power rail, rather than the usual $\pm 12 \mathrm{~V} / 15 \mathrm{~V}$ op amps normally use. You have to be careful in these situations to get the bias point optimised. Theoretically, it is +4.5 V ; however, most op amps find it more difficult to swing right down to $0 V$ than up to $V+$. So, for the TL072 it is best to bias it at 4.9V, making R10 equal to $82 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ (Fig. 8 in Part 1). This will give a maximum output of $6.8 \mathrm{~V} \mathrm{pk}-\mathrm{pk}$, as opposed to $6 \mathrm{~V} \mathrm{pk}-\mathrm{pk}$ with 4.5 V of bias. The current consumption is 2.8 mA . The low power ( 0.5 mA ) TL062 gives more voltage swing, providing 7.8 V with $\mathrm{R} 10=91 \mathrm{k} \Omega$. The 5532 is not really suitable for 9 V because the negative cycle drive is reduced under load unless it is biased to +6 V . It's much better to run a 5532 at +24 V .

## Stability

If you opt for the 5532 approach then note that there is a specific problem
with high-frequency stability when it is used at gains below unity (as occurs in tone controls on the cut settings). This is caused by a reduced phase margin with the internal feedback compensation. One way round this is to use the single version - the 5534 - and over compensate it by pushing C10 from 22 pF to 39 pF (Fig.16), which will reduce slew rate. A better method is to put a series RC network from the inverting input to ground, see R5-C6 in Fig.16. This will increase noise gain, but at inaudible frequencies. Finally, long leads to the pots can cause instability, this can be fixed by increasing the feedback phase-lead capacitor (C8) to say, 470 pF (max).

The component values shown in Fig. 8 (Part 1 - see last month) are optimised for guitar, with the pivot point at 800 Hz rather than the normal 1 kHz Hi-Fi figure. The curves are shown in Fig.17. C6 is increased from 68pF to 2.2 nF on the guitar version to prevent the treble rise from going above 10 kHz . The same with the output capacitor (C7), which rolls off below 50 Hz , whereas for Hi-Fi it should be upped to $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$.


Fig.15. Mike Grindle's PCB for the Baxandall circuit given in Fig. 8 in Part 1 last month.


Fig.16. Baxandall circuit using 5532 op amp. Note compensation network (R5, C6), DC feedback path (R6) and lower impedances.


Fig.17. Frequency response curves for the Mike Grindle Baxandall tone control circuit in Fig. 8 and Fig.15: (top) 800 Hz version; (middle) the pots being incremented, illustrating a small amount of interaction (gain and frequency shifts) between the pots - you can clearly see the movement of the pivot point in the bass; (bottom) the 1 kHz version.

There is also a little bit of power supply housekeeping, such as decoupling capacitor C 8 and current-limiting resistor R9 in Fig. 8 in Part 1 of this article. Power supply reverse-protection diode D1 is also fitted because guitarists are notorious for subjecting equipment to random power supplies. This could be replaced with a Zener diode if you want to stabilise the supply at a particular voltage; for example, if the unit is to
be powered off another supply, such as from a power amplifier. R9 would of course have to have the correct value for your choice of Zener diode voltage.

## Construction

The PCB follows the increasingly popular method of home construction, whereby a CAD-generated file (eg, from Autodesk Eagle) is sent to a Chinese fabrication house, in this case


Fig.19. Component overlay for the PCB designed by Mike Grindle. Only the top layer of track is shown. The design is avilable for download from the EPE / Practical Electronics website.
www.pcbway.com (see Fig.18). On these boards, plated-through holes, component ledgending and solder resist are standard. The top and bottom track layouts and overlay are shown in Fig.19. These features are difficult to achieve with a typical home workshop using a UV light and ferric chloride etching set-up. However, for Chinese PCBs there is the problem of a turnaround of a few weeks. I must confess that despite the mess, I still like the immediacy of home etching for R\&D and prototyping. Checking and modifications can be done in an hour or so in a serendipitous uninterrupted cognitive loop. Normally, when one commits one's design to a fab house it has to be right first time. Both routes have pros and cons. For this project, the relevant files are available on the Practical Electronics website.

## Components

The board was originally designed for right-angle PCB-mount pots, as shown in Fig.20, which are very popular among the guitar pedal building community. With plated-through holes they are strong enough to support small PCBs directly without the need for


Fig.18. PCBs fresh from PCBWay.com


Fig.20. The board can be mounted with right-angle pots.
pillars. Note they are mounted on the underside of the board if they are to turn the right way. These are available from online supplier Tayda, which has become one of the main suppliers for electronic music constructors. If you have to use the standard vertical mount pots, capacitors C2, C3, C9 and C4 will have to be bent over a bit as shown in Fig.21. Later boards and the PE files for download will have the pot positions moved forwards to avoid this.

## Modifications

For stereo, two PCBs will be needed with the rear gang of a pair of dual-gang pots fitted into one PCB, as shown in Fig.22. The other PCB will have to be connected with wire links. For lower noise, use the 5532 and increase all capacitors by a factor of five and reduce all resistors by a factor of five, as shown in Fig.16. This impedance reduction technique is a standard audio trick popularised by Baxandall. He advised speaker manufacturer KEF when their active speakers were hissing, 'to up the level, drop the impedance'.

## Component List

Resistors (All 5\% 0.25W carbon film) R1, R2 1M $\Omega$
R3, R4 $4.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$
R5 $33 \mathrm{k} \Omega$

R6 $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$
R7 100k $\Omega$
R8, R9 $100 \Omega$
R10, $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ (or reduced to $82 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ for TL072 or $91 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ for TL062)
R11 100k $\Omega$

## Potentiometers

VR1, VR2 $50 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ or $47 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ linear 16 mm . Vertical, Alpha RV16AF Rapid 650725 or Tayda right-angle mount PCB type A-2393.

Capacitors (All 5mm polyester)
C1 100nF
C2, C3 33 nF ( 47 nF for 1 kHz )
C4, C5 $4.7 \mathrm{nF}(2.7 \mathrm{nF}$ for 1 kHz )
C6 2.2 nF (reduce to 68 pF for $\mathrm{Hi}-\mathrm{Fi}$ )
C7 470 nF (increase to $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ for $\mathrm{Hi}-\mathrm{Fi}$ )
C8 $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ C $94.7 \mu \mathrm{~F} 2.5 \mathrm{~mm} 10 \mathrm{~V}$ or
greater radial electrolytic

## Semiconductors

TL072 or TL062 dual Bi-Fet op amp D1 1N4001
*D1 can be Zener to suit power supply

## Japanese 'Baxandall'

By putting the passive tone control circuit in the negative feedback loop of an op amp. It is possible to obtain the sonically superior passive curve shape with the desirable active gain characteristic of the normal Baxandall. It also avoids phase inversion
and low input impedance. There is one major problem, anti-log pots are needed because the boost/cut direction is reversed. Getting dual-gang anti-log centre-detent pots can be difficult. A typical circuit is shown in Fig.23, similar to that used in the Sansui A80 and NAD 3020 amplifiers.

## End note

Peter Baxandall was the consummate analogue audio engineer whose influence has not yet been fully appreciated. It's time his biography and technical legacy were published, although this would be a research challenge because his consultancy reports and letters are scattered among numerous engineers and companies. Much of this material resides with those who've worked at KEF, QUAD and Calrec, to name a few. Douglas Self has published some of the correspondence he had in a Linear Audio publication, Baxandall and Self on Audio Power, and that's it for the moment. Luckily, all of Baxandall's Wireless World articles can be viewed at: americanradiohistory.com

There are also articles he wrote for the Journal of the Audio Engineering Society, but these can only be accessed via the AES Electronic Library, for which you'd need to pay. Alternatively, you could join the AES - Peter Baxandall was a lifelong member.


Fig.21. If you use standard vertical-mount pots then some capacitors may need to be bent over a bit. (Note the PCB files have now been stretched a bit to avoid this.)


Fig.22. Dual-gang pots are needed for stereo and two boards are used with the pots only mounted on one. The other board can be linked with stiff wire.


Fig.23. The 'Japanese' Baxandall tone control that is noninverting, has high input impedance and thus needs no buffer. Only one op amp is needed, so good news if one wants to use a discrete amplifier circuit. Also, it has nice single pivot curves. On the down side, unfortunately, it uses unusual, (very) hard-to-find anti-log pots.


# Comparator circuit design 

Recently, there have been a few posts about comparators on the EEWeb forum (www.eeweb.com/ forum/). Qasim Ahtesham asked: 'Has anybody worked with an LM741 and used it for voltage comparison? I am trying to use one to compare two voltages, and use this as a thermostat. The issue is that once $\mathrm{V}+$ $>\mathrm{V}$ - the output voltage is 1.3 to 1.6 V , but not 0 V . Do I need to add offset? I am only using the 5 pins at the moment. Any help on this, or a precise design for comparing the voltages will be highly appreciated.'

Graham Rounce posted: 'T'd like a simple way to determine if a voltage is outside of a certain band. Say, from +2 V to +3 V . I'd like a circuit with an output that goes high $(5 \mathrm{~V})$ if the input voltage is $=<2 \mathrm{~V}$ or $=>3 \mathrm{~V}$. Ideally, I'd like two separate outputs, one for $=<2 \mathrm{~V}$ and the other for $=>3 \mathrm{~V}$. Op amp(s) will no doubt figure in the answer somewhere, but I get a bit confused when using them with a single ( 5 V ) supply.'

So, our next topic is comparators. We will look at their basic principles of operation, including the 'Schmitt trigger', or hysteresis, behaviour which is often set up in comparator circuits, and which has also been discussed in recent forum threads. Both initial posts mentioned op amps (the LM741 is an op amp), rather than comparator chips, although later in the discussion on Graham's question specific comparator ICs such as the LM393 are mentioned. Thus, one of the things we will look at is the difference between op amps, which can be used as comparators, and dedicated comparators. We will use LTspice simulations to illustrate circuit operation. In a recent series of Circuit Surgery articles (October 2018 to January 2019) we covered some basics of LTspice, but here we'll need some operations not covered there, such as simulating op amps that are not in the library. We will look at this separately next month, rather than explaining all aspects of the simulations here.


Fig.1. The symbol for a comparator - the same as for an op omp.

## Definitions

A comparator is a circuit that compares one analogue signal with another and outputs a binary signal based on the result of the comparison. In effect, it is a one-bit analogue-to-digital converter. An op amp used without negative feedback (open loop) has very high gain, so for all but a small range of input voltage differences the output will be at the lowest or highest voltage available from the device (saturation), typically close to the supply rails. These two saturated output voltages may represent Boolean 0 and 1. An op amp used in this way behaves as a comparator. However, its performances may differ from that of a circuit specifically designed to act as a comparator. To compare the two it helps to first define comparator characteristics and see how these relate to op amps.

The circuit symbol for a comparator is shown in Fig. 1 - at its most basic it is the same as an op amp's symbol. A comparator's output voltage may be written mathematically as follows:

$$
V_{\text {out }}=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
V_{O H} & \text { if } v_{p}>v_{n} & \Rightarrow \operatorname{logic} 1 \\
V_{O L} & \text { if } v_{p}<v_{n} & \Rightarrow \operatorname{logic} 0
\end{array}\right.
$$

Where $v_{\mathrm{p}}$ and $v_{\mathrm{n}}$ are the input voltages, as shown on Fig. 1 and $V_{\text {OH }}$ is the logic 1, or high output voltage, and $V_{\text {OL }}$ is the logic 0 , or low output voltage.
The above equation implies infinite gain and zero offset, $V_{\text {OS }}$. This means that an infinitely small voltage change around $v_{\mathrm{p}}=V_{\mathrm{n}}$ will cause the output to switch (infinite gain), and that this switching will occur exactly at $V_{\mathrm{p}}=v_{\mathrm{n}}$ (zero offset).
Fig. 2 shows the effect of finite gain and offset on a comparator's transfer characteristic (relationship between input voltage difference and output voltage). The effect of the offset and finite gain is to reduce the resolution of the comparator, so that the difference between the inputs must be larger than a certain minimum to give reliable detection. Fig. 2 represents the situation for static inputs, where the resolution is approximately $V_{\mathrm{OS}}+V_{\mathrm{IH}}=V_{\mathrm{OS}}+V_{\mathrm{OH}} /$ gain, but typically the resolution will get worse for changing input signals.


Fig.2. Comparator transfer characteristics.

## Basic configurations

In many applications, comparators are used to compare an input signal with a reference voltage generated within the circuit. In such cases we can configure either inverting or non-inverting operation depending on which of the comparator's inputs is connected to the reference and the input (see Fig.3). A non-inverting comparator has a high output (logic 1) when the input is greater than the reference. For an inverting comparator the result is a high output when the input is below the reference.

Graham's requirement for a comparator circuit with two outputs, indicating if


Fig.3. Inverting and non-inverting comparator configurations.

## Simulation files

The LTSpice files discussed in Circuit Surgery are available for download from the PE website.


Fig.4. Window comparator using comparators with open-collector outputs.
the input voltage is $\leq 2 \mathrm{~V}$ or $\geq 3 \mathrm{~V}$ requires two comparators, one inverting (with a 2 V reference) and the other non-inverting (with a 3 V reference). A similar common requirement is to have a single output indicating when the input voltage is within a particular range (ie, above a lower limit $\mathrm{V}_{\text {refL }}$, but below an upper limit $V_{\text {refu }}$ ). This is known as a 'window comparator'. It also requires two comparators (again, one inverting and one non-inverting), but the outputs are combined with a logical (Boolean) AND function (above-lower AND below-upper). The AND function can be implemented by a logic gate, but it is common to use comparators with open-collector outputs, which can be connected together to the same pull-up resistor (see Fig.4) to produce what is known as a 'wired-AND' circuit.

## Op amps vs. comparators

Op amps are designed to be used with negative feedback (eg, provided by the resistors used to set the circuit gain). All amplifiers have some delay from input to output, which results in increasing phase shift as signal frequency increases. At some point, the phase shift reaches $180^{\circ}$, equivalent to inverting the signal, at which point the negative feedback network is actually delivering positive feedback. If the gain of the amplifier and feedback network together is greater than one at this frequency then oscillation will occur. The gain of most op amps is deliberately rolled off as frequency increases to prevent this instability - this is called compensation. Comparators are used open loop or with positive feedback, so compensation is not required, leading to significant differences between the two types of device.


Fig.5. Comparator propagation delay.

Op amps are high-gain, linear, differential amplifiers; so in normal operation the voltage difference between an op amp's inputs is very small (typically microvolts to millivolts). Comparators often have much larger input differences. Not all op amps can tolerate large input voltage differences and they perform very poorly, or may even by damaged, under such conditions Op amp input impedance may drop significantly for large input differences due to conduction of protection diodes - this could upset driving an op amp used as a comparator. Comparators are commonly used to compare voltages that are not close to half the supply range. For an op amp, this is a large common-mode input voltage. Again, not all op amps perform well under such conditions

Gain and offset are characteristics shared by op amps and comparators however, the switching behaviour of comparators means that they have characteristics related to switching which are not relevant to the standard analogue amplifier usage of op amps. The switching characteristics are illustrated in Fig.5, which shows comparator input and output waveforms for a non-inverting configuration with a fixed reference voltage.

## Speed of switching

When the comparator input voltage crosses the reference voltage the comparator output will switch. This will not happen instantaneously - the time taken for the comparator output to reach $50 \%$ of the resulting voltage change is the propagation delay. The time taken for the comparator output voltage to rise from $10 \%$ to $90 \%$ of its range is the rise time. The amount of voltage applied to the comparator's input beyond the switching threshold (reference voltage) is known as the overdrive. Propagation delay and rise time are usually sensitive to overdrive, with increasing overdrive resulting in faster switching times. Comparator speed is also usually dependent on supply voltage.

The maximum rate of change of output voltage an op amp or comparator can deliver is the slew rate. Slew rate is important for op amps because it indicates how well the output voltage will track fast-changing analogue waveforms; failure to do so causes distortion. Slew rate also directly determines the maximum frequency at which an op amp can produce a pure sinewave at full output swing (the fullpower bandwidth). However, sinewave output is of no relevance to comparators.

For any circuit used as a comparator, either the slew rate or the bandwidth may be the dominant factor in determining the propagation delay. Because comparators are just required to switch their outputs quickly, the slew rate itself is not usually very important as a specification - it
is the propagation delay and rise time which are quoted. The compensation applied to op amps tends to reduce their slew rate, making them relatively slow when used as comparators.

A comparator's output will typically switch between the positive and negative supply voltages (or ground and supply in single-supply circuits). However, the output may switch, or it may be possible to arrange for it to switch, to a different voltage from the main comparator supply to facilitate interfacing to logic circuits. Often, comparator output circuits are designed to be easy to interface with specific types of logic. Comparators are therefore available with a variety of output configurations including push-pull, open-drain or collector and LVDS (low-voltage differential signalling). Open-drain and open-collector outputs require an external resistor connected from the output to the positive (digital) supply.

Op amps are designed for use where the output voltage does not hit the supply rails - this would normally imply clipping of the waveform and hence distortion. When op amp outputs are driven hard into saturation they tend to be slow to recover. Like compensation, this makes op amps poor comparators where fast switching is required. The internal circuitry of comparators is designed to prevent the output stages going far into saturation, allowing them to recover very quickly. A further subtlety to this is that op amp saturation recovery time is likely to vary between individual devices, making the propagation delay somewhat unpredictable.

## LM393 vs. LM741 simulation

Qasim asked about using the LM741 as a comparator. If we obtain a SPICE models for this op amp and a comparator then we can run a simulation to compare output waveforms. Fig. 6 shows an LTspice schematic for just this purpose (we will discuss the setup of this next month). The simulation configures both devices in a basic comparator configuration on a single supply, which is 20 V to correspond with the LM741 recommended minimum of $\pm 10 \mathrm{~V}$. The lack of a split supply is not an issue with these basic circuits and a comparator reference at the centre of the supply range is used. The LM393 has an open-collector output so a pull-up resistor (R1) is required.

The results of the simulation are shown in Fig.7. This shows that the output of the LM741 only gets to within about $\pm 1 \mathrm{~V}$ of the supplies - as described by Qasim. This is an inherent characteristic of the LM741, but not fundamental to using op amps as comparators - rail-to-rail output op amps are available, which can output voltages closer to the supply rails. The LM393's output goes up to 20 V because there is no load, and down to 0.15 V (the collector-emitter saturation voltage of the


Fig.6. LTspice simulator schematic for comparing an LM393 comparator with an LM741 op amp used as a comparator. This simulation's setup will be discussed next month.
open-collector output transistor). The simulation also shows the LM741 op amp responds much more slowly than the LM393 comparator, as discussed above.

In summary, op amps can be used as comparators, but not without difficulties, and only in relatively slow-speed applications. Op amps may not perform well with large differential or common-mode inputs, but such conditions are common in comparator applications - so the op amp's datasheet should be consulted for relevant capabilities. Interfacing an op amp output to logic may also be less straightforward than with a comparator specifically designed to drive logic inputs.

## Hysteresis

A comparator used with a single threshold (reference) value, as in the preceding examples, may switch states many times as a noisy, slowly changing input crosses the threshold. This is often undesirable; for example, if the number of thresholdcrossings is to be counted or you want to avoid 'chattering' when the input is close to the threshold. The problem may be overcome by using two thresholds; eg, $V_{\mathrm{TH}}$ and $V_{\mathrm{TL}}$. The difference between $V_{\mathrm{TH}}$ and $V_{\mathrm{TL}}$
is called the 'hysteresis'. A comparator with hysteresis can be made by applying positive feedback to a basic comparator to shift the threshold slightly, depending on which of its two output states the comparator is currently in. Comparators with hysteresis are also known as 'regenerative comparators' or 'Schmitt triggers'.

The input-output response of a comparator with hysteresis is shown in Fig.8. When the input increases past $V_{\mathrm{TH}}$ the comparator switches, but it does not switch back if the input decreases back past $V_{\mathrm{TH}}$. The input must decrease past $V_{\mathrm{TL}}$ before the comparator switches again.

If the input noise level is known, the hysteresis can be set slightly larger than this. The comparator will then not switch as a result of the noise. Fig. 9 shows an LTspice simulation schematic for comparing comparator circuits with and without hysteresis. The comparators use generic op amp models (UniversalOpamps2), which are provided with LTspice, rather than specific devices like the LM393 or LM741. This is sufficient to produce waveforms to illustrate a general situation. LTspice techniques used here will be discussed next month.

Fig. 10 and Fig. 11


Fig.7. Results from simulation of the circuit shown in Fig.6. The cursor (white dotted line) marks where the threshold is crossed. show the result of applying the same noisy signal to a basic comparator (the circuit using U2 in Fig.9) and one with hysteresis (the U1 circuit). As mentioned above, the basic comparator switches multiple times as the noisy signal crosses the threshold, whereas the comparator with hysteresis switches cleanly. Fig. 10 shows that the behaviour of the basic comparator
as it switches is different each time due to the random nature of the noise. Fig. 11 zooms into one threshold crossing.

## Circuit design

As shown in Fig.12, a comparator with hysteresis can be made using a basic comparator with positive feedback. As the thresholds depend on the comparator's output voltages these should ideally be accurately controlled.

Refer to Fig.12. The switching point $V_{\text {comp }}$ depends on $V_{\text {ref }}$ and $V_{\text {out }} \cdot V_{\text {ref }}$ will usually be fixed but $\mathrm{V}_{\text {out }}$ depends on the current state of the comparator. $\mathrm{V}_{\text {out }}$ can take one of two values, which we will assume to be $\pm V_{\mathrm{O}}$ (the positive and negative outputs apply to split-supply circuits). Initially, let us assume that $V_{\text {in }}$ $<V_{\text {comp }}$ so $\mathrm{V}_{\text {out }}=+V_{\mathrm{O}}$ (note that $V_{\text {in }}$ goes to the inverting input). If $V_{\text {in }}$ is slowly increased this condition remains until $V_{\text {in }}$ $=V_{\text {comp }}=V_{\mathrm{TH}}$ (see Fig.7), where:

$$
V_{T H}=\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}+R_{2}} V_{r e f}+\frac{R_{1}}{R_{1}+R_{2}} V_{O}
$$

This equation is obtained by applying the potential divider equation twice and adding the results. First to find the contribution of $V_{\text {ref }}$ to $V_{\text {comp }}$ with $V_{\text {out }}=0$ and then to find the contribution of $V_{\text {out }}$ to $V_{\text {comp }}$ with $V_{\text {ref }}=0$. This is an application of the superposition theorem.
On switching at $V_{\text {comp }}=V_{\mathrm{A}}$ the output changes to $V_{\text {out }}=-V_{\mathrm{O}}$, changing the switching point to a new value, $V_{\text {comp }}=V_{\mathrm{B}}$

$$
V_{T L}=\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}+R_{2}} V_{r e f}-\frac{R_{1}}{R_{1}+R_{2}} V_{O}
$$

$V_{\text {out }}$ will now stay at $-V_{\mathrm{O}}$ until the input falls below $V_{\text {comp }}$ again. The difference in the switching points; ie, the hysteresis $\left(V_{\mathrm{H}}\right)$ is given by:

$$
V_{H}=V_{T H}-V_{T L}=\frac{2 R_{1}}{R_{1}+R_{2}} V_{O}
$$

The switching is symmetrical about the average of $V_{\mathrm{A}}$ and $V_{\mathrm{B}}$, which is:

$$
\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}+R_{2}} V_{r e f}
$$

If $R_{2}$ is much larger than $R_{1}$ (which is common) the average of $V_{\mathrm{A}}$ and $V_{\mathrm{B}}$ is approximately equal to $V_{\text {ref }}$. Under these conditions the comparator switches at points $V_{\mathrm{H}} / 2$ above and below $V_{\text {ref }}$. For the circuit in Fig. 9 the switching points are $1.548 \pm 0.161 \mathrm{~V}$ (1.71V and 1.39V). Note, this


Fig.8. Switching characteristic of comparator with hysteresis.


Fig.9. LTspice simulation schematic using a simple generic op amp model as a comparator to show the difference between circuits with and without hysteresis. The setup of this simulation will be discussed next month.
is not centred exactly on the 1.6 V reference.
If the comparator is run from a single supply the output (ideally) switches between $+V_{\mathrm{O}}$ and 0 V rather than $+V_{\mathrm{O}}$ and $-V_{\mathrm{O}}$. The formula for $V_{\mathrm{TH}}$ is the same, but the zero removes the $-V_{\mathrm{O}}$ term from the $V_{\mathrm{TL}}$ equation, so it becomes:

$$
V_{T L}=\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1}+R_{2}} V_{r e f}
$$

If $R_{2}$ is much larger than $R_{1}$ the lower threshold ( $V_{\text {TL }}$ ) is close to $V_{\text {ree }}$, rather than $V_{\text {ref }}$ being approximately the centre between the two thresholds, as it is with the split supply circuit. This may be a source of confusion with single-supply versions of the circuit.


Fig.12. Using positive feedback to apply hysteresis to a comparator.

## Potential dividers

$V_{\text {ref }}$ in Fig. 12 can be obtained from a potential divider connected between the supplies. Ideally, in order to prevent the threshold setting network ( $R_{1}$ and $R_{2}$ in Fig.12) from loading the potential divider and influencing the reference voltage, the potential resistors should have relatively low resistance. Alternatively, interaction between a potential divider and feedback resistor can be used to set the two threshold voltages using the circuit shown in Fig.13.


Fig.13. A potential divider can be used in conjunction with a feedback resistor to set comparator thresholds. (Single supply circuit shown.)

If we run the circuit in Fig. 13 from a single supply, and assume the comparator's output voltage is 'rail to rail' $\left(+\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}\right.$ or 0 V$)$, then it is reasonably straightforward to find the two thresholds. When the comparator output is $0 \mathrm{~V}, R_{3}$ is effectively connected to ground in parallel with $R_{1}$. The parallel value of these resistors, $R_{\mathrm{P} 13}$, is, using the formula for two parallel resistors:

$$
R_{P 13}=\frac{R_{1} R_{3}}{R_{1}+R_{3}}
$$

This resistance forms a potential divider with $R_{2}$ to set the lower threshold:

$$
V_{T L}=\frac{R_{P 13}}{R_{P 13}+R_{2}} V_{C C}
$$

When the comparator output is $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}, R_{3}$ is effectively connected to the supply in parallel with $R_{2}$. The parallel value of these resistors, $R_{\mathrm{P} 23}$, is given by:

$$
R_{P 23}=\frac{R_{2} R_{3}}{R_{2}+R_{3}}
$$

This resistance forms a potential divider with $R_{1}$ to set the upper threshold:

$$
V_{T H}=\frac{R_{1}}{R_{1}+R_{P 23}} V_{C C}
$$

If the output is not perfectly rail to rail then we need more complex equations which include the two comparator output voltages as well as $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}$.

The switching points for the circuit in Fig. 13 are not necessarily symmetrical around the open circuit voltage of the $R 1-R 2$ potential divider. For example, if we have $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}=5 \mathrm{~V}$ and choose $R_{1}=5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ and $R_{2}=$ $25 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ we get a potential divider voltage of 833 mV , with nothing else connected to it. If we have a feedback resistor $R_{3}=100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ then $R_{\mathrm{P} 13}$ is $4.762 \mathrm{k} \Omega, R_{\mathrm{P} 23}$ is $20 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ and the threshold voltages are $V_{\mathrm{TL}}=0.800 \mathrm{~V}$, and $V_{\mathrm{TH}}=1.00 \mathrm{~V}$ (using the above formula). We have a total hysteresis of 200 mV , but the lower threshold (in this example) is much closer to the open-circuit potential divider voltage than the upper threshold.


Fig.10. Response of the two comparators from simulation schematic in Fig.8.


Fig.11. A zoomed in view of one of the threshold crossings from Fig. 10 to show the waveform at the switching point in more detail.

# Small, cheap and powerful - Part 1 

This month, we go back to basics, looking at Microchip's smallest and most feature-limited processor, the PIC10F200 family. This is a tiny processor available in a hobbyist-friendly eight-pin DIL package or even a six-pin SMD (surface mount device) part not much bigger than a speck of dust, as can been seen in Fig.1. In this series of articles, we will use both types of packages. Example projects will be created on a range of board types, from breadboard and Veroboard to tiny PCBs using the SMD version.

## Minimalist PIC features

So, what does this device consist of? It's offered in a range of packages, but we will focus on the two hobbyist friendly parts - the eight-pin PDIP (plastic dual in line package) and the six-pin surface mount, shown in Fig.1. Both packages offer the same functionality - on the eight-pin variant, two pins are not connected.
These devices can operate between 2.0 V and 5.5 V , which makes them ideal for use with two or three alkaline cells without the additional cost of a voltage regulator. Current consumption is $250 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ at 2.0 V , up to 1 mA at 5.5 V . The processor runs at a fixed frequency of 4 MHz derived from an internal RC (resistor-capacitor) oscillator. An RC oscillator is normally very inaccurate, but each device is calibrated during manufacture and a calibration


Fig.1. The PIC six-pin SMD package 'smart dust'!
correction value is programmed into a word in Flash memory. It's amazing that they can afford the cost of bespoke timing correction given the low cost of the chip - such is the power and efficiency of the automation machines used during chip manufacturing.
The device has an active standby mode - sleep - where it can remain inactive with it's processor clock turned off, but can monitor for transitions on GPIO input pins and wake immediately. In this mode the processor consumes just 200nA - a figure that is as close to nothing as you can get!
The processor is offered in four variants, or 'SKU' varieties, the standard industry term. The features included in each variant are shown in Table 1. Of the four variants we will focus on the PIC10F202; the most limited feature set, but with a little more memory to give us some flexibility. To summarise, the capabilities of the processor we are playing with are:

- 512 words of code, 24 bytes of RAM
- Internal oscillator calibrated to $1 \%$
- 8 -bit timer
- 4 I/O pins
- Wake on pin change
- Very low power consumption
'Wait', I hear you say. 'Is that all? What about I²C bus, SPI bus, UART?' All of these functions can be implemented using 'bit bashing' of pins. If the protocol that runs above those interface requirements is not too demanding, then there is a chance the PIC10F will be capable of achieving them. Remember, if your needs are greater, simply choose a more powerful processor. I once asked a Microchip account manager how many processor SKUs they had. He went away for a bit and then came back saying, 'I gave up at 17,000'. The PIC10F family simply represents the absolute lowest-cost options available from them, and we are going to push those limits - hard!
$\mathrm{I}^{2} \mathrm{C}$ and SPI bus communications are serial protocols based on 'handshakes' between devices to pass data. They do not rely on accurate clock signals or accurate timing of each data bit. UART communication, however, does. With the calibration data provided by Microchip during each device's manufacture, the device's clock can be set to an accuracy of $1 \%$ - enough for UART communication at reasonable speeds. Given this addition, proved by Microchip, the devices capabilities can be considered to be:

Table 1. Feature sets of the PIC10F200 family

| Feature | PIC10F200 | PIC10F202 | PIC10F204 | PIC10F206 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Maximum frequency of operation | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Flash program memory | 256 | 512 | 256 | 512 |
| Data memory (bytes) | 16 | 24 | 16 | 24 |
| Timer module(s) | TMR0 | TMR0 | TMR0 | TMR0 |
| Wake-up from sleep on pin change | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Comparators | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| I/O pins | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Input-only pins | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Internal pull-ups | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| In-circuit serial programing | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Number of instructions | 33 | 33 | 33 | 33 |



Fig.2. PIC10F202 memory layout

- 512 words of code, 24 bytes of RAM
- An internal oscillator calibrated to $1 \%$
- 8-bit timer
- 4 I/O pins
- Wake on pin change
- SPI interface
- $I^{2} \mathrm{C}$ interface
- UART interface
- 1-wire interface
- Very low power consumption.

This now makes the processor a very capable device - so long as your actual requirements on what the device does with those capabilities are not too demanding. Needless to say, you are not going to be able to drive an LCD display with a parallel interface. But you could drive a display equipped with a serial interface, so long as you do not need to display lots of text. All of that text has to be stored in memory, and we have just 512 bytes for Flash memory storage. A serial LCD showing the time, or perhaps the ambient temperature, is probably feasible. Offering both? Perhaps not - but half the fun is experimenting and squeezing the maximum capability from limited resources!
The memory layout of the device is shown in Fig.2. Along with the gen-eral-purpose registers - our available RAM for program variables - there are just eight special function registers. Here lies the PIC10F's attraction for other reasons - it is a very simple device, and therefore makes an ideal basis for learning the complexities of a microcontroller. Other systems, even the venerable Arduino processor, contain far more registers, which may overwhelm a student when trying to master the lower levels of microcontroller systems. The PIC10F makes an ideal entry point.
The pin-out of the first device we will be using is shown in Fig.3. This variant is a dual-in-line plastic DIP package, which is easy to solder to Veroboard, or plug into a breadboard. The
pin-out shows how several functions are mapped to the I/O pins.

## Possibilities

So, what can you actually do with a processor that is so limited, and with so little memory?

First, remember that it is a very small device - as can be seen in Fig.1. This means it can be retrofitted into an existing device or be used to create a tiny functional product.

So what kind of projects are possible? Here are some examples that spring to mind that we believe are possible.

## Smart bike light

Fitted with an accelerometer IC, the PIC10F could be used to sense sudden deceleration, and flash the brake light automatically. A safety feature perhaps?

## Disco lights

A string of RGB LEDs that change colour depending on motion detected by an acceleration IC. Could be fun on the dance floor when mounted on your best dancing shoes!

## Logic probe

An improvement on an old classic a probe that can indicate when high, low or pulses are detected on a wire. Combined with an RGB LED for a more modern approach to indicating the state. We could program green for low, red for high and blue for pulse.

## Temperature warning

A small device that can be placed in the refrigerator and warn when the temperature rises too high. With some additional components it should be possible to detect a low-battery condition too, and provide an additional warning. A circuit like this could run from a coin cell battery and be realised in a very small enclosure.

## Knock-knock switch

Making use of a simple piezo buzzer to act as a vibration sensor, create a device that will toggle a relay when a 'knockknock' physical signal is detected on a surface. Ideal for turning desk lights on and off, or as a general novelty switch.

## Smart switch

A relay-controlled power source that is controlled by a push switch. The switch is de-bounced for a period of time before turning on. While on, a long press of the button will flash an LED as a warning, and then power the relay off if continued to be held. If a latching relay is used, this circuit will consume virtually no power, making it an ideal way of controlling battery-powered


Fig.3. PIC10F202 pinout
devices. It could also have a timer for 'auto power-off' functionality.
In this series of articles we will explore several of these ideas, and other if suggested by readers - just pop your thoughts into the magazine chat forum at: www.eeweb.com/forum/category/ epe-magazine
We will explore circuits from breadboard through to surface-mount PCB designs to show the range of applications.
Although these devices have at a maximum only 512 words of program memory, each of these words is 12-bits long and can hold a complete assembly level instruction, including any data associated with it. All instructions operate in a single instruction cycle (except when the instruction causes a branch or a jump in the program, in which case it takes two cycles). An instruction cycle takes $1 \mu \mathrm{~s}$, so that's a million instructions executed every second fast enough for the simple functions that we might put this device to.
The trick with using such a limited device is applying it to projects that can accommodate it - if you find yourself having to add many external components (or more expensive components) to circumvent the processor's limitations, then you will probably be better off choosing a more powerful processor. We will choose our projects carefully to be relevant to a processor of this size.
The next challenge is what can I do with just 512 program instructions? A surprising amount, as it turns out. Even more surprising is that you do not have to revert to programming the chip in assembly language - we can write in the ' C ' high-level language in many cases. There are some subtleties required in setting up the project code build files, but we will explain these issues and how to avoid them next month.

## Software set-up

If you wish to follow along at home and build these circuits, you will need to download the software development tools from Microchip. We will be using the MPLAB X IDE, and the MPLAB XC Compilers. Both of these are provided for free by Microchip. MPLAB X IDE can be downloaded from here: http:// bit.ly/pe-may19-mc1



Fig.4. Our first PIC10F202 project schematic
those words can hold a complete single assembly instruction. Most instructions occupy a single word of memory. ' C ' language program statements can occupy between one and six instructions typically, depending on the complexity of the particular instruction.

The current version of MPLAB X IDE is v5.15, other versions close to this should be compatible with the project source files we will provide on-line. Installation is straightforward, and typically you accept all the default settings offered. Once the IDE installation completes and you have clicked 'Finish', your web browser should open several webpages on the Microchip website. Select the page titled 'MPLAB- XC Compliers' and select the 'MPLAB XC8 Complier' download. Installation is again straightforward, accepting the default option presented. Once completed, installation of the compiler will be automatically incorporated into MPLAB IDE - there are no additional set-up steps required.

Besides the software installation you will also require a PICkit 3 or PICkit 4 debugger device to load code onto an actual processor. Bear in mind that on a device of this size, debugging software (i.e., single-stepping through each line of execution) is not possible without an optional adaptor board. As our programs are going to be very small, and very simple, we have decided not to worry with this additional cost.

Do download the datasheet for the PIC10F200 family, which can be found here: http://bit.ly/pe-may19-mc2

## Power of C

The assembly language instruction set of the PIC10F is very similar to other PIC processors you may be familiar with, including the PIC16 and PIC18 products. For the most part, however, this will not be relevant, as we will be developing our software in the high-er-level programming language ' C '. We will demonstrate how efficient the ' $C$ ' compiler is, and what tricks we can apply to improve that efficiency when the compiler converts our code into assembly language. While there are only 512 words of Flash memory, the efficiency of the PIC microcontroller architecture means each one of

## Our first project

For our first project we will attempt to create the 'smart power switch' described above. The circuit for this is shown in Fig.4. A relay will be incorporated to allow switching of higher voltage circuits, but we recommend that you do not attempt to do so on Veroboard or breadboard. The IRL510 FET is powerful enough to switch 1A loads directly, so the relay may well be optional. What this circuit could be used for we'll leave to your imagination! For lower current loads the FET could be replaced by a simple NPN transistor.

## In summary

If you think this device is only for novelty functions, think again. It can provide valuable services as a sub-set of a larger circuit (just as the venerable NE555 timer chip has done for decades.) The author has just completed a commercial project where the PIC10F200 was the central microcontroller and has been deployed in the thousands. In that example, the code space used by the application was just 80 words, $35 \%$ of the available space, all written in ' C '. This is a device that is definitely worth taking seriously.
While these parts are readily available from the usual electronics distributors, such as Farnell and RS Components, delivery charges may be significantly higher than the actual device costs these chips cost as little as 50 pence. eBay and Amazon can be a good source, however, just take care to check on the postage and packaging fees. Also, be careful to order the correct part - the plastic DIL package version is PIC10F202-I/P, while the six-pin surface mount part is PIC10F202T-I/OT.

## Next month

In Part 2, next month we will look at how the ' C ' compiler within MPLAB can be configured to reduce the code space used, build the first circuit and explore the code required to bring it to life.

# The glorious Maxfield-Farr 4-bit HRRG Computer 

Ihave to say that I'm super excited at the moment, because a rather cool hobby project that has been dormant for over ten years recently sprung back to life. This is something I'm working on with my chum, Joe Farr, who is a whizz at both hardware and software design.

The project in question involves designing and building a 4 -bit computer from the ground up. Seriously, we're going to document how to implement this design using only primitive logic functions (eg, AND, OR, NAND, NOT), if anyone were to desire to go this far.
But this is not just any old 4-bit computer. No, indeedy-doody. This is the Maxfield-Farr 4-bit HRRG Computer, where HRRG stands for Heath Robinson and Rube Goldberg. As you are nodoubt aware, William Heath Robinson (1872-1944) and Reuben Lucius Goldberg (1883-1970) were both famous for creating illustrations of machines that were intended to perform relatively simple tasks, but whose implementations were incredibly complex such that they performed their chores in exceedingly convoluted and indirect ways.

So, why do we qualify our computer as being 'HRRG'? Well, let me elucidate (don't worry, I'm a professional).

## Mixing technologies

This all started deep in the mists of time when I ran across a mega-cool electro-
mechanical relay-based computer that was created by Harry Porter (no relation to Harry Potter; http://bit.ly/pe-may19cb1). Harry's machine is gloriously presented in a series of glass-fronted wooden cabinets mounted to the wall.
I've long wanted to build a relay-based computer of my own, but I don't want to simply replicate something that someone else has already done. Thus was born the idea of a mixed-technology computer, in which the contents of each of the cabinets is implemented using a different technology, including (but not limited to) relays, vacuum tubes, discrete transistors, 74-series TTL logic, along with mechanical, magnetic, pneumatic, and hydraulic logic.

One thing with which I'm not enamoured about Harry's implementation is that his cabinets are linked by great big bundles of wires. I can't see my wife (Gina the Gorgeous) going for that, so the cabinets in our realisation will communicate via a wireless mesh network. Now, you may be saying to yourself, 'If this doesn't count as HRRG, I don't know what does,' to which I would reply, 'You ain't seen nothing yet!'

## Decisions... decisions...

I tell you, you have no idea how many decisions are involved in this sort of project until you start writing things down. Fortunately, things are a lot easier where there are two of you to bounce
ideas off each other. On the one hand, Joe and I were tempted to build an 8-bit computer, but we eventually opted for the 4-bit version for a number of reasons - not least because we want it to play an educational role, and - in some respects - a 4-bit machine will be easier for beginners to wrap their brains around.

Another consideration is that we find it fun to work around the limitations imposed by a 4 -bit architecture, such as the fact that we have only $2^{4}=$ 16 instructions to play with. Similarly, the fact that we have opted for a 12 -bit address bus that supports only $2^{12}=$ 4,096 memory locations adds to the fun and frivolity.

Some of the early microprocessors had a single accumulator as their main internal data register. Others sported two accumulators or a bunch of generalpurpose registers. Also, there is a range of possibilities when it comes to the addressing modes one decides to support, because each mode adds to the complexity of the instruction decode and addressing logic. Happily, after countless hours of discussion, we eventually tied everything down, now all we have to do is build the beast.

## Returning to Earth

I'm not as stupid as I look, but there again, who could be? Remember that we want our computer to be educational, but even I realise that building


Fig.1. The virtual printer (left) and 4-Bit HRRG Emulator (right).


Fig.2. The HRRG Terminal (Readers of a certain vintage will recall the Sperry Uniscope was a class of computer terminals from the 1960s).
a full-up mixed-technology 4-bit HRRG will be a costly and time-consuming task.

Thus, in addition to the physical realisation, we are also creating a virtual version of the machine - called the $H R R G$ Emulator. This is the part that Joe is currently working on (Fig.1). The virtual printer shows the system being reset, a test program being loaded from tape, and then the audit trail of the test program being single-stepped (you can vary the level of information being printed or switch it off completely as required).

The emulator is presented in the form of a three-shelf rack. Each shelf contains a number of modules. In the upper shelf, from left to right, we see the main power control module, the system clock module, and the main CPU module. On the left-hand side of the middle shelf we see the Programmers Console, which allows you to enter programs by hand (well, mouse-click) using toggle switches and push buttons. On the lower right-hand side, we see the virtual paper-tape reader, which allows you to read in programs from virtual paper tapes.

Speaking of which, Fig. 2 shows the virtual HRRG Terminal running our assembler. On the screen we see the object code that the assembler generated for this test program. This code was then punched to virtual paper tape, which was loaded into the emulator.

We will be adding additional modules, including ROM and RAM and a variety of input/output (I/O) devices, plus users will be able to add their own devices and configure which modules go where in the rack. Once we've ironed out all of the bugs, we will be making this virtual machine available for everyone to download and play with.

But wait, there's more... This is where things get really clever. Joe has architected the virtual machine to reflect the longer-term physical implementation, including the mechanisms by which the various modules (cabinets in the real world) talk to each other.

The idea is that you can start playing with the emulator running on a PC, then - when you are ready - you can commence creating one or more physical cabinets that can


Fig.3. The current state of the Inamorata Prognostication Engine.
communicate (via wireless USB) with the emulator. Each of these physical cabinets can represent as much as the entire CPU, or as little as a single 4-bit word in memory.

This is where I think the real educational value of the 4 -Bit HRRG Computer begins to manifest itself. A high school class could build a cabinet containing a small $4 \times 4$ array of memory implemented in a technology of their choice, and then see their program use the contents of this cabinet to perform its calculations.

I think I'll give you a little time to ponder the implications of what we've discussed thus far before I tell you our ideas for connecting multiple virtual and physical cabinets via the Internet. If you are interested in learning more about all of this, follow my articles on EEWeb.com (http://bit.ly/pe-may19-cb2) and keep on reading my Cool Beans columns here in Practical Electronics.

## The colour of prognostication

I must admit that I'm super-excited by all the interest and emails I've received regarding the Awesome Audio-Reactive Artifact project I introduced in the March 2019 issue of Practical Electronics. In fact, I recently displayed this little beauty at a Hamfest and electronics flea market
in Birmingham, Alabama, US. You can see a video and access the code for this project in an article I posted on EEWeb. com (http://bit.ly/pe-may19-cb3).

I'm also amazed that people are still emailing me to inquire about the status of my Inamorata Prognostication Engine project that I discussed deep in the mists of time circa 2014 (where does the time go?). As you may recall, the purpose of the Prognostication Engine is to predict my wife's mood of the moment when I prepare to head home from my office at the end of the day. (Ironically, if she ever discovers what the Prognostication Engine is actually for, I'm reasonably confident that I won't need it to divine her disposition.)

In fact, this project - which currently has pride of place in my office - is starting to look very tasty; however, it's still a long way from completion. The reason this is taking so long is that I usually have multiple projects on the go at any particular time and I'm very easily distrac... Squirrel!

As we see in Fig.3, the vacuum tubes sitting on top of the engine are illuminated with tri-colour LEDs, as are the dials and switches in the lower part of the unit. Observe the inverted brass cone sticking out of the upper right-hand side of the cabinet. Also observe the antique brass and copper fire extinguisher attached to the side of the lower cabinet. The way we power the beast up is to hold a flame under the inverted brass cone. After a few seconds, we hear a 'pop' sound as this causes the furnace to ignite. This is the point where we have to furiously work a 100-year-old leather foot pump (that originally graced a dentist's office) to get the furnace roaring sufficiently hot that we can throw the master knife switch to let the automatic systems take over. You can see a video showing the Prognostication Engine in action in an article I posted on EEWeb.com (http://bit. ly/pe-may19-cb4). I will of course keep you appraised of any developments on all of my projects in future Cool Beans columns here in Practical Electronics.


Cool bean Max Maxfield (Hawaiian shirt, on the right) is editor-in-chief at EEWeb.com - the go-to site for users of electronic design tools and askers of electronic questions.

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# Part 4: Digital inputs and outputs 

For those of you following this series, by now you should have your Micromite Keyring Computer (MKC) communicating with a PC (using TeraTerm) via the plug-in Development Module (DM). If so, then you are nearly ready to begin exploring MMBASIC and start working through the topics discussed in the upcoming articles. However, if you've not yet had success for any reason, and you need help, then simply drop us an email and we will get you started.

This month, we will begin by performing the same kind of LED test discussed in Part 2 (when checking the $M K C$ ) to finish testing the $D M$. This will ensure that all the input/output (I/O) pins on the DM are correctly connected. This is an essential step and should not be skipped.

We will then configure a couple of $M K C$ options and change some settings in TeraTerm to make the development environment more pleasant to use.

Next, we will touch on the basics of MMBASIC, just to ensure that we are all aware of some fundamental concepts regarding the Micromite and MMBASIC.

After that, the fun will begin; starting with how to control a simple digital output (LED), and then how to monitor a digital input (button). If you're thinking this isn't very exciting, please don't worry - we will quickly expand our activities to demonstrate just how easy it is to use MMBASIC to add 'intelligence' to these basic components.

Ultimately, we will work towards our first mini-project, which will use the concepts that we'll be covering here. That mini-project, which will appear in next month's article, is an Electronic Dice see Fig.1. Although it is just seven LEDs (digital outputs) and one button (digital

[^1]input), please don't underestimate it. My - 'surely there's an app!' - children have explored many board games thanks to the fun they have had when using this Electronic Dice! And it will teach you some very useful Micromite basics.
We mentioned in Part 1 that the idea of this series is to give you exposure to MMBASIC and to make you aware of what is possible, so don't be afraid to modify the hardware and code that we present here, after all, that is the best way to learn!

It is assumed at this point that your $M K C$ is successfully communicating with TeraTerm. If not, then please perform all the tests discussed in Parts $2 \& 3$ before contacting us for help.

## Testing the DM

Before you continue with any of the topics coming up, it is very important that you successfully perform the LED test on the input/output headers on the $D M$. Each of the 19 input/output pins has two points to test on the $D M$, hence 38 points in total will need checking. These points are all shown highlighted in Fig.2.

To perform the test, simply grab yourself an LED and a resistor with a value between $330 \Omega$ and $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$. Connect them as shown in Fig.2, either by soldering them together, or by using a breadboard and some jumper wires. Ensure that the LED's shorter lead is properly and securely inserted into the 4 -way 0 V header J7 (any of the four points is suitable). The test probe can be poked into the socket Fig.2. Summary of the $19 \mathrm{I} / \mathrm{O}$ pin numbers and locations on the point under test. Development Module (DM). Also shown is the simple test circuit.




- remember it is a polarised component; the short lead ( k ) needs to be connected to 0 V . Also check the resistor value. If you have a value much higher than $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ then the LED may be too dim to see if you're working in bright sunlight. These quick checks will resolve any issue and your test circuit is now ready to be used for testing the I/O points on the $D M$.


## Errata

In Part 3 (Fig. 2 on page 63) the component side of the stripboard layout incorrectly shows a track cut at position X21. This cut should not be there. The track side of the stripboard in Fig. 2 is correctly shown with no cut at X21. If you have made this cut, then simply solder a small wire link to bridge the cut. It is mentioned here because a cut at X21 would isolate I/O pin 15 from the 20-way header; and hence the following test would fail for I/O 15 on J12.
There are now three possible scenarios for your MKC test software - it is:

Fig.3. Ensure your TeraTerm setup screens match these settings and remember to save!

1. Installed and running 2. Installed but is not running 3. Not installed. (scenario 1). it is scenario 3.


You may know the scenario you are in, but for now just follow the guide below.

Referring to Fig.2, insert the test probe into the position highlighted with number 2 on the 14 -way header J10. If you see the test LED briefly flash at approximately one-second intervals, then you have the MKC test software running on your ${ }^{\text {MKC }}$

If the test LED is not flashing, then type RUN on the TeraTerm keyboard and check to see if the word RUN appears on the TeraTerm screen. If so, press the Enter key and check to see if the test LED flashes. If the test LED begins to flash, then scenario 2 applies to you; otherwise

For scenarios 1 and 2, simply go ahead and work through the 19 numbered points on J10, J3 and J2. At each point you should see the test LED flash. If any point does not flash, then there is an issue with that I/O signal between the PIC inside the MKC and the point under test. Check for open circuits and for track shorts using the methods discussed in Part 2, page 69 (Useful test info section). For those of you that have installed the 20-way header (J12), go ahead and test the $19 \mathrm{I} / \mathrm{O}$ points on that too (note that the left-hand point (reset) will not flash the test LED). If everything checks out then jump over the next section and go to: Configuring your MKC and TeraTerm.

If you are here then you must fall under scenario 3 (ie, MKC test software not installed). Hopefully, if you type anything into TeraTerm you will see the characters appear on the TeraTerm screen. If not, then Press (and hold down) the Ctrl key and then press the C key. This will stop any program that may be running. Now press any key and you should see the character(s) appear on the TeraTerm

screen. If not, then you will need to check your TeraTerm communication, as discussed in Part 3.

Once you have the command prompt on the TeraTerm screen (the ' $>$ ' character) and are able to type and see the characters, then you can begin to methodically test the 19 I/O signals on the $D M$ as follows.

Insert the test probe into the first point (number 2) and type SETPIN (2), DOUT followed by the Enter key. Next type PIN (2) $=1$ and again hit Enter. The test LED should now turn on (if not, first check for typing errors on the TeraTerm screen and also check your test probe is at point 2). If the LED is still off, then you have an issue with I/O number 2 somewhere between the $M K C$ and the point being tested.

If your test LED successfully turned on, then move the test probe into the next point (number 3 in this case). The test LED should now be off. If however it is on, then you have a short somewhere between the tracks for I/O number 2 (which is on) and the tracks for I/O number 3 (which is 'floating').

Assuming the test LED is correctly off with the test probe in point number 3, type: SETPIN(2), OFF (Enter), $\operatorname{SETPIN}$ (3), DOUT (Enter), PIN (3) =1 (Enter). This should turn on the test LED once again.

You then need to work through the above process that is summarised as:

- Probe into point $x$
- SETPIN(x),DOUT
- $\operatorname{PIN}(\mathrm{x})=1$
- Check LED on
- Move probe to next point $y$
- Check LED off
- SETPIN(x),OFF
- SETPIN(y), DOUT
- $\operatorname{PIN}(\mathrm{y})=1$
- check LED on

Replace x and y above with the relevant pin numbers; so $x$ would become 3 , and y becomes 4. Hopefully this is fairly straightforward, but remember the pins are not always the next value up, so when checking point number 7 (for x ), y will be 9 (and not 8). Refer to J12 in Fig. 2 for the numbering sequence you need to use. When you finally reach 26 (for x ), the LED should turn on when you type PIN (26) $=1$. If it does, then testing is complete.

## Configuring your MKC and TeraTerm

To make things more user-friendly, we will tweak some settings in both the Micromite, and in TeraTerm (refer to the screen shots in Fig.3). Begin by connecting your MKC to TeraTerm, (remember to select the correct COM Port number, and also ensure baud speed is set to 38,400 ) and then press the Reset button on the $D M$ (top-left button). You should see the Micromite and copyright message, as in the two lines shown in Part 3 (Fig. 9 on page 65). This means that you are successfully connected to the PC. Now press the ' C ' key while holding down Ctrl and you should see the command prompt ( $>$ ).

Next, type the following (strictly in the sequence shown). First, type NEW (Enter). This will remove the program in your MKC. If you had the $М К C$ test software installed, then on the next power-up there will be no program to automatically run, hence you will just see the screen, as shown in Part 3, Fig. 9.

Next, type in: OPTION DISPLAY 40,125 (Enter). This will give a bigger screen area to work with. And finally, type: OPTION BAUDRATE 115200 (Enter). Be careful to check that you type exactly '115200'. This setting will speed up the console link between the MKC and TeraTerm (think of it as improving the screen refresh rate in TeraTerm). Note that when you next press Enter you will appear to lose connection to TeraTerm don't panic! We will shortly change the baud rate in TeraTerm to match.
In TeraTerm, select the Setup tab and work down the list making sure your settings match those as shown in the screen shots in Fig.3. Finally, it is important you select 'Save setup'; and if you followed everything correctly then the next time you start TeraTerm, you will see a nice blue screen and you should be communicating once again with your MKC but at the faster baud rate of 115200 . Press the reset button on the $D M$ and ensure you see the welcome message and the cursor ( $>$ ).

## The basics of MMBASIC

We have previously recommended that you download the excellent Getting Started with the Micromite guide, and also the Micromite User Manual. If you have not yet done so, then please go ahead and download them from geoffg. net/micromite.html (scroll to bottom of page and they are the first couple of items under the 'Downloads’ heading).

It's not possible in the limited space here to cover everything about coding, so we will be taking things easy and will learn commands and techniques along the way. The idea is to show working examples with the use of some basic (cheap) components. For those of you interested in exploring topics at a greater level, then please refer to the manuals they contain a lot of information.

That said, the following are some essential concepts that we need to understand before moving on.

- An electronics project/gadget can generally be broken down into three elements: Input - Process - Output. The $M K C$ is the Process element and adds intelligence.
- The intelligence is in the form of a program. The Micromite only ever contains a single program - there is no file system with multiple programs stored in memory
- Flash memory is used to store this single program, so when powering up the Micromite, the program is already in memory and immediately available
- A program comprises lines of code. A line of code contains instructions (commands) that the Micromite executes. Commands can be typed in upper or lower case; however, it is generally easier to read code if it is typed in upper case
- When a program is 'run', it will start at the first line of code and will generally flow down to the next line of code. However, some commands can cause the program to 'jump', 'branch', or 'loop' to other areas of the program depending upon a condition or test
- With MMBASIC, there are many ways to achieve the same end result. No one way is right or wrong; but some ways may be better than others
- Some commands have an immediate visible output (such as turning on an LED), while others are 'configuration'; ie, not a visible output, (such as setting an I/O pin to a digital output type)

One of the most important things to understand about the Micromite is


Fig.5. Various ways used to connect LEDs.
that at any time, it is only ever in one of three modes. It is either waiting for an instruction from you (command prompt displayed), or, you are entering a program (full screen editor displayed), or, it is running the program in memory. These three modes are referred to as IMMEDIATE mode, EDIT mode, and RUN mode, as shown in Fig. 4.
To switch between modes, you either type a single command (if at the command prompt), or you press a function key (F1, F2, or F4), or Ctrl and C. There are other key-press combinations based around the Ctrl key for those of you with keyboards lacking function keys (refer to User Manual - Full Screen Editor section).
One important point mentioned in Part 1 - the Micromite makes it extremely quick and easy to change a program (in the Editor), and then immediately run the program to see the result of the change. Should you need to make further changes (you may be adjusting the speed of a flashing LED which is controlled by a single parameter) then pressing the single relevant function key switches modes immediately and you can make the change as needed. Most other microcontrollers require you to make the change on a PC, then compile your code, then upload your code to the microcontroller, then run the code. Any further changes require this whole sequence to be repeated (which can take a considerable time).
Please take a moment to study Fig. 4 carefully, and then for a little practice performing switching modes, turn to the bottom of page 11 in the User Manual (A Simple Program section) and create, run, and edit the one-line 'Hello World' program shown.

## Inputs and outputs

We will soon move on to controlling and sensing basic digital inputs and outputs, but before that, let's first examine an input and an output that involves no components connected to the I/O pins. I am talking about the console; ie, TeraTerm. The screen is an output, and the keyboard is an input.

To get something displayed on the TeraTerm screen we can use the command PRINT. Go ahead and try this. At the command prompt type: PRINT $22 / 7$ (Enter). You should see 3.14286 displayed on the TeraTerm screen (along with the cursor on the next line waiting for the next instruction from you). In the Immediate mode, when you press the Enter key, anything you type on the line will be acted upon immediately. Press some random keys and then Enter and see what happens. You should see an error message along with a clue as to what the error is.

The TeraTerm keyboard can be used as an input with the command input. To quickly demonstrate, type the following as a single line at the command prompt:

```
INPUT x : PRINT "Number entered was:"; x
```

When you press Enter you will see a question mark appear. This is MMBASIC waiting for you to input a number. Type in a number and then press the Enter key. You will then see an 'output' displayed (because of the PRINT command). This is a very simple example of how to use the TeraTerm console as an input (via the keyboard), and as an output (via the screen).

## Digital outputs

A digital output device is something that is either 'on' or 'off'. An obvious component to demonstrate this is an LED; however, it could just as easily be a motor, a buzzer, a relay... Note that the device being controlled may well need some interface electronics
between it and the Micromite. For example, the Micromite has not got the power to turn on a powerful mains motor, but this could be done with a relay controlled by the Micromite (and the mains motor connected to the relay contacts).

Back to controlling an LED; please now refer to Fig. 5 i). To turn the LED on, point A is connected to +V , and point B to 0 V . The resistor is required to limit the current flowing through the LED (as is standard). However, to have the Micromite control the LED we connect point A to an I/O pin (instead of +V ), and connect point B to 0 V . This is exactly how the LED test circuit works (as used when I/O pins on the MKC and $D M$ were tested).

Go ahead and connect a resistor and an LED to any one of the 19 available I/O pins (refer to Fig. 2 for pin number/locations). It doesn't matter if you switch round the positions of the resistor and the LED (as in Fig. 5 (ii)) - the same logic still applies.
There are two commands we need to use - one will configure the relevant pin to be a digital output, and the other command will turn the pin on $(+\mathrm{V})$, or off $(0 \mathrm{~V})$.
At the command prompt, type SETP IN (2) , DOUT, substituting the value 2 with whatever pin number you are using. When you press Enter, nothing will appear to happen; however, you have now configured the pin for use as a digital output (DOUT).

Now type PIN (2) =1 again substituting the value 2 with the relevant pin number. This time you should see something happen - the LED will turn on. If not, check connections and commands to ensure you have used the correct positions and pin number value.

Now type PIN (2) $=0$ (using your pin number) and the LED will turn off. That's it, you now have software control of hardware via a digital output pin.

To make it more interesting, we will now enter a small program into the Editor and add a bit of intelligence. Note that while entering a line of code (into the Editor), when you press Enter the command is not acted upon as it would be at the command prompt. The Editor is just a place to enter a program; and things will only happen when you run your program.
At the command prompt, type NEW (to delete any code currently in the Micromite) and then type EDIT (or press F4). You should now have a blank screen with just a line of words at the bottom. Go ahead and type the following (pressing Enter to move to the next line down):
SETPIN(2),DOUT ' configure pin 2 as digital output $\operatorname{PIN}(2)=1$
' switch pin 2 ON
PAUSE $500 \quad$ ' delay for 500 mS ( $1 / 2$ second)
PIN(2)=0 ' switch pin 2 OFF
PAUSE $500 \quad$ ' 0.5 second delay
Note that the command PAUSE just adds a delay. The Micromite will sit there doing nothing for the time specified in milliseconds. There are 1000 milliseconds (ms) in one second; so 500 ms is half a second.
An important aspect of the Editor is that comments can be added to a program by using the ' $'$ ' character. Anything on a line of code typed after the ' ' ' is ignored by the Micromite.
Now move your LED over to I/O pin 2 and press F2 to automatically save and run your program. If everything works correctly, then you will see the LED turn on for half a second, and then turn off. Because the program was able to continue and reach the end of the code, the Micromite automatically returned back to the command prompt. However, if there was an error of some kind, then a warning will be displayed on the TeraTerm screen. If this happens, press F4 and the cursor will be placed at the start of the offending line of code. Check you entered things exactly as shown above, correcting any errors. Then press F2 to run the program again.
To make things a bit more interesting we will now create what is called a 'loop', allowing the LED to continually switch on, then off. Put another way, it will make the LED continually
flash. To do this we use the command pair: DO and LOOP. DO needs to be added after the SETP IN line of code and marks the start of the loop; and LOOP goes at the end of the program so that the program jumps back to the line of code immediately after the DO command.

Go to the Editor (F4) and position the cursor at the end of the first line of code. Note: you can use the End key to position the cursor at the end of the current line of code; and a second press of the End key will position the cursor at the end of the very last line of code. Likewise, with the Home key; one press to go to the start of the current line, and a second press to go to the start of the first line of code. Alternatively, use the four arrow keys to move the cursor. You cannot use the mouse to scroll, or to position the cursor - this is a limitation of TeraTerm.

So, with the cursor at the end of the first line of code (the line containing the SETP IN command), press Enter and a new blank line is inserted. Now type DO and then press the End key twice to go to the end of your program and press Enter, and then type LOOP. Your program should now look something similar to that shown in the User Manual on page 12 (but with a different pin number, and with different PAUSE values). It is worth indenting the lines of code that are between DO and LOOP (as shown in the program listing on page 12). You can use the tab key to do this, or use the spacebar. Indenting makes it much easier to read the code (and has zero impact on performance because the Micromite just ignores spaces at the start of a line).

Press F2 and this should result in the LED turning on for half a second, then off for half a second, and then continuing to flash like this until you either remove power, reset the Micromite, or press Ctrl-C.

Experiment with changing the values of the two PAUSE commands to vary the flash rate (they don't need to be the same as each other). This is also good practice for switching between the three Micromite modes, while seeing the effects of changing values in your code.

We recommend you read the rest of page 12 (Setting the AUTORUN option). In summary, at the command prompt, type OPTION AUTORUN ON and then reset the Micromite with the reset button on the $D M$. You will see the start-up message, and then the program will automatically run (LED flashes). Ctrl-C will stop the program running and return you to the command prompt. OPTION AUTORUN OFF will prevent the program in the Micromite from running automatically at power up.

Referring back to Fig. 5 i) and ii), point $A$ is controlled by the command PIN $(x)=1$ (or 0 ) to turn the LED on (or off) - with $x$ replaced by the relevant pin number. Now consider connecting point B to an I/O pin (instead of connecting it to 0 V ). Let's connect it to pin y (ie, not the same pin as point A). You may ask why do this, but bear with us. The LED will only come on when $\operatorname{PIN}(x)=1$ and $\operatorname{PIN}(y)=0$. $\operatorname{If} \operatorname{PIN}(y)=1$, then the LED is off, irrespective of PIN ( $x$ ) setting. If this sounds complex, just liken it to point B being connected to +V . You will not be able to turn the LED on while point B is at +V .

The reason for explaining this is that we can do a neat trick if we connect two LEDs back to back (to a single resistor) as shown in Fig. 5 iii). Assume that point C is connected to I/O pin $x$, and point D is connect to I/O pin y. Now we have four combinations of outcome depending on how the Micromite sets PIN ( x ) and PIN ( y ):
$\operatorname{PIN}(x)=0$ and $\operatorname{PIN}(y)=0$ - both LEDs off
$\operatorname{PIN}(\mathrm{x})=1$ and $\operatorname{PIN}(\mathrm{y})=0-$ LED D1 on, D2 off
$\operatorname{PIN}(\mathrm{x})=0$ and $\operatorname{PIN}(\mathrm{y})=1-\operatorname{LED}$ D2 on, D1 off
$\operatorname{PIN}(x)=1$ and $\operatorname{PIN}(y)=1$ - both LEDs off
At first glance this may not seem very useful, but now consider what happens if we rapidly switch between PIN $(x)=1$ with $\operatorname{PIN}(y)=0$ and then switch to $\operatorname{PIN}(x)=0$ with $\operatorname{PIN}(y)=1$. It
will result in both LEDs being on; albeit they will be slightly dimmer in appearance due to the rapid switching between on and off (but our persistence of vision will make it appear as if both LED sen) a

So with just two
button to a digital input pin: i) active low,


Fig.6. Two different ways to connect a ii) active high. I/O pins, and one resistor, we can alter our code to result in any combination of LEDs being turned on and/or off.

Don't worry if this seems confusing; it is mentioned here because it is a technique that will be used in next month's Electronic Dice program, making it possible to control seven LEDs with just three I/O pins (and only four resistors).

## Digital inputs

A digital input pin allows MMBASIC to be able to monitor a device that is in one of only two states. A switch or button is a great example of a digital input device - it can be either open or closed. Referring to Fig. 6 i), this is a typical connection of how we can detect if a button is being pushed or not. When the button is not being pressed, point A will be at +V (regarded as a high logic level) due to the pull-up resistor. However, when the button is pressed, point A is then directly connected to 0 V , which is regarded as a low logic level (point A is 'active low'). A resistor value in the region of $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ will ensure that when the button is pressed, then only a small amount of current flows between +V and 0 V rather than shorting it out.

Fig. 6 ii) is similar to i), but the logic levels are now working in reverse. Point $B$ is at a low logic level when the button is not being pressed (thanks to the pull-down resistor), and at a high logic level when the button is pressed (point B is 'active high').

To demonstrate the above, build the circuit shown in Fig. 6 i) and use it to control the flashing LED program from the previous section. You need a button or switch, and a resistor with a value between $470 \Omega$ and $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$. If you don't have a button or switch, then simply use two jumper wires and you can touch them together to simulate a button press. Use a breadboard, a small piece of stripboard, or even just the leads of the resistor to assemble the circuit shown in Fig. 6 i). Connect the +V side of the pull-up resistor to the middle 4 -way socket row, J8 (this is at a 3 V 3 level). Connect one side of the button to $0 \mathrm{~V}(\mathrm{~J} 7$, the left hand 4-way socket row), and point A to I/O pin 14.

Now insert the following three lines of code to the very beginning of your program:
SETPIN(14),DIN ' make I/O pin 14 a digital input waiting: ' this is a label we are defining $\operatorname{IF} \operatorname{PIN}(14)=1$ THEN GOTO waiting ' test High (1)

Before you press F2 to run this, there are three new things introduced here that briefly need explaining. The SETPIN command is configuring the I/O pin 14 as a digital input with the use of DIN (as opposed to DOUT). More information is available in the User Manual on page 39 (Using the I/O pins).

A label called waiting: has been defined and simply gives us a point in our code that can be referenced should we wish to jump to that part of the code. Remember, program flow normally goes from top to bottom, but we can jump to other parts should we need to. Labels give us this ability and need to be a word that is not the same as an MMBASIC command. It also needs to have a colon character immediately after the last character. Finally, the IF . . THEN . . . is an example of a 'test condition'. What this is doing is quite straightforward. It is testing the state of


Fig.7. A complete kit of parts for the Electronic Dice.
The kit includes a mini-IR controller and the relevant IR receiver which will be used in many of our mini-projects. It is available from micromite.org

I/O pin 14, and if it is at a high logic level (which is represented by the value 1 ), then the program flow will Goto the label waiting: - otherwise, it will continue on down to next line of code. For our circuit, this means while the button is not pressed the program flow will continually jump to waiting : The only way the program will go past this IF . . .THEN. . . line of code is when PIN (14)=0, ie, the button is pressed.
So go ahead and press F2 to run your new code. At first, nothing will appear to happen because the LED is not flashing. However, the program flow is following your instructions precisely and it is only when you press the button that the LED will begin to flash.
We will now use a feature that demonstrates how you can remove a hardware component simply by modifying the SETP IN command. Refer to Fig. 6 i), which is the circuit you have currently working. Thanks to MMBASIC we can now physically remove the pull-up resistor from our circuit and use an additional parameter with the SETPIN command; as follows: SETPIN (14) , DIN, PULLUP

Run your code once again and check it all works (the LED only starts flashing once you press the button).

Having worked through these simple digital input and output building-block examples, you can begin to see just how easy it is to use a Micromite to add intelligence to a project. Furthermore, by just changing your code slightly (and leaving the hardware the same), you can add features that are simply not possible with hard wiring alone.

## Next month

In the next part we will introduce a few more new commands and techniques before building the Electronic Dice mini-project. We will show you how easy it is to add an infrared remote keypad to a Micromite, and will use this to make a simple dice game. In the meantime, please enjoy experimenting!



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This book is written using plain English, avoids technical jargon wherever possible and covers many of the coding instructions and methods which are common to most programming languages. It should be helpful to beginners of any age, whether planning a career in computing or writing code as an enjoyable hobby

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# Electronic Building Blocks 



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## Multi-pulser

The item discussed this month is a multi-purpose variable duty cycle and frequency driver with 5A capability that can perform lots of different functions. Examples? It can be used to help teach electronics; test pulsewidth modulated (PWM) solenoids and car fuel injectors; act as a DC motor speed control or light dimmer; or even a fully-configurable DC light flasher.
We'll look at each of those uses in a moment, but first, what do we actually have here? In fact, it's two modules: a frequency generator module, and a MOSFET power board - together, they form the 'Multi-pulser'!

## Frequency generator module

The frequency generator module is a self-contained device that outputs a variable duty cycle, variable frequency, square wave signal. Control of frequency ( $1 \mathrm{~Hz}-150 \mathrm{kHz}$ ) and duty cycle $(0-100 \%)$ is via front-mounted up/down pushbuttons, and the selected frequency and duty cycle are shown on a back-lit LCD. Power supply can be anything from $3.3-30 \mathrm{~V}$. The selected frequency and duty cycle settings are


The frequency generator module has an in-built LCD that shows selected frequency and duty cycle. The up/down keys each side of the display allow you to select frequency ( $1 \mathrm{~Hz}-150 \mathrm{kHz}$ ) and duty cycle ( $0-100 \%$ ). Cost of the module is just over $£ 4$ delivered!


The backlit LCD is clear and bright. Here the output has been set to a frequency of 350 Hz and a duty cycle of $40 \%$.
saved, even with power switched off. Maximum output power of the module is 30 mA , and the PWM output swing reflects the supply voltage. The module is designed to be flush-mounted on a panel, requiring a cut-out of $72 \times 39 \mathrm{~mm}$. To find the module, search eBay under 'Signal Generator Test Equipment PWM Pulse Frequency Adjustable Module', at the time of writing item 303100197720. The cost is incredibly low - from around $£ 4.15$ delivered. Connections are straightforward - two for power and two for the output.
If you connect an LED to the output (remember to equip it with a dropping resistor to suit the supply voltage), you immediately have an excellent teaching tool for demonstrating what 'variable duty cycle' and 'variable frequency' mean. Students just watch the LED and alter the settings! Nothing brings these concepts more to life than holding a fixed frequency of (say) 1 Hz


The four connections to the frequency generator are well-labelled - power $(-)$ and (+), and the PWM output - also polarised.
and varying the duty cycle, and then holding a fixed duty cycle (eg, 20\%) and varying the frequency. To make such a teaching tool, mount the display and a bright LED in a plastic box, powered by a 9 V battery and equipped with an on/off switch.
Note that when changing the frequency (but not the duty cycle), the output can momentarily go to $100 \%$ duty cycle, irrespective of the actual duty cycle output that has been set. This could be important in some applications.

## MOSFET power module

So, how to run higher current loads than the 30 mA the frequency generator module can deliver?
I initially connected the module to a standard DC:DC Solid State Relay (SSR) but found that the SSRs I tried didn't like being operated at high frequencies. (And plus, SSRs are still relatively expensive.) I then bought a small MOSFET-based PWM control module - dubbed on eBay '3-20V MOSFET MOS Transistor Trigger Switch Driver Board PWM Control Module BDAU', at the time of writing item 163330158628. This costs under $£ 2$ delivered.
Two inputs on this board are for the PWM control signal - provided in this case by the frequency generator module. There are also inputs for power and ground, and the output to the device being driven. The MOSFET is an FQD60N03L, whose data sheet shows that it can handle quite high current (over 40A); however, that's obviously with plenty of heatsinking. In this application, the board's maker claims 10A, but I was happier with 5A continuous - this resulted in a $47^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ running temperature in $20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ambient conditions. (Note that the board can therefore drive


Using this MOSFET module allows the frequency generator to drive higher current loads - up to 5A continuous, and proportionally more at lower duty cycles.
higher current loads at lower duty cycles - eg, 10A at $50 \%$ duty cycle.)
A maximum PWM frequency of 20 kHz is specified. Any voltage from $3-20 \mathrm{~V}$ can be used as the PWM signal, and the output will work over a $3.7-27 \mathrm{~V}$ range. That makes this module a good match with the frequency generator eg, run them off the same $4-20 \mathrm{~V}$ supply.

## Uses

The combination of the driver board and the variable frequency/duty cycle module allows you to do lots of things! One use is testing 12V PWM solenoids, used as flow control valves. In addition to being switched on or off, solenoid valves can be triggered with a variable PWM signal, resulting in a variable flow capability. However, the


As with the frequency generator, the connections are clearly labelled. The Gnd and PWM terminals connect to the respective terminals on the frequency generator. Power and ground connect to the (DC+) and (DC-) terminals, and the load is connected to the Out terminals.
duty cycle range over which a particular valve is effective, and the best frequency at which to pulse it, can often be found only through testing the valve. This set-up can easily achieve that.
Another application of a variable duty cycle / variable frequency driver is when testing car fuel injectors. When injectors are being flow tested, they need to be pulsed at frequencies that replicate how they are run in an engine (eg, $8-50 \mathrm{~Hz}$ ) and at different duty cycles, eg, from 3-80\%. Again, these control modules can easily achieve that.
You can also use the system as a speed control for an electric motor - run from a regulated supply, you should be able to quite precisely and
repeatedly dial-up specific speeds of devices like engravers, fans... whatever you need to drive. The system can also work as a low-voltage DC light dimmer - set a suitably high frequency and then control the brightness just by altering the duty cycle.
Finally, the system can be used to pulse a light or buzzer. The versatility of the settings means you can specify whatever frequency and duty cycle you want. For example, to save power, use a higher frequency (eg, 5 Hz ) and a lower duty cycle (eg, 10\%). For maximum attention, use a lower frequency (eg, 1 Hz ) and a longer duty cycle (eg, $50 \%$ ). And I am sure that I've only just scratched the surface of possible uses!

## Next month

In June, a slight change from my usual Electronic Building Blocks column. I'll be covering the use of thermal imaging cameras and asking are they worth it in hobby electronics? One thing I can vouch for - it took great images of Victor, our pet sheep, on a cold morning!



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## Next Month - in the June issue

## LC Meter

This self-calibrating digital meter is based on a custom Arduino shield. It has an amazing measurement range from under 1pF to over 1F (yes, one farad!) and under 100 nH to several henries. A must-build piece of equipment!

## USB Flexitimer

Here's a very flexible timer that can switch its relay at intervals from milliseconds to days. It can be triggered by an external pulse or set to run continuously, switching its relay on and off at a particular interval.
MIDI Ultimate Synthesiser - Part 5
Next month is all about MIDI - both as a general topic and how it is implemented within the MIDI Ultimate.

## Low-cost Electronic Modules - Part 17

Learn to use a highly linear 4 GHz digital attenuator, which is programmable over $0-31.5 \mathrm{~dB}$ in 0.5 dB steps. Great for avoiding overload in a mixer or amplifier.

## Teach-In 2019 - Part 7

In Part 7 of Teach-In 2019 we will be introducing negative voltage converters and
 taking a detailed look at thermal design considerations for power supplies.

Make it with Micromite - Part 5
In June, more on digital inputs and outputs - we'll build the Electronic Dice mini-project.

## PLUS!

All your favourite regular columns from Cool Beans, Circuit Surgery and Electronic Building Blocks to PIC n' Mix, Audio Out, Techo Talk and Net Work.


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[^2]:    For editorial contact details see page 7 .

