



HB7 Stirling Engine Base measurements: 128 mm x 108 mm x 170 mm, 1 kg Base plate: beech - Working rpm: 2000 rpm/min. (the engine has a aluminium good cooling Cylinder) Bearing application: 10 high-class ball-bearings Material: screw, side parts all stainless steel Cylinder brass, Rest aluminium and stainless steel Available as a kit £80.75 or built £84.99 www.mamodspares.co.uk



#### HB9 Stirfing engine

Base measurements: 156 mm x 108 mm x 130 mm, 0.6 Kg Base plate: beech Working rpm: approx. 2,000 min Bearing application: 6 high-class ball-bearings Material of the engine: brass, aluminium, stainless steel running time: 30-45 min

Available as a kit £97.75 or built £101.99



HB10 Stirling Engine

Base measurements: 156 mm x 108 mm x 130 mm, 0,6 Kg Base plate: beech Working rpm: approx. 2,000 rpm Bearing application: 6 high-class ball-bearings Material of the engine: brass, aluminium, stainless steel running time: 30-45 min Available as a kit £97.75 or built £101.99

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HB11 Stirling Engine Base measurements: 156 mm x 108 mm x 130 mm, 0.7 Kg Base plate: beech

Working rpm: 2000 - 2500 rpm/min,run Bearing application: 4 high-class ball-bearings Material: screw, side parts total stainless steel Cylinder brass Rest aluminium, stainless steel.

Available as a kit £97.75 or built £101.99 www.mamodspares.co.uk



Base measurements: 156 mm x 108 mm x 130 mm, 1 Kg Base plate: beech Working rpm: 2000 - 2500 rpm/min,Bearing application: 6 high-class ball-bearings Material: screw, side parts total stainless steel Cylinder brass Rest aluminium, stainless steel Available as a kit £136 or built £140.25 www.mamodspares.co.uk



Base measurements: 156 mm x 108 mm x 150 mm, 0,75 kg Base plate: beech Working rpm: 2000 - 2500 rpm/min. Bearing application: 6 high-class ball-bearings Material: screw, side parts total stainless steel Cylinder brass Available as a kit £97.75 or built £101.99



Everything in the kit enables you to build a fully functional model steam engine. The main material is brass and the finished machine demonstrates the principle of oscillation. The boiler, uses solid fuel tablets, and is quite safe. All critical parts (boiler, end caps, safety vent etc.) are ready finished to ensure success. The very detailed instruction booklet (25 pages) makes completion of this project possible in a step by step manner. Among the techniques experienced are silver soldering, folding, drilling, fitting and testing. £29.70 ref STEAMKIT Silver solder/flux pack £3.50 ref SSK

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Base measurements: 156 mm x 108 mm x 150 mm, 1 kg Base plate: beech Working rpm: 2000 - 2500 rpm/min, Incl. drive-pulley for external drives Bearing application: 10 high-class ball-bearings Material: screw, side parts total stainless steelCylinder brass Rest aluminium, stainless steel Available as a kit £140.25 or built £144.50

www.mamodspares.co.uk



HB15 Stirling Engine Base measurements: 128 mm x 108 mm x 170 mm, 0,75 kg Base plate: beech Working rpm: 2000 rpm/min. (the engine has a aluminium good cooling Cylinder) Bearing application: 6 high-class ball-bearings Material: screw, side parts total stainless steel Cylinder brass Rest aluminium, stainless steel Available as a kit £97.75 or built £102 www.mamodspares.co.uk





Base measurements: 128 mm x 108 mm x 170 mm, 1 kg Base plate: beech Working rpm: 2000 rpm/min. (the engine has a aluminium good cooling Cylinder) Bearing application: 10 high-class ball-bearings Material: screw, side parts total stainless steel Cylinder brass Rest aluminium, stainless steel Available as a kit £140.25 or built £144.50



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BENCH PSU 0-15V 0-2a Output and voltage are both smooth and can be regulated according to work, Input 230V, 21/2-number LCD display for voltage and current, Robust PC-grey housing Size 13x15x21cm, Weight 3.2kg £48 REF trans2



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This 30 in 1 electronic kit includes an introduction to electrical and electronic technology. It provides conponents that can be used to make a variety of experiments including Timers and Burglar Alarms. Requires: 3 x AA batteries. £15.00 ref BET1803

AM/FM Radio This kit enables you to learn about electronics and also put this knowledge into practice so you can see and hear the effects. Includes manual with explanations about the components and the electronic principles. Req's: 3 x AA batts. £13 ref BET1801

This 40 in 1 electronic kit includes an introduction to electrical and electronic technology. It provides conponents that can be used in making basic digital logic cir-cuits, then progresses to using Integrated circuits to make and test a variety of digital circuits, including Flip Flops and Counters. Reg's: 4 x AA batteries. £17 ref **BET1804** 

The 75 in 1 electronic kit includes an nintroduction to electrical and electronic technology. It provides conponents that can be used to make and test a wide variety of experiments including Water Sensors, Logic Circuits and Oscillators. The kit then progresses to the use of an intergrated circuit to produce digital voice and sound recording experiments such as Morning Call and Burglar Alarm. Requires: 3 x AA batteries. £20 ref BET1806

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ENERGY METER



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#### ATMEL 89xxxx Programmer



Uses serial port and any standard terminal comms program. 4 LED's display the status. ZIF sockets not included. Supply: 16Vdc.

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#### Introduction to PIC Programming

Go from complete beginner to burning a PIC and writing code in no time! Includes 49 page step-by-step PDF Tutorial Manual, Programming Hardware (with LED



test section), Win 3.11-XP Programming Software (Program, Read, Verify & Erase), and 1rewritable PIC16F84A that you can use with different code (4 detailed examples provided for you to learn from). PC parallel port. Kit Order Code: 3081KT - £16.95 Assembled Order Code: AS3081 - £24.95

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microcontroller. All circuits are embedded within the package and additional add-on expansion modules are available to assist you with project development.

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The ABC Maxi STARTER PACK includes one assembled Maxi Board, parallel and serial cables, and Windows software CD-ROM featuring an Assembler, BASIC compiler and in-system programmer Order Code ABCMAXISP - £89.95 The ABC Maxi boards only can also be purchased separately at £69.95 each.

#### **Controllers & Loggers**

Here are just a few of the controller and data acquisition and control units we have. See website for full details Suitable PSU for all units: Order Code PSU445 £8.95

#### Rolling Code 4-Channel UHF Remote

State-of-the-Art. High security. 4 channels. Momentary or latching relay output. Range up to 40m. Up to 15 Tx's can be learnt by one Rx (kit includes one Tx but more



Rx: PCB 77x85mm, 12Vdc/6mA (standby), Two & Ten Channel versions also available. Kit Order Code: 3180KT - £44.95 Assembled Order Code: AS3180 - £51.95

available separately). 4 indicator LED 's

#### Computer Temperature Data Logger



Serial port 4-channel temperature logger. °C or °F. Continuously logs up to 4 separate sensors located 200m+ from board. Wide range of free software

applications for storing/using data. PCB just 38x38mm. Powered by PC. Includes one DS1820 sensor and four header cables. Kit Order Code: 3145KT - £18.95 Assembled Order Code: AS3145 - £25.95 Additional DS1820 Sensors - £3.95 each

Most items are available in kit form (KT suffix) or pre-assembled and ready for use (AS prefix)

#### **DTMF Telephone Relay Switcher** Call your phone number using a DTMF phone from

anywhere in the world and remotely turn on/off any of the 4 relays as desired.



User settable Security Password, Anti-Tamper, Rings to Answer, Auto Hang-up and Lockout. Includes plastic case, 130 x 110 x 30mm, Power: 12Vdc. Kit Order Code: 3140KT - £46.95

Assembled Order Code: AS3140 - £59.95

#### Serial Port Isolated I/O Relay Module



Computer controlled 8 channel relay board, 5A mains rated relay outputs and 4 optoisolated digital inputs (for monitoring switch states, etc). Useful in a variety of control

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#### Infrared RC 12-Channel Relay Board



Kit Order Code: 3142KT - £47.95 Assembled Order Code: AS3142 - £59.95

#### PC / Standalone Unipolar

Stepper Motor Driver Drives any 5, 6 or 8-lead unipolar stepper motor rated up to 6 Amps max. Provides speed and direc-



tion control. Operates in stand-alone or PCcontrolled mode. Up to six 3179 driver boards can be connected to a single parallel port. Supply: 9Vdc. PCB: 80x50mm. Kit Order Code: 3179KT - £11.95 Assembled Order Code: AS3179 - £18.95

Bi-Polar Stepper Motor Driver also available (Order Code 3158 - details on website)

#### DC Motor Speed Controller (100V/7.5A)



Control the speed of almost any common DC motor rated up to 100V/7.5A. Pulse width modulation

output for maximum motor torque at all speeds. Supply: 9-18Vdc. Box supplied. Dimensions (mm): 60Wx100Lx60H. Kit Order Code: 3067KT - £13.95 Assembled Order Code: AS3067 - £19.95

Bidirectional DC Motor Driver also available (Order Code 3166 - details on website)

#### **Hot New Kits This Summer!**

Here are a few of the most recent kits added to our range. See website or join our email Newsletter for all the latest news.

#### **EPE Ultrasonic Wind Speed Meter**



Solid-state design wind speed meter (anemometer) that uses ultrasonic techniques and has no moving parts and

does not need calibrating. It is intended for sports-type activities, such as track events, sailing, hang-gliding, kites and model aircraft flying, to name but a few. It can even be used to monitor conditions in your garden. The probe is pointed in the direction from which the wind is blowing and the speed is displayed on an LCD display.

#### Specifications

- Units of display: metres per second, feet per
- second, kilometres per hour and miles per hour
- Resolution: Nearest tenth of a metre Range: Zero to 50mph approx.

Based on the project published in Everyday Practical Electronics, Jan 2003. We have made a few minor design changes (see website for full details). Power: 9Vdc (PP3 battery). Main PCB: 50x83mm. Kit Order Code: 3168KT - £36.95

#### Audio DTMF Decoder and Display



Detects DTMF tones via an onboard electret microphone or direct from the phone lines through an audio transformer. The numbers are displayed on a 16

character, single line display as they are received. Up to 32 numbers can be displayed by scrolling the display left and right. There is also a serial output for sending the detected tones to a PC via the serial port. The unit will not detect numbers dialled using pulse dialling. Circuit is microcontroller based. Supply: 9-12V DC (Order Code PSU445). Main PCB: 55x95mm

Kit Order Code: 3153KT - £20.95 Assembled Order Code: AS3153 - £29.95

#### EPE PIC Controlled LED Flasher



This versatile PIC based LED or filament bulb flasher can be used to flash from 1 to 176 LEDs. The user

arranges the LEDs in any pattern they wish. The kit comes with 8 super bright red LEDs and 8 green LEDs. Based on the Versatile PIC Flasher, EPE Magazine Dec 02. See website for full details. Board Supply: 9-12Vdc. LED supply: 9-45Vdc (depending on number of LED used). PCB: 43x54mm. Kit Order Code: 3169KT - £11.95

Most items are available in kit form (KT suffix) or assembled and ready for use (AS prefix).

#### FM Bugs & Transmitters

Our extensive range goes from discreet surveillance bugs to powerful FM broadcast transmitters. Here are a few examples. All can be received on a standard FM radio and have adjustable transmitting frequency.

#### MMTX' Micro-Miniature 9V FM Room Bug



Our best selling bug! Good performance. Just 25x15mm. Sold to detective agencies worldwide. Small enough to hide just about anywhere. Operates at the 'less busy' top

end of the commercial FM waveband and also up into the more private Air band. Range: 500m. Supply: PP3 battery. Kit Order Code: 3051KT - £8.95 Assembled Order Code: AS3051 - £14.95

#### HPTX' High Power FM Room Bug

Our most powerful room bug. Very impressive performance. Clear and stable output signal thanks to the extra circuitry employed. Range: 1000m @ 9V. Supply: 6-12V

DC (9V PP3 battery clip supplied), 70x15mm. Kit Order Code: 3032KT - £9.95 Assembled Order Code: AS3032 - £17.95

#### MTTX' Miniature Telephone Transmitter



Attach anywhere along phone line. Tune a radio into the signal and hear exactly what both parties are saying. Transmits only

Powered from phone line so completely maintenance free once installed. Requires no aerial wire - uses phone line as antenna. Suitable for any phone system worldwide. Range: 300m. 20x 45mm. Kit Order Code: 3016KT - £7.95

Assembled Order Code: AS3016 - £13.95

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PLL based crystal-locked wide band FM transmitter delivering a high quality, stable 10mW output. Accepts both MIC audio signal (10mV) and LINE input (1v p-p) for example

hi-fi, CD, audio mixer (like our kit 1052) or computer sound card. Supply: 9-15Vdc. Kit Order Code: 3172KT - £19.95 Assembled Order Code: AS3172 - £32.95

#### 3 Watt FM Transmitter



Small, powerful FM transmitter. Audio preamp stage and three RF stages deliver 3 watts of RF power. Use with the

electret microphone supplied or any line level audio source (e.g. CD or tape OUT, mixer. sound card, etc). Aerial can be an open dipole or Ground Plane. Ideal project for the novice wishing to get started in the fascinating world of FM broadcasting. 45x145mm. Kit Order Code: 1028KT - £23.95 Assembled Order Code: AS1028 - £31.95



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DC voltage: 200mV-1000V • AC voltage: 2V-700V • DC current: 2mA-20A • AC current: 20mA-20A • Resistance: 2000-200MQ • Capacitance: 2nF-20uF • Frequency: 20kHz • Max display: 19999

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THE UK'S No.1 MAGAZINE FOR ELECTRONICS TECHNOLOGY & COMPUTER PROJECTS

### VOL. 36 No. 5 MAY 2007

#### Teach-In

Our Teach-In 2006 series of eleven parts finished in the September '06 issue; written by Mike Tooley, this series was very popular and such is the demand for back issues that seven of them have now sold out. To meet the on-going demand we have produced the whole series in book form. In addition to the book, Mike has also produced an Electronics Teach-In CD-ROM which comes free with the book. The CD-ROM contains TINA circuit simulation software, Flowcode PIC programming software (both are time limited versions), Interactive Quizzes to test your understanding of the series and the full series in PDF form, plus various links to relevent websites.

Mike has also written a special TINA Tutorial and set up the test and demonstration circuits from the series in the TINA package, so that you can test and modify each one on-screen and see the results on virtual meters and oscilloscopes etc. It brings the whole series to life without the need to assemble components - although full breadboard layouts for the demonstration circuits are also provided.

#### Projects

In addition to the full Teach-In series, the book also contains the whole Back To Basics series of CMOS projects previously published in 2005. This series of 15 projects was based around CMOS logic devices and, following a short introduction to CMOS and the chips used, describes the following inexpensive, easy-to-build projects: Fridge/Freezer Door Alarm, Water Level Detector; Burglar Alarm, Scarecrow, Digital Lock, Door Chime, Electronic Dice, Kitchen Timer, Room Thermometer, Daily Reminder, Whistle Switch, Parking Radar, Telephone Switch, Noughts and Crosses Enigma and a Weather Vane. Each project is PCBbased with full constructional details, and boards are available from our PCB Service. There is also a MW/LW Radio Receiver project included in the last part of the Teach-In series.

All in all, we believe this is an excellent package which will be of interest to everyone learning about electronics, to those that want to brush up on their theory and anyone interested in building simple projects and understanding what goes on inside them.

The book (with the free CD-ROM) is now available from larger WHSmith stores or by mail order from our Direct Book Service - see page

66, or go to the Online Shop on our UK website at www.epemag.co.uk

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Copies of EPE are available on subscription anywhere in the world (see opposite) and from all UK newsagents (distributed by SEYMOUR). EPE can also be purchased from retail magazine outlets around the world. An Internet on-line version can be purchased and downloaded for just \$15.99US (approx £9.00) per year available from www.epemag.com



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# News . . .

A roundup of the latest Everyday News from the world of electronics

# S-10 pocket camcorder

# Panasonic has upset the status quo by introducing a HDTV camcorder with no moving parts. Barry Fox reports.

Thirty years ago, fleet-footed JVC caught its big and cumbersome parent Panasonic on the hop by inventing VHS and then being first with a truly portable VHS-C camcorder. JVC was first with a pocket DV camcorder and then re-wrote the camcorder rulebook once again with the Everio hard disc devices – first using removable IBM Microdrives, and later (when the Microdrive price did not fall as JVC expected) a fixed hard drive with sufficient data capacity to capture a holiday's worth of video.

Now it is parent company Panasonic's turn to upset the status quo. At a recent seminar in Italy, Panasonic unveiled a hedge-betting range of camcorders that use every imaginable method of storing video, not just DV tape and 8cm recordable DVD, but also solid state memory cards. The big breakthrough is capturing useful amounts of HDTV in solid state.

The new S-10 pocket camcorder shoots Standard Definition MPEG-2 digital video direct to an SD memory card. Because there are no moving parts, it can be dropped from 1.2 metres, blown with beach sand and sprayed with snow or water. Also, the lack of mechanics to move means the camera is ready to shoot and capture in 1.7 seconds, which is less than half the usual start up time for disc or tape. Because there is so little inside the case it is palm size and will sell for around 400 Euros. The camera comes with a 2GB card which stores around 50 minutes of standard definition video, equivalent in quality to DV tape.

The SD-1 raises the quality bar by using a three-CCD image sensor to shoot HDTV direct to an SD card. The unconfirmed, but likely price of 1200 Euros, includes a 4GB card which will hold an hour of HD video. The camera body has five mini microphones on the top to capture 5.1 Dolby Digital surround sound. This immediately prompts the question, how can it be possible to store an hour of HDTV and 5.1 surround on a 4GB card?

#### **AVCHD Recording Standard**

The SD-1 uses the new AVCHD recording standard developed by Sony and Panasonic. AVCHD is a flavour of MPEG4, the compression system used by Sky for HDTV. There are three data rate options, 13Mbps which gives the best quality and gets 40 minutes from a 4GB card, 9Mbps for the round hour and 6Mbps for 90 minutes.

The AVCHD standard is new and still

emerging. There is no editing software yet, but packages are coming soon from the likes of Pinnacle and Adobe. The Panasonic camera claims full HD resolution, which is widescreen  $1920 \times 1080$ pixels, but actually – Panasonic admits when quizzed – captures only  $1440 \times 1080$ which is not supported by HDMI. The Panasonic camera upscales for HDMI connection to a TV or Blu-ray recorder.

"If we used full 1920 pixel resolution the camcorder would consume too much power and be too hot to hold" explained one of Panasonic's design engineers. "Also, recording 1920 pixels would need more bit rate and reduce recording time. So we record at 1440 and upscale from 1920 × 1080 in the camera".

Even with this compromise the picture quality is very impressive and Panasonic's new Mega Optical Image Stabiliser system uses a gyroscope sensor to detect and correct for handshake by physically moving the lens. There are already plans for 8GB and 16GB SD cards, with 32GB promised.

The price is still considerably above tape, but the way computer and camera memory prices have tumbled over the last year gives a clear pointer to where the camcorder market is going next.

The use of AVCHD is especially significant after comments made by Etsuji Shuda, Panasonic's AV Business Group Executive. First, and with no surprises, he repeated the confident line started by the Blu-ray Disc Group at *CES* in Las Vegas that "BD is becoming the *de facto* standard, with seven out of eight studios committed to BD and only 10% of movie titles available only on HD-DVD".

#### **BD-10A Blu-ray Player**

Shuda then unveiled the new BD-10A Bluray player. Cosmetically similar to the BD-10, the new model supports 7.1 Dolby True HD and DTS HD lossless audio. The 10A can also play discs recorded in the HDTV camera recording format AVCHD. The BD-10A also supports a new enhanced version of the Viera Link system (previously called HDAVI Control) that lets one remote handset control multiple components if they are connected by HDMI cable.

Early adopters who have bought one of the first BD-10 players are not left out. The BD-10's firmware can be upgraded to allow AVCHD playback and Panasonic also 'plans to provide firmware that will allow the BD-10 to decode TrueHD and DTS-HD and upgrade Viera Link'. More information on the upgrade will be available from the website:

#### http://panasonic.jp/support/global/cs/ bd/download/bd10/index.html.

The BD-10A, like the BD-10, has no Ethernet port for the enhanced interactivity which Blu-ray promises for the future. No hardware upgrade will be possible.

Sales of BD-10s across Europe are now in "four digit numbers" says Panasonic. The new player comes with a BD demo disc, which does the format no favours. Welsh pop-opera singer Katherine Jenkins mimes out of sync on a concert stage and white cliff top 'mysteriously turning from blond to brunette and back again several times during a single song.

Ironically, it is Panasonic's arch rival Sony who might solve this problem – sync not hair colour. All plasma and LCD screens delay the picture and all digital audio processors delay the sound but by different amounts. This is the big bugbear for all digital systems. Lips and words are out of sync, which is especially disconcerting if the sound is ahead of the vision, something that never happens in nature.

#### Sony's Patent

Sony is now patenting a system which passes both sound and picture through an additional delay. This puts a check test signal into the sound and picture and then automatically delays either the sound or picture to make the test marks line up. From then on the sound and pictures you see and hear are in perfect step.

Whether Sony's system can help Panasonic's Katherine Jenkins remains to be seen. Every sync problem is different, sometimes frozen into the recording and sometimes created at playback; and sometimes a bit of both. Anyone interested in the technical detail of Sony's system can Google the US Patent Office website and look up patent application number 20060290810.

#### Correction

Peter Brunning of Brunning Software tells us that his press release for their Visual C Training Course, which we published in the March '07 issue, incorrectly stated that Microchip was the source for the Visual C# Express edition download. He points out it should be *Microsoft*, we apologise for the error.



#### ScanTool Carman OBD-II Analyser

Scantool.net have sent us a press release about Nokia having launched the Carman OBD-II Analyser based on the ElmScan 5 Scantool.

Nokia Technology Institute (INdT) in Brazil launched Carman &mdash an opensource OBD-II analyzer software for the Maemo platform, targeted towards the 770 and N800 Nokia Internet Tablets.

#### **HORNBY LAUNCH**

Specialist transport publisher Ian Allan has joined forces with leading model manufacturer Hornby to launch *Hornby Magazine.* 

The makers of Hornby train sets and Scalextric slot car racing sets, who recently made the news headlines with their acquisition of the assets of failed Hull-based Humbrol paints and Airfix plastic kits, have given their backing to the new model railway magazine, which is specifically aimed at those starting out in the hobby.

New computer-based technology has brought model railways into the 21st century with Digital Command Control which enables model trains to be driven just like the real thing, including authentic sound, via a microprocessor which gives each locomotive its independently controllable characteristics.

As well as appealing to youngsters, who can now combine computer technology with a worthwhile 3D hobby, the magazine will also be welcomed by those 40 to 50year-olds, returning to the hobby after their activities with model trains were interrupted by family matters 20 to 30 years ago. Since then, there have been great advances in the hobby, and the magazine will show The software is designed for the ElmScan 5 scan tool, and features: Live data monitoring: Trouble Code reading; Easy customization; Data recording; Bluetooth wireless communication. To learn more, visit the Carman website: http://carman.garage.maemo.org/.

ScanTool's details are: P.O. Box 81441, Phoenix, AZ 85069, USA. Tel: +1 (602) 923-1870 x112. Fax: +1 (602) 532-7625. Email: Vitaliy@scantool.net.

those taking it up again how to progress their interest.

The full-colour A4 magazine has 116 pages and is perfect bound with a cover price of £3.35. The first issue includes a free model building kit, which readers can construct with the help of a step-by-step feature inside, while the second issue (on sale May 11) carries free cover-mounted Hornby-branded accessories.

Editor Mike Wild said: "These are exciting times for railway modellers with the hobby finally arriving in the 21st Century. *Hornby Magazine* will fill a much needed niche for beginners of all ages. Each issue will be packed with inspirational features showing how to get started in the hobby and what can be achieved".

Hornby's marketing manager, Simon Kohler said: "We are delighted to support this publishing initiative which we believe will help thousands of people enjoy this wonderful hobby for the first time. As we have incorporated new technology into our model manufacturing processes, so our business has seen considerable growth in recent years. The time is right therefore for a new magazine that embraces the incredible advances in miniature railway modelling and presents it in a way that is easily understood".

#### Weatherproof LED Display

Lascar Electronics has introduced the EM32-4-LED, a 4-digit LED data display well suited for use in microcontroller-based applications. The display area comprises four 7-segment LED digits and three decimal places, each of which can be individually addressed using serial communication.

The low-power red LEDs provide a vivid display that can be easily read in most lighting conditions, whilst drawing just 20mA at 5V. Connection to the display is via a 12-pin DIL connection with industrystandard 2.54mm (0.1in) pitch.

Prices of the display start at £24.95. For further information contact Lascar Electronics Ltd., Module House, Whiteparish, Salisbury, Wilts SP5 2SJ. Tel: +44 (0)1794 884567. Fax: +44 (0)1794 884616. Web: www.lascar.co.uk.



#### **PICkit Serial Tool**

Microchip has announced the introduction of the PICkit Serial Analyzer, a tool which enables design engineers to easily and cost-effectively interface with embedded circuits within serial systems using any Windows-based PC.

The tool comes complete with a 28-pin demo board featuring the 8-bit PIC16F886 microcontroller. The kit's hardware and graphical user interface (GUI) software allow testing and debugging of communication between the PC and several industry-standard serial protocols on the microcontroller being tested, including I<sup>2</sup>C, SPI and USART.

Included are user guides for the analyser and demo board, complete source code, selected application notes, and Microchip's free MPLAB IDE integrated development environment.

The kit and boards can be ordered from www.microchipdirect.com.



PICkit Serial Analyzer

#### MAGENTA GEIGER TUBES

Magenta Electronics tell us that they now stock the Geiger tubes for the *PIC Digital Geiger Counter*, published in our Feb '07 issue. These are brand new LND712 and are supplied with a certificate of comformance. The price is £53.00 + VAT (£62.28 incl. VAT)

Contact details: Magenta Electronics Ltd.,135 Hunter Street, Burton-on Trent, Staffs, DE14 2ST. Tel: 01283 565435. Fax: 01283 546932. Email: sales@ magenta2000.co.uk. Web: www.magenta 2000.co.uk



The LND712 Geiger Tube

# TECHNO-TALK MARK NELSON

### **Leaner And Greener**

#### Electronics can help us reduce energy consumption, as Mark Nelson reports

eaner and greener, that's how Mayor of London Ken Livingstone wants to transform the UK's capital city, and as part of this crusade he wants Londoners and visitors to consume far less energy. We investigate how electronics can make part of this dream a reality, not just in London but everywhere.

The radical plans announced by the Mayor of London recently are certainly wide-ranging. He wants homes to have onsite renewable energy generators (solar panels and wind turbines), cut-price or free loft and cavity-wall insulation, also combined cooling and heating energy supplies. On the public transport front he wants to convert London's 8,000 bus fleet to hybrid diesel/electric vehicles and to introduce regenerative braking on the underground.

#### Regeneration

Regenerative braking: here my ears pricked up. Regeneration, a process in which traction motors work in reverse as generators and force energy back into the system, dates back to the 1920s. Why has it been reinvented now and does it employ some new techniques? Are new kinds of electronic control mechanisms necessary? Can electronics improve transportation efficiency in other ways and could there be spin-off benefits for hobby electronics? If you answered 'yes' to all of these questions you would not be wrong. But before we gaze into the future let's take a quick glance back at the mean machines of the past.

When the driver of a moving vehicle (on road or rail) hits the brakes, the braking action is normally achieved by some kind of friction pad. Kinetic energy is dissipated as heat (sometimes as smoke too!) and in the process is completely lost. A smarter way of reducing vehicle speed is regenerative braking, in which the kinetic energy is converted into electrical energy. The electrical energy is then stored for future use by the same vehicle or else fed back into a power system for use by other vehicles.

This system works particularly well for vehicles with DC traction motors (trains, trams and trolleybuses) because the dynamo principle on which these work can be used as either generator or motor by converting motion into electricity or be reversed to convert electricity into motion. In traction systems fed by DC from a generating station (along conductor rails or overhead wires) the regenerated electricity can be fed back into the supply system. In the other situation, which applies to battery electric and hybrid electric vehicles, the energy is stored in a battery or bank of capacitors for later use. We'll come back to energy storage in a moment.

#### Mean machines

The efficiency of regenerative braking systems is not to be sniffed at. Estimates put it at just over 30 per cent, with most of the remaining energy being released as heat. As well as saving energy resources, regenerative braking reduces wear on brake pads (but does not eliminate the need for frictionbased brakes altogether by any means).

There's always a down-side and regenerative brakes have a key disadvantage when compared with dynamic or rheostatic brakes (in which electrical energy is dumped into large resistors and converted into heat). On DC systems the voltage must be matched closely to the supply system and on AC systems the supply frequency must also be equal, although new control electronics can and will mitigate these challenges.

These problems have tended to discourage the widespread use of regenerative braking in rail transport systems, although in the early part of the twentieth century it had application in some urban tram and trolleybus networks. An article on the Internet described how a tram coming down a hill could help power another one going uphill. Energy savings of 23 per cent were recorded by this method in pre-war Manchester, it states.

In those days tramway systems had their own dedicated power stations and when the regenerated electricity was not being used by another tram, it would flow back to the generating plant where it increased the speed of the massive flywheels fitted for energy storage purposes. 'This automatically cut off steam from the driving engines, saving energy. When another tram had used up the stored energy and the flywheel speed to normal, the steam valves automatically re-opened, maintaining the correct generator speed.'

#### Back to the future

Fast forward seventy years and we find regenerative, braking, now called 'energy recuperation', applied to private as well as public transport. The Toyota Prius, billed as the world's first mass-produced and marketed hybrid automobile, uses this technique. If you drive down a hill the starter motor runs backwards and charges the car's 200V lithium-ion battery. When you start the car an electric motor, powered by the battery, does the business until the petrol engine cuts in. Either the engine or the battery (or both) can power the vehicle, depending on conditions, which gives it the same acceleration and power as a car with a much larger petrol engine. The battery means that the air conditioning system keeps working when the petrol engine is stopped, a world first.

In this kind of application batteries are the obvious energy-storage solution, but they

have significant limitations. As Dr Adrian Schneuwly of Swiss manufacturer Maxwell Technologies explains in industry magazine *EPN*, batteries are heavy, large in size, have a limited charging rate and potentially high maintenance. They also suffer from degraded performance at low temperatures.

An alternative energy-storage component is the ultracapacitor or supercapacitor. It is described as a dual-layer electrochemical device and the capacitance of a single cell of an ultracapacitor can be as high as 2.6kF (kilofarads). Ultracapacitors, Schneuwly states, provide high charge acceptance, high efficiency, cycle stability and strong lowtemperature performance, and they are virtually maintenance-free. The combination of ultracapacitors and batteries is also an option if high power and pure electric driving are required. Although ultracapacitors have a lower 'energy density' than primary cells, they are ideal for delivering high power for relatively short periods, whereas batteries are well suited to providing lower power for longer periods. Put the two devices together and you have a potent combination.

#### Safe solution

Schneuwly lists the advantages of ultracapacitors for transportation applications as follows:

• They offer up to 10 times the power of batteries, helping acceleration of the vehicle

• Their low-temperature performance is excellent down to -40°C, whereas without heating, batteries do not operate well below  $0^{\circ}$ C

• Ultracapacitors are extremely safe because they are discharged over night and recharged at the start of its drive cycle the next morning

• The life cycle of an ultracapacitor is very long (typically the life time of the vehicle they are designed into), reducing maintenance costs

• Ultracapacitors can be used typically for one million charge cycles, which typically equates to 7,500 operational hours or 15 years of useful life

• Ultracapacitors are efficient: up to 95 per cent compared to below 70 per cent for batteries.

#### Technology transfer

Ultracapacitors have clear applications in areas outside transportation. An audio mixer using the technology to replace rechargeable batteries exists and ultracapacitors are also advocated for powering all manner of portable electrical and electronic devices, such as MP3 players, pocket radios, torches, cellphones and emergency kits.

How soon they will appear in the hobbyists' catalogue is anybody's guess, but it will probably be before you or I expect!



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# Control your power costs with the: ENERGY NETER

Have you recovered from the shock of receiving your last electricity bill? Have you resolved to reduce your electricity usage? This Energy Meter lets you accurately monitor energy usage for individual appliances and even figures out what it costs to run them.

F YOU WANT to save power and reduce costs, you need to know how much power each appliance uses over a period of time. Most appliances don't run all the time, so you need to know the power they use while they are actually running and

how much they use over the longer term.

The easiest way to determine that is to use an electronic power meter and this 'Energy Meter' fits the bill nicely. It displays the measured power in Watts, the elapsed time and the total energy usage in kWh. In addition, it can show the energy cost in pounds and pence or dollars and cents. As a bonus, it also includes comprehensive brownout protection.

One obvious use for this unit is to show refrigerator running costs over a set period of time, so that you can quickly determine the effect of different thermostat settings. Alternatively, it could be used to show the difference in energy consumption between the summer months and the winter months.

If you have a solar power installation, this unit will prove invaluable. It will quickly allow you to determine which appliances are the most 'power hungry', so that you can adjust your energy usage patterns to suit the

capacity of the installation. And there are lots of other uses – for example, the unit could be used to determine the cost of pumping water, the running costs of an aquarium or even the cost of keeping your TV set on standby power, so that it can be switched on via the remote control.

#### Standby power

The cost of standby power is something that most people never think about. However, there are lots of appliances in your home that continuously consume power 24 hours a day, even when they are supposedly switched off. These appliances include TV sets, VCRs, DVD players, hifi equipment and cable and satellite TV receivers. They remain on standby so that they are ready to 'power up' in response to a command from the remote control.

Then there are those devices that are powered via a plugpack supply. These devices include modems, some printers, portable CD players and battery chargers (eg, for mobile telephones). However, simply switching these devices off when not in use is not the complete answer because their plugpacks continue to draw current – unless, of course, they are switched off at the wall socket.

Some high-power appliances also continue to draw current when they are not being used. For example, most microwave ovens have a digital clock which operates continuously and the same applies to many ovens. Typically, the standby power usage for each of these appliances is about 2W.

What else? Well, let's not forget computers. Then there are those appliances which must always be on, otherwise there's no point having them. These include cordless telephones, digital alarm clocks, burglar alarms and garage door openers. Do a quick audit of your house – you will be quite surprised at how many appliances you have that are either permanently powered or operating on standby power.

By using the Energy Meter, you can quickly monitor these devices and find out which are the energy wasters. Perhaps when you learn the results, you will be persuaded to turn some of these devices off at the wall or even do away with them altogether!

#### **Brownout protection**

A bonus feature of the Energy Meter is the inclusion of brownout protection.

This means that when it's not being used to check energy consumption, the unit can be used to provide brownout protection for a selected appliance.

Basically, a brownout occurs when the mains voltage goes low (ie, much lower than the nominal 230V AC) due to a supply fault. This can cause problems because motor-driven appliances (eg, washing machines, air-conditioners, dryers, refrigerators, freezers and pumps) can be damaged by a low mains supply. If the supply voltage is low, the motor can fail to start (or stall if it's already running) and that in turn can cause the windings to overheat and burn out.

In operation, the Energy Meter can switch off power to an appliance during a brownout and restore power when the power is returned to normal. The power can either be restored immediately the brownout condition ends or after a delay of 18-24 minutes. This delay feature is ideal for use with refrigeration equipment, as it allows the refrigerant to settle if the brownout occurred during the cooling cycle.

#### **Using the Energy Meter**

As shown in the photos, the Energy Meter is housed in a rugged plastic box with a clear lid. This plastic case is important because the internal circuitry operates at mains potential. Two 10A mains leads are fitted to the

#### Main Features

- Displays power in Watts
- Displays energy usage in kWh
- Displays measurement period in hours
- Displays energy cost in pounds and pence or dollars and cents
- Brownout detection and power switching
- LCD module shows several readings simultaneously
- Calibration for power, offset and phase
- Adjustment of pence (cents)/ kWh for cost reading
- Adjustment of brownout voltage threshold, calibration, hysteresis and duration
- Optional delayed return of power after brownout is restored to normal voltage

unit – one to supply power from the mains and the other to supply power to the appliance.

The unit is easy to use: simply plug it into the mains and plug the appliance into the output socket.



## **Specifications**

•	Wattage resolution	0.01W	
•	Maximum wattage reading		
•	Kilowatt-hour resolution		
•	Maximum kWh reading		
•	Cost/kWh resolution	0.1 pence(cent)	
•	Maximum cost/kWh reading		
•	Cost/kWh setting from	0-25.5 pence(cents)	
•	Timer resolution	0.1h (6 minutes)	
•	Maximum timer value		
•	Timer accuracy (uncalibrated) typically	±0.07%	
•	Maximum load current	10A (15A surge)	
•	Reading linearity0.	1% over a 1000:1 range	
•	Frequency range of measurement	40Hz to 1kHz	
•	Battery current drain during back-up	10mA	
•	AccuracyDepends on calibration	on (error can be <0.5%)	
•	Accuracy drift with temperature	0.002%/°C	
•	<ul> <li>Brownout voltage detection accuracy after calibration±2%</li> </ul>		
•	Brownout return delay	18-24 minutes	
•	Wattage calibration adjustment0.024	4% of reading per step (±2048 steps)	
•	Zero Offset adjustment0.1	2% of reading per step	
•	Current monitoring resistance	e, 20ppm/°C coefficient	

An LCD display is visible through the lid of the case and the only exposed parts are four mains-rated switches. These switches are used to set the display modes, reset values and (initially) to set the calibration values.

In use, the Energy Meter is simply connected in-line between the mains supply and the appliance to be monitored. The LCD shows two lines of information and this information includes: (1) the elapsed time; (2) the power consumption in watts; (3) brownout indication; and (4) the energy consumption in kWh (kilowatt-hours).

The elapsed time is shown in the top, lefthand section of the display and is simply the time duration over which the energy has been measured. This is shown in 0.1 hour increments from 0.1h (ie, 6 minutes) up to 9999.9h. That latter figure is equal to just over 416 days or 1 year and 51 days, which should be more than enough for any application!

After it reaches this maximum elapsed time, the unit automatically begins counting from 0.0h again. Alternatively, the timer can be reset to 0.0h at any time by pressing the Clear switch.

The power consumption figure (Watts) is displayed to the right of the elapsed time and is updated approximately once every 11 seconds. This has a resolution of 0.01W, with a maximum practical reading of 3750.00W (ie, equal to the power drawn by a 15A load with a 250V supply). A 10A load will give a reading of about 2400W, depending on supply voltage.

Immediately beneath this figure is the total energy consumption (in kWh) since the measurement started. This has a range from 0.000kWh to 99999.999kWh, with a resolution of 1Wh. The maximum value represents over 4.5 years of energy consumption for an appliance drawing 2500W continuously. This reading can be reset to 0.000kWh by pressing the Clear switch. In this case, the switch must be held closed for about four seconds before the RESET is indicated on the display.

Finally, brownout indication is shown in the lower lefthand section of the display. It displays 'SAG' if the mains level drops below the selected voltage for a set time, with the unit also switching off the power to the connected appliance.

Alternatively, under normal power conditions (ie, no brownout), the SAG display is blanked and power is supplied to the appliance.

#### **Function switch**

Pressing the Function switch on the front panel changes the display reading, so that the energy reading is shown in terms of cost instead of kWh. Once again, this reading can be reset to £0.00 by pressing the Clear switch. The maximum reading is £9999.99, but this is unlikely to ever be reached.

Pressing the Function switch again toggles the energy reading to kWh again.

Holding down the Function button switches the Energy Meter into its calibration modes. There are eight adjustment modes available here and these can be cycled through by holding the button down or selected in sequence with each press of the Function switch. We'll take a closer look at the various calibration modes in Part 2 next month.

#### Making power measurements

OK, now that we've looked at the main functions of the Energy Meter, let's see how we go about making power measurements.

In operation, the Energy Meter measures the true power drawn by the load. It is not affected by the shape of the waveform, provided that the harmonics do not extend above 1kHz and the level does not overrange.

In a DC (direct current) system, the power can be determined by measuring the applied voltage (V) and the current (I) through the load and then multiplying the two values together (ie, P = IV). Similarly, for AC (alternating current) supplies (eg, 230V mains), the instantaneous power delivered to a load is obtained by multiplying the instantaneous current and voltage values together. However, that's not

the end of the story when it comes to average power consumption, as we shall see.

Fig.1 shows a typical situation where the current and voltage waveforms are both sinewaves and are in phase with each other (ie, they both pass through zero at the same time). In this case, the instantaneous power waveform is always positive and remains above zero. That's because when we multiply the positive-going voltage and current signals, we get a positive result. Similarly, we also get a positive value when we multiply the negative-going voltage and current signals together.

The average (or real) power is represented by the dotted line and can be obtained by filtering the signal to obtain the DC component. In the case of in-phase voltage and current waveforms, it can also be obtained by measuring both the voltage and the current with a meter and multiplying the two values together. For example, the voltage shown in Fig.1 is a 240V RMS AC waveform and this has a peak value of 339V. The current shown is 10A RMS with a peak value of 14.4A. Multiplying the two RMS values together gives 2400W, which is the average power in the load.

Note that, in this case, the power value is the same whether we average the instantaneous power signal or multiply the RMS values of the voltage and current. Multimeters are calibrated to measure the RMS value of a sinewave, so if a sinewave has a peak value of 339V, the meter will read the voltage as 240V (ie, 0.7071 of the peak value).

For non-sinusoidal waveforms, only a 'true RMS' meter will give the correct voltage and current readings. RMS is shorthand for 'root mean square', which describes how the value is mathematically calculated. In practice, the RMS value is equivalent to the corresponding DC value. This means, for example, that if we apply 1A RMS to a 1 $\Omega$  load, the power dissipation will be 1W – exactly the same as if we had applied a 1A DC current to the load.

The waveforms in Fig.1 are typical of a load that is purely resistive, where the current is exactly in phase with the voltage. Such loads include light bulbs and electric heaters.

By contrast, capacitive and inductive loads result in out-of-phase



Fig.1: this graph shows the voltage (V) and current (I) waveforms in phase with each other. Note that the instantaneous power is always positive for this case.

voltage and current waveforms. If the load is capacitive, the current will lead the voltage. Alternatively, if the load is inductive, the current will lag the voltage.

Inductive loads include motors and fluorescent lamps. The amount that the current leads or lags the voltage is called the power factor – it is equal to 1 when the current and voltage are in phase, reducing to 0 by the time the current is 90° out of phase with the voltage. Calculating the power factor is easy – it's simply the cosine of the phase angle (ie,  $\cos\phi$ ).

#### Lagging current

Fig.2 shows the resulting waveforms when the current lags the voltage by 45°. In this case, the resulting instantaneous power curve has a proportion of its total below the zero line. This effectively lowers the average power, since we have to subtract the negative portion of the curve from the positive portion.

And that's where the problems start. If we now measure the voltage (240V) and current (10A) using a multimeter and then multiply these values together, we will obtain 2400W just as before when the two waveforms were in phase. Clearly, this figure is no longer correct and the true power is, in fact, much lower, at 1697W.

This discrepancy arises because the power factor wasn't considered. To correct for this, we have to multiply our figure of 2400W by the power factor (ie,  $\cos 45^\circ = 0.7071$ ). So the true power is 2400 x 0.7071 = 1697W.

These calculations become even more interesting when the current leads or lags the voltage by  $90^{\circ}$  as shown in Fig.3 – ie, we have a power factor of 0. In this case, the voltage and



below the zero line, effectively lowering the average power.

current waveforms still measure 240V and 10A respectively when using a multimeter but the power dissipation is now zero. This is because the same amount of instantaneous power is both above and below the zero line.

This means that even though there is 10A of current flowing, it does not deliver power to the load!

Alternatively, we can use our formula to calculate the true power dissipation in the load. In this case, we get  $240 \times 10 \times Cos90^\circ = 0$  (ie,  $cos90^\circ = 0$ ). So once again, we get a power dissipation of 0W, despite the fact that the current is 10A and we have 240Vapplied to the load.

Other waveforms such as those produced by phase control circuits, where the waveform is 'chopped', present even more difficulties when it comes to making power measurements. However, the Energy Meter overcomes these problems by averaging the instantaneous power signal over a set interval (11s) to obtain the true power.

The result is an accurate power measurement which takes into account the phase angle and the shapes of the voltage and current waveforms.

Converting the measured power dissipation (Watts) into energy consumption (kWh) is straightforward. This is simply the average power used by the appliance over a 1-hour period. So if an appliance draws 1000W continuously for an hour, its energy consumption will be 1000Wh, or 1kWh.

#### Specialised IC

The Energy Meter is based on a special 'Active Energy Metering IC' from Analog Devices, designated the ADE7756AN. Fig.4 shows the main internal circuit blocks of this IC and

also shows how it has been connected to the mains, to make voltage and current measurements.

As can be imagined, the internal operation of this IC is quite complicated and it has a host of features, some of which are not used in this design. If you want to find out more about this IC, you can download a complete data sheet (as a pdf file) from: www. analog.com.

Most of the features and adjustments available in the ADE7756AN IC are accessed via a serial interface. This communications interface allows various registers to be accessed and altered and also allows them to receive processed data.

As shown on Fig.4, there are two input channels – one to monitor the voltage and the other for the current. Amplifier 1 (Amp1) is used to monitor the load current but it doesn't do this directly. Instead, it monitors the voltage developed by passing the load current through a  $0.01\Omega$  resistor (R1).

The maximum dissipation within this resistor at 10A is 1W, which gives an expected 30°C temperature rise above ambient. For this reason, we have specified a low-temperature coefficient resistor to minimise resistance changes as the temperature rises.

In operation, Amp1 can be set for a gain of 1, 2, 4, 8 or 16 and for a full-scale output of 1, 0.5 or 0.25V. These values are set by writing to the appropriate registers within the IC via the serial communication lines. In this circuit, the gain is set at 1 and the full-scale output at 250mV.

The 250mV range was chosen to suit the 100mV RMS (141.4mV peak) that's developed across resistor R1 when 10A is flowing through the load (which is in series). It also allows sufficient headroom for a 15A current to be measured – equivalent to 150mV RMS across R1, or 212mV peak.

Amp2 is similar to Amp1, except that its full-scale output voltage is fixed at 1V. Only the gain can be set and in this case, we have set the gain at 4.

As shown, the Live input from the mains is divided down using a 2.2M $\Omega$  and 1k $\Omega$  resistive divider. This divided output is at 113.5mV RMS (161mV peak) for a 250V input and this is then fed directly to Amp2. As a result, the signal level at the output will be 454mV RMS, or 644mV peak, well within the 1V full-scale output capability of this stage.

The circuit is even capable of catering for situations where the mains voltage reaches 280V RMS (396V peak). In this case, the voltage from the resistive divider will be 180mV peak, which gives 720mV peak at the amplifier's output.

Both Amp1 and Amp2 have provision to zero the offset voltage at their output (this is the voltage that appears at the output when the amplifier's inputs are both at ground or 0V). Of course, an ideal amplifier would have an output offset of 0V but that doesn't happen in practice.

In this application, however, we don't have to worry about trimming out the offset voltages because a highpass filter is included in the signal chain (following Multiplier 1). This filter prevents the offsets from affecting the power reading but note that offset adjustment would be required to accurately measure DC power in other circuit applications.

#### A/D converters

The output signals from the amplifier stages are converted to digital values using separate (internal) analogue-todigital converters (ADC1 and ADC2). For those interested in the specifications of this conversion, the sampling rate is 894kHz and the resolution is 20 bits. An analogue low-pass filter at the front of each ADC rolls off signals above 10kHz, to prevent errors in the conversion process which might otherwise occur if high-frequency signals were allowed to pass into the ADC.



Fig.3: it gets even more interesting when the current lags (or leads) the voltage waveform by 90°. In this case, the voltage and current waveforms still measure 240V and 10A respectively but the average power dissipation is now zero. This is because the same amount of instantaneous power is both above and below the zero line.



Fig.4: this block diagram shows the main components of the ADE7756AN Active Energy Metering IC and shows how it is connected to the mains supply. Two internal op amp circuits monitor the current (Amp 1) and voltage (Amp 2) signals and the sampled values are then fed to separate analogue-to-digital converters.



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The output of each ADC is then digitally filtered with a low-pass filter to remove noise. This filter does not affect 40Hz to 1kHz signals but rolls off frequencies above about 2kHz.

Next, ADC1's output is applied to a multiplier. This stage alters the digital value fed into it according to a 'gain adjust' value that's applied to the multiplier's second input. This gain adjust value can be changed by writing to this register and in our circuit, it's used to calibrate the wattage reading to its correct value.

A High-Pass Filter (HPF) stage is then used to process the adjusted signal from the multiplier. This removes any DC offsets in the digital value and applies the resulting signal to one input of Multiplier 2.

ADC2 operates in a similar manner to ADC1 and also includes a low-pass filter (LPF) stage. Another LPF stage then rolls off the signal at frequencies above about 156Hz. This effectively removes any extraneous high-frequency components in the signal before it is fed to the SAG detection circuit. This detection circuit monitors the voltage level and outputs a SAG signal if the voltage drops below the level set in the SAG register.

As well as going to the LPF stage, the signal from ADC2 is also fed to a phase compensation circuit (Phase Adjust). This stage can change the signal phase relative to the signal from ADC1 and is included to compensate for any phase differences which may be caused by any current and voltage-measuring transducers (not applicable here).

Immediately following this stage, the signal is applied to the second input of Multiplier 2. This effectively multiplies the current and voltage signals to derive the instantaneous power value. This is then filtered using another low-pass filter, to produce a relatively steady value, although it does allow some ripple in the output since it does not completely attenuate AC signals and only rolls off signals above 10Hz.

The resulting power value is then mixed in the Offset Comparator with an offset adjustment, to give a zero reading when there is no current flowing through R1. Its output is stored in the Waveform Register, the contents of which are continuously added to the Active Energy Register at an 894kHz rate.



This circuit is directly connected to the 240VAC mains. As such, all parts may operate at mains potential and contact with any part of the circuit could prove FATAL. This includes the back-up battery and all wiring to the display PC board.

To ensure safety, this circuit MUST NOT be operated unless it is fully enclosed in a plastic case. Do not connect this device to the mains with the lid of the case removed. DO NOT TOUCH any part of the circuit unless the power cord is unplugged from the mains socket.

This is not a project for the inexperienced. Do not attempt to build it unless you know exactly what you are doing and are completely familiar with mains wiring practices and construction techniques.

Finally, the data in the Active Energy Register can be retrieved via the Serial Data Interface. Note that the values retrieved from this register will vary, because of the ripple allowed through the LPF at the output of Multiplier 2. However, these variations are less noticeable if the period between each retrieval is made as long as possible, so that any ripple can be integrated out over time.

For this reason, we have selected a retrieval interval of about 11 seconds and this removes most of the variation. That's about the maximum practical limit, as a longer period could cause the register to overrange when high powers are being measured.

#### **Circuit details**

OK, so the way in which the ADE7756AN chip works is rather complicated. Fortunately, we don't have to worry too much about this, since the complicated stuff is all locked up inside the chip.

Refer now to Fig.5 for the full circuit details. Apart from the ADE7756AN chip (iC1), there's just one other IC in the circuit – a PIC16F628A microcontroller (IC2). This microcontroller processes the data from IC1 and drives the LCD display module. And that's just about all there is to it – apart from the power supply circuitry and a few other bits and pieces.

IC1 operates at 3.58MHz as set by crystal X1 and this frequency determines all the other operating rates, such as ADC sampling and the phase variation. In addition, the device operates from a single +5V supply rail, although its inputs at pins 4, 5, 6 and 7 can go below the 0V level.

In operation, the sampled current and voltage waveforms are applied to the balanced inputs of the internal amplifiers – ie, to V1+ and V1- for Amp1 (current) and to V2+ and V2- for Amp2 (voltage). These balanced inputs are provided so that any common mode (ie, noise) signals at the inputs are cancelled out.

However, in order to do this, both inputs to each amplifier must have the same input impedance and signal path. So, for the voltage signal, both inputs of Amp2 are connected to a 2.2M $\Omega$  and 1k $\Omega$  voltage divider and these in turn are connected across the Live (Active) and Neutral lines.

Similarly, the current monitoring inputs are both connected to series  $0.01\Omega$  and  $1k\Omega$  resistors but note that only one of these (ie. R1) carries the load current. This resistor is rated at 3W, while the non-load current carrying resistor (R2) simply consists of a short length of fine-gauge copper wire. R2 is necessary to mimic the noise picked up by R1.

All inputs are filtered to remove high-frequency hash above about 4.8kHz by connecting 33nF capacitors to ground (ie, from pins 4, 5, 6 and 7).

Note that the whole circuit is referenced to the mains Neutral, with the OV rail for both IC1 and IC2 connected to this line. However, because the circuit is connected directly to the mains, it must be treated as live and dangerous (as can happen if Live and Neutral are transposed in the house wiring – eg, the power point is wired incorrectly).

IC1's reference voltage at pin 9 is filtered using parallel-connected 100µF and 100nF capacitors. This provides a stable reference voltage for the ADCs and is typically 2.4V. However, variations between individual ICs could result in a reference voltage that's 8% above or



Fig.6: the top trace in this scope shot is the voltage that appears on pin 7 of IC1 (TP2). This is the sampled mains voltage from the 2.2M $\Omega$  and 1k $\Omega$  resistive divider. The lower trace is the current waveform at pin 4 of IC1, resulting from a 4.3A load. This produces a 43.45mV RMS signal across the 0.01 $\Omega$  current sensing resistor (R1).



Fig.7: this scope shot, captured at the output of the Energy Meter, shows the operation of the brownout feature. In this case, the brownout protection is set to switch off below 203V RMS (288V peak) and power is restored only when the voltage increases by the hysteresis level (35V RMS or 50V peak) – ie, to 238V RMS.

WARNING: these two scope waveforms are shown to explain the operation of the circuit. DO NOT attempt to monitor these waveforms yourself – it is too dangerous.

below this value, but this is taken care of by the calibration procedure.

The SAG output appears at pin 13 and is normally held high via a  $1k\Omega$ pull-up resistor. This, in turn, holds MOSFET Q1 on and so relay RLY1 is also normally on (assuming link LK1 is in position). Conversely, when a power brownout occurs, the SAG output goes low and MOSFET Q1 and RLY1 both turn off.

The SAG output from IC1 also drives RA1 (pin 18) of IC2 and this does two things. First, it 'instructs' the microcontroller to send the SAG indication data to the LCD display when a brownout is detected. Second, it allows IC2 to provide the optional delayed turn-on feature after a brownout via RB0 and LK2 (ie, LK2 used instead of LK1).

When the SAG output goes low, RB0 also immediately goes low and turns off Q1 as before. However, when the brownout ends, RB0 remains low and only goes high again after an 18-24 minute delay to switch on Q1 and RLY1 and thus restore power to the appliance.

Note that the relay contacts are used to break the power to the load by opening the Live connection. When there is no brownout, the relay is energised and the supply is connected to the load.

IC1 also connects to IC2 via its serial interface and these lines are labelled Data In, Data Out, Serial Clock and Chip Select (pins 20, 19, 18 and 17, respectively). In operation, IC2 uses these lines to program the registers within IC1 and to retrieve the monitored power data.

Microcontroller IC2 also drives the LCD module using data lines RB7-RB4. These lines also connect respectively to switch S4 (direct) and to switches S3-S1 via diodes D3-D5. These diodes are necessary to prevent the data lines from being shorted together if more than one switch is pressed at the same time.

In operation, IC2 can determine if a switch is closed (ie, pressed) by first setting its RB7-RB4 data lines high and then checking the RB3 input which connects to the commoned side of the switches. If none of the switches is pressed, the RB3 input will be held low via the associated  $10k\Omega$  resistor to ground. Conversely, if a switch is pressed, the RB3 input will be pulled high via that switch (and its associated diode, if present).

The microcontroller then determines which switch is closed by setting all data lines low again and then setting each data line high (and then low again) in sequence. The closed switch is the one that produces a high at RB3.

IC2's RA2 and RA0 outputs (pins 1 and 17) control <u>the</u> register select (RS) and enable (EN) inputs on the LCD module, to ensure that the data is correctly displayed. Trimpot VR1 adjusts the LCD's contrast by setting the voltage applied to pin 3 of the module.

A 4MHz crystal (X2) sets IC2's clock frequency. This crystal determines the accuracy of the 0.1hr timer and the watthour calibration. However, frequency adjustment has not been included since the crystal's untrimmed accuracy is better than the accuracy provided by IC1 for the wattage reading.

#### **Power supply**

Power for the circuit is derived from the mains via transformer T1. Its 12.6V AC secondary output is rectified using bridge rectifier BR1 and the resulting DC rail filtered using a  $1000\mu$ F capacitor. This rail is then fed through rectifier diode D1, filtered using a  $100\mu$ F capacitor and fed to 3-terminal regulator REG1.

REG1 provides a stable +5V rail for IC1, IC2 and the LCD module. Note, however, that this +5V rail must also be regarded as being at mains potential (as must all other parts in this circuit, including the back-up battery). It might have a low DC voltage but it can also be sitting at 230V AC!

#### Parts List – Energy Meter

- 1 PC board, code 616, available from the EPE PCB Service, size 138 x 115mm
- 1 display PC board, code 617, available from the EPE PCB Service, size 132 x 71mm
- 1 front panel label, 138 x 115mm
- 1 sealed ABS box with clear lid, 165 x 125 x 75mm
- 1 12V 6VA mains transformer (T1)
- 1 12V SPDT 30A 250V AC relay (RLY1)
- 1 LCD module, 2 line x 16 characters per line
- 1 S20K 275V AC Metal Oxide Varistor (MOV)
- 1 3.58MHz crystal (X1)
- 1 4MHz crystal (X2)
- 1 18-pin DIL socket (for IC2)
- 1 M205 safety fuseholder (F1)
- 1 M205 10A fast blow fuse
- 1 2-metre or 3-metre mains extension cord
- 2 cordgrip grommets for 6mm diameter cable
- 4 mains-rated pushbutton momentary-close switches (Jaycar SP 0702)(S1-S4)
- 1 4-way 0.1-inch pitch pin header
- 1 6-way 0.1-inch pitch pin header
- 1 4-way 0.1-inch header plug
- 1 6-way 0.1-inch header plug
- 4 stick-on rubber feet
- 1 9V battery (optional see text) 1 connector plug and lead for
- 9V battery (optional, see text) 1 U-shaped bracket to suit 9V
- battery (optional, see text)
- 1 M3 x 6mm screw (optional)
- 1 M3 metal nut (optional)
- 6 M3 x 10mm Nylon countersunk screws
- 2 M2 x 9mm Nylon screws
- 4 M2 Nylon nuts
- 6 M3 x 12mm tapped Nylon spacers
- 7 M3 x 6mm screws
- 1 M3 x 12mm screw
- 5 M3 metal nuts
- 5 M3 star washers
- 1 14-way single in-line pin header or
- 1 7-way dual in-line header (to suit LCD module)
- 1 3-way single in-line header 1 shorting plug for header
- 1 3mm diameter solder lug
- 3 6.4mm insulated spade
- connectors

#### 2 2.8mm spade connectors

- 1 100mm length of 4-way rainbow cable
- 1 100mm length of 6-way rainbow cable
- 1 40mm length of 0.2mm enamelled copper wire
- 1 400mm length of 0.7mm tinned copper wire
- 1 150mm length of hookup wire
- 1 50mm length of 16mm diameter heatshrink tubing
- 1 50mm length of 2.5mm diameter heatshrink tubing
- 1 50mm length of 6mm diameter heatshrink tubing
- 5 50mm long cable ties
- 12 PC stakes

#### Semiconductors

- 1 ADE7756AN Active Energy Metering IC (IC1) (Magenta Electronics)
- 1 PIC16F628A-20P programmed with wattmetr.hex (IC2) Preprogrammed PICs are available from Magenta Electronics, see their advert.
- 1 LM2940CT-5 low dropout 5V regulator (REG1)
- 1 STP30NE06L logic MOSFET (Q1)
- 1 W04 1.2A bridge rectifier (BR1)
- 3 1N4004 1A diodes (D1,D2,D6)
- 3 1N4148 diodes (D3-D5)

#### Capacitors

- 1 1000µF 25V PC electrolytic
- 1 100 $\mu$ F 25V PC electrolytic
- 4 100 $\mu$ F 16V PC electrolytic
- 1 10µF 16V PC electrolytic
- 3 100nF MKT polyester
- 4 33nF MKT polyester
- 1 1nF MKT polyester
- 4 33pF NPO ceramic

**Resistors** (0.25W 1%)

- 2 2.2MΩ 1W 400V
- 1 10kΩ
- 5 1kΩ
- 1  $680\Omega$  0.5W (install only if backup battery is rechargeable)
- 1 <mark>68</mark>Ω 1W
- 1 10Ω
- 1 0.01Ω 3W resistor see text (Welwyn OAR-3 0R01)
- 1 10kΩ horizontal trimpot (code 103) (VR1)

Note also that we have specified a low dropout regulator here and this has been done for two reasons. First, it allows the +5V rail to be maintained for as long as possible when the mains supply falls – important for maintaining the supply during a brownout. Second, this regulator was designed for automotive use and is capable of suppressing transient voltages of up to 60V at its input.

This latter feature is useful for mains supply circuits, where there are likely to be transients during lightning storms. In addition, a Metal Oxide Varistor (MOV) connected between Live and Neutral at the mains input has been included to suppress transient voltages above the normal mains supply.

The supply rail for relay RLY1 is derived from the output of the bridge rectifier (BR1). This rail is fed to the relay via a  $68\Omega$  1W resistor, which reduces the voltage to about 12V.

Diode D6 protects MOSFET Q1 from damage by quenching any back-EMF voltage spikes that are generated when RLY1 turns off.

#### **Back-up battery**

An optional 9V back-up battery has also been included in the power supply and this is connected to REG1's input via diode D2. This back-up power is useful if the energy consumption of an appliance is to be measured over a long period of time (eg, weeks or months), since it maintains the active energy register values and allows the timer to continue counting if there is a blackout.

You can use either a standard battery or a rechargeable NiCad battery to provide back-up power. If a NiCad battery is used, resistor (R3) is installed to provide trickle charging from the output of D1.

Most applications will not require battery back-up, since you will just want to measure the energy consumption over a relatively short period. In this case, the accumulated energy reading will be lost when the mains power is switched off. However, all the settings (ie, the SAG parameters, offset and power calibration, cost per kWh and phase, etc) are retained when the mains power is off, as these are stored in a permanent memory.

That's all we have space for this month. Next month, we will give the complete construction and calibration details.

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#### Jacobs Ladder High Voltage Display Kit

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Products

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With this kit and the purchase of a 12V ignition coil (available from auto stores and parts recyclers), create an awesome rising ladder of noisy sparks that emits the distinct smell of ozone. This improved circuit is suited to modern high power ignition coils and will deliver a spectacular visual display. Kit includes PCB, pre-cut

Full Colour 675+ New

wire/ladder and all electronic components. 12V car battery, 7AH SLA

battery or 5Amp DC power supply required



Improved

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#### 50MHz Frequency Meter MKII Kit

KC-5440 £20.50 + post & packing This compact, low cost S0MHZ Frequency Meter is invaluable for servicing and diagnostics. This upgraded version, has a prescaler switch which changes the units from Mhz to GHz, kHz to MHz and Hz to kHz, and has 10kHz rounding to enable RC modellers to measure more accurately. Kit includes PCB with overlay, enclosure, LCD and all

electronic components. Other features include: 8 digit reading (LCD)

- Prescaler switch
- Autoranging Hz, kHz or MHz

3 resolution modes including 10kHz rounding 0.1 Hz up to 150Hz, 1Hz up to 16MHz and 10Hz up to 16MHz



#### **Deluxe Theremin** Synthesiser MKII Kit KC-5426 £43.50 + post & packing

By moving your hand between the metal antennae, create unusual sound effects. The Theremin MkII allows for the adjustments to the tonal quality by providing a better waveform. With a multitude of controls this instrument's musical potential is only limited by the skill and imagination of it's player.

Kit includes stand, PCB with overlay, machined case with silkscreen printed lid, loudspeaker, pitch and volume antennae and all specified electronic components

Requires 9-12VDC wall adaptor (Maplin #UG01B £13.99)

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English instructions.

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KC-5439 £6.00 + post & packing This simple kit enables you to defeat the factory fuel cut signal from your car's ECU and allows your turbo charger to go beyond the typical 15-17psi factory boost limit. - Note: Care should be taken to ensure that the boost level and fuel mixture don't reach unsafe levels.

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Note: Prototype shown

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www.jaycarelectronics.co.uk

Note: Prototype shown



# actical Electronics Feature

Everyday Practical Electronics Magazine has been publishing a series of popular kits by the acclaimed Silicon Chip Magazine Australia. These projects are 'bullet proof' and already tested down under. All Jaycar kits are supplied with specified board components, quality fibreglass tinned PCBs and have clear English instructions. Watch this space for future featured kits.

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**Everyday Practical Electronics May 2006** 

Jaycar cannot accept responsibility for the operation of this device, its related software, or its potential to be used in relation to illegal copying of smart cards in cable TV set top boxes

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E continue with our investigation of PIC peripherals, looking this month at the ADC – the Analogue-to-Digital Converter. While the previous articles have been fairly consistent in their approach to describing the peripheral, the ADC is a very different beast, due to the analogue nature of its external interface. This complicates the use of the peripheral considerably, and while we can present a simplified explanation of its use, a basic understanding of analogue circuitry is necessary to get even minimal performance out of it.

The good news, however, is that the effort will be well rewarded. There are a vast range of devices and circuits that produce analogue voltages, and these can only be interfaced to a microcontroller through an ADC. Example applications include monitoring temperature, light, voltages, even sound – all these can be recorded and processed meaningfully by a microcontroller equipped with an ADC.

Explaining the configuration and control of the peripheral is probably the easy part of this month's article. First we need to understand how an ADC works, what its limitations are and then discuss how analogue signals are connected into the microcontroller. Yes, ADCs do have limitations: non-ideal performance, offset errors, gain errors, non-linearities – such is life in the analogue world! If you are approaching PIC programming from an electronics background you will find this easier to get to grips with than someone more familiar with computer programming.

For those of you who are less familiar with electronics, analogue signals are voltages that vary with time, sometimes at very high frequencies. Unlike the 'ones and zeros' of the digital world, analogue voltages may take any value, and it is the role of the ADC to convert that signal into a digital representation.

#### Limitations

Straightaway we are presented with the first limitation of an ADC – it cannot provide a continuous, infinitely fast digital representation of the analogue voltage on its input. If it did, the information would overwhelm the CPU. Instead, the ADC samples the input signal periodically, produces a digital representation of the voltage level at that moment, and then repeats the process. Internally, the PIC's ADC uses a successive approximation converter to perform this task, a relatively cheap technique but one that is quite slow. At best, the ADC will manage about 10,000 conversions per

#### **PICs and ADCs**

second. Other factors may limit it further which we will cover in a moment.

Now onto the second, main limitation: the ADC cannot produce an exact reproduction of the input signal's voltage. The result of the conversion is going to be stored in a register in memory and a register can only hold a finite number of different unique values (256 in the case of an 8bit register.) The ADC of the PIC that we will look at, the PIC18F2420, produces a 10-bit result so the maximum number of unique values that it can represent are 1024. Say you are using a sensor that can generate voltages that span 0V to +5V, the resolution of the ADC – the smallest voltage change it can detect – will therefore be:

#### 5/1024 = 4.9 mV

so voltages of 0V, 2.5mV and 4.5mV will all yield the same result of '0'.



#### Fig.1. Quantisation effect

#### Quantisation

This effect is demonstrated in Fig 1. For an increasing voltage (as shown on the horizontal axis) the ADC output will remain at the same value and then jump up to the next in a staircase-like manner. This effect is known as *quantisation* of the signal (from 'quantum', meaning smallest divisible part).

Horrible though this conversion of your input signal is, this is actually an ideal ADC – real ADCs have imperfections which make the picture look even worse! Fig.2 demonstrates an exaggerated view of the more typical response. An offset error results in a 'shift' in the voltage at which the ADC changes output. Gain errors result in the width of each 'step' changing. Different PICs will have different offset and gain errors. While small, you may need to compensate for them.

One way to deal with offset and gain errors is to calibrate the ADC by taking a number of measurements at known voltages and plot-



Fig.2. Exaggerated view of typical quantisation

ting these on a graph, which will show the deviation from the ideal response, as in Fig.2. Offset errors can be corrected by adding or subtracting a fixed value from the ADC result, gain errors require the ADC result to be multiplied by a correcting factor, which you can determine from the graph, if your mathematics skills are up to it!

In some applications the actual error may be insignificant. If you are monitoring the output of a temperature sensor like the LM19 for example, that device changes output by 20mV for every one degree Celsius. The specification of the PIC's ADC states that the offset error is  $\pm 1$  LSB. which is no more than 4.9mV. That is less than 0.25 of a degree, hardly worth bothering about. If the signal formed part of a complex feedback loop to control an aircraft rudder then, yes, we would need to be concerned about taking this error into account. But for retrieving the outside temperature and displaying on an LCD, we can ignore such problems.

We can calibrate to compensate for gain and offset errors but cannot for non-linearities in the ADC. Non-linearity determines the overall quality or accuracy of any design using an ADC. These errors are caused by the variation and imperfections with the capacitors of the converter, and at the end of the day, you get what you pay for. If you need better quality, you will have to pay more for an external ADC IC.

#### Noise

There is an additional source of error that can occur, one which is not under the control of the microcontroller manufacturer – noise. Noise can be present on the input signal as a result of signals coupling in from the digital circuitry or as a consequence of the sensor being some distance from the processor and picking up external signals. As the voltages you are trying to measure may be small, the effect of noise can be significant. Noise can also be present on the reference voltages that supply the ADC and this will have a similar detrimental effect on the measurement – so make sure all these signals are as clean as possible with good decoupling, thick signal traces covering short distances and direct routing to the power source.

If your design is measuring a steady or slowly changing value (such as battery voltage or temperature) then the errors mentioned above are the significant ones. If you are measuring quickly changing signals, such as sound or maybe signals from a vibration sensor, then the AC characteristics of the ADC come into play.

Imperfections in the ADC and quantisation errors produce distortions in the output data. This is where things start to get complicated, so we shall ignore these and limit the subject to DC and slowly varying signals. That's not to say these measures will not work for higher frequency, just that you may not get the best results. You can get a taste of the AC characteristics in the Microchip application notes.

So, we know that ADCs are rife with sources of error, some of which can be ignored. We have followed the guidelines for minimising noise on the reference and input signals. Now, how do we convert the ADC output to a meaningful value, such as a temperature to display on an LCD?

There are two approaches to this: The easy way and the (slightly) more accurate way.



Fig.3. Temperature specification graph for the LM19

#### Example

We will demonstrate the two approaches on a real example, the LM19 temperature sensor. This is a 3-pin IC that takes a 5V supply and outputs an analogue voltage, which represents the ambient temperature. Fig.3 shows the specification, straight out of the datasheet, for the output voltage verses temperature. The equation is clearly going to be of little interest to anyone other than mathematicians or those with a masochistic desire to follow instructions to the letter. Looking at the graph gives a more reassuring view: the output is linear (a straight line) through the temperature range that we are interested in, 0 to 100 degrees. Picking out the extremes of the temperature range we are interested in shows, approximately, that:

```
0 \text{ degrees} = 1.8 \text{V}
100 \text{ degrees} = 0.7 \text{V}
```

therefore, each one degree increase results in a voltage change at the output of:

(0.7 - 1.8)/100 or -11 mV.

We know, from a previous calculation, that each ADC output value of the PIC microcontroller increases in value by one for every 4.9mV increase on the ADC input. So if 100 degrees is 0.7V, we know, by messing around with some maths, that the temperature, T, is:

 $T = 100 - ((ADC \times 0.0049) - 0.7) / 0.011$ 

That looks like a rather horrible equation to have to implement in assembly language but by moving things around we arrive at a slightly better looking equation:

 $T = 163 - ADC \times 0.44$ 

You can prove this by making up some numbers of your own, plugging them in and comparing with the chart. If you are programming in a high level language that equation is fine, and you can place it straight into your code. For programming in assembly

language (or for those people who just like to write fast, efficient code) we have to work out how best to deal with the fraction, since microcontrollers loathe fractions. This is where the old mental skill of dealing with fractons comes in handy, and one of the few times that the author is glad he is over 40 and was taught this at school! Messing around with a calculator shows that the fraction 7/16 is equal to 0.4375, a value close enough to 0.44 for our needs. So our equation could be represented by:

 $T = 163 - ((ADC \times 7) / 16)$ 

That is a lot better. To help with the maths,  $ADC \times 7$  can be calculated as

 $ADC \times 8 - ADC$ 

so now we have

 $T = 163 - ((ADC \times 8 - ADC) / 16)$ 

which in assembly language is some shifts and a few subtractions – simple, and fast.

So there we have it – the simple approach to converting an analogue signal into a value that we can work with in software. It takes some diligence with basic maths, but it is isn't too complex.

#### Second option

By this stage you may have forgotten that we were to discuss two options. The second approach involves exactly the same technique as before, but to determine the true performance of the ADC, we resort to applying an actual voltage to the ADC at the two extremes of measurement (0.7V and 1.8V in this example) and checking what the real ADC output is. This technique requires that you write some software to display, somehow, the ADC output, and should only be done if the increased accuracy is justified. In the case of a simple thermometer, where a degree inaccuracy can be tolerated, you need not bother.

Let's take a look at what solution Microchip provide for analogue to digital conversion. Many of the smaller parts such as the 10F, 12F and even the popular 16F84A do not provide an ADC at all, although there is an application note AN513 that explains how you can add analogue to digital conversion to such devices. The larger PICs such as the 18F family all have ADCs by default. They are all very similar, providing a 10-bit output of the input signal, a user-selectable voltage reference input and multiple input channels. A typical peripheral block diagram is shown in Fig.4.



Fig.4. Typical block diagram of a PIC18F ADC

Everyday Practical Electronics, May 2007

The two voltage reference input levels determine the lower and upper bounds of the range over which the input signal will be tracked. For simplicity they can be set to the supply rails (V<sub>REE</sub>- set to ground,  $V_{RFF}$ + set to the supply voltage) but for more accuracy you can supply two different voltages on designated pins. This would be useful, for example, if you know that your input signal will only vary between, say, 2.0V and 3.0V. If you set the  $V_{REF}$  input pin to 2.0V and the  $V_{REF}$ + input pin to +3.0V, then your 10-bit output value will be five times more accurate than if you left the reference inputs to their default of 0V and +5V.

In many cases, however, the input signal will have the same range of values as the supply voltage of the processor, so you can just leave the reference voltages tied to the supply rails internally. Note, though, that the voltages on the  $V_{RLF}$  pins and on the ADC inputs must not go above the processor positive supply voltage or below zero. To do so will damage the IC irreversibly.

#### Multiple channels

The other point to note about ADCs on PIC microcontrollers is that they provide multiple input channels, ranging from two up to eight or more, as can be seen on the block diagram in Fig.4. There is only one ADC unit, and only a single conversion can be done at a time, but the PIC includes a number of analogue switches inside the processor. This is quite a useful feature because in applications that use ADCs there are often multiple analogue input signals that need to be monitored. These inputs are 'multiplexed' with I/O pins, enabling you to decide which pins are used for I/O, and which will be used for analogue inputs. Of course, if you are only interested in monitoring a single signal then the unused ADC input pins can be configured as I/O pins instead.

The ADIF output signal on the block diagram is an interrupt flag that will trigger when the signal conversion completes. As ADC conversions can take some time – hundreds of microseconds – it allows the application to continue performing other tasks and respond to ADC events within an interrupt routine. You can also poll this bit in the interrupt register if you do not wish to setup interrupt processing.

It should be noted that a suitable time must be allowed to elapse between accessing different ADC channels (see the datasheet).

#### Registers

There are only a few registers involved in configuring an ADC, which are described in the following paragraphs.

**ADRESH/ADRESHL:** These two registers will hold the result of a conversion. Two registers are required since the result will be a 10-bit number.

ADCON0: This register allows you to select the source input channel to use for an ADC measurement. It also holds the control bit for enabling the ADC subsystem, ADON, and the bit to start an actual conversion, GO/DONE. If you do not intend to use the ADC peripheral in a design then you should make sure it is turned off by clearing the ADON bit as the peripheral draws a noticeable amount of current.

ADCON1: This register is used to determine how the I/O pins are configured. You should ensure that you choose the appropriate values to match your design – pins that do not need to be analogue inputs should be configured as digital I/O pins to reduce current leakage.

ADCON2: This is the most complex register to setup. It enables you to specify the acquisition time and conversion clock rate, two complex parameters which we will discuss in a moment. It also contains the ADFM bit which is used to determine the format of the data in the ADRES registers: left or right justified.

If you remember, the result is a 10-bit number, but the two registers together will hold 16 bits - so six bits are unused. Normally you set this flag to 'right justified' which leaves the lower eight data bits in the ADRESL register, and the two most significant bits in the ADRESH register. In some applications, however, you might only be interested in the top eight bits, and want to ignore the lower two bits. In this case you can set the output format to 'left justified'. Now the most significant eight bits will appear in the ADRESH register. This may sound confusing but is a standard technique for ADC converters to enable users to 'drop' the lower resolution bits without having to manually shift data down by two bits.

#### Using the ADC

Operating the ADC is quite easy – mostly. The approach is as follows:

• Configure ADCON1 to select the reference voltage source and analogue input pins

• Select the ADC input pin from which you want to sample in ADCON0

• Select an acquisition time and clock source in ADCON2

• Turn the ADC peripheral on in ADCON()

• Set the GO/DONE bit in ADCON0

• Wait for the GO/DONE bit to be cleared, signaling that the result is available in the ADRES registers

It's all very straightforward, with the exception of step 3 which introduces some new terms, 'acquisition time' and 'clock source'. To understand these we need to take a closer look at how the ADC converter operates.

The input signal (routed from the selected input pin) charges a capacitor inside the ADC block. Once the acquisition time has elapsed, the input signal is disconnected from this capacitor and the ADC starts to measure the voltage on it. The input signal is disconnected to ensure that changes on the signal during the measurement period do not affect the results – the capacitor effectively holds a 'copy' of the input signal.

The ADC uses a process called *successive approximation* to perform the conversion, which is where the input signal is compared against a slowly increasing

voltage generated by a simple ADC. When the comparator flips state the ADC knows that the input voltage is the same as the voltage being generated by the DAC. These details are hidden from us by the ADC; all we need to know is that the ADC requires a 'charge time', the accquisition time, to ensure that the capacitor has fully charged, and a 'conversion time', which is based on how quickly the ADC is clocked.

It is important that the acquisition time is long enough for the capacitor to charge up. How long this takes depends on the impedance of the circuit driving the input pin; how high the imbalance is, how long it will take to charge the capacitor. Microchip recommend that the driving impedance should be less that  $2.5k\Omega$ . If your driving circuit is higher than that (or you suspect it to be and don't actually know), then add, for example, an op amp buffer to reduce it.

The length of time the ADC takes to determine the voltage on the capacitor is determined by the clock source. This is a tricky parameter to set: too short, and it will produce an inaccurate result. Too long, and the charge on the capacitor will decay, giving you a false reading. The minimum time is specified in the datasheet (parameter 130 under 'A/D Conversion Requirements' at the end of the datasheet) and this is typically around  $1\mu$ s, with a maximum of  $25\mu$ s. Choose a clock setting in the ADCON2 register to give a value within this range.

The acquisition time, as we mentioned earlier, will depend on the impedance of your circuit driving the input pin. An equation to calculate this time is given in the datasheet, but that will be of little use to you if you do not know the impedance. The pragmatic solution to this is to start with a large time, and reduce it if necessary. Given that the largest time is  $20 \times$ TAD, this time is approximately  $400\mu$ s which for performing conversion on slowly changing data is likely to be perfectly acceptable.

#### Noise again

No matter how hard you try, noise is still likely to appear in your results. Good noise suppression and power supply decoupling is essential, except in the most trivial of signal processing (like monitoring battery voltages). Averaging successive samples is a solution if you can accept a lower rate of sampling. For example, if you are taking samples every 1ms, averaging ten samples will give an effective sampling rate of once every 10ms.

If running the CPU above 1MHz, use the ADC's RC oscillator as the clock source and switch the CPU into SLEEP mode during the conversion, otherwise the accuracy of the ADC will be compromised. Halting the CPU while doing a conversion is always advisable anyway to minimise extraneous noise from the CPU affecting your result.

Under no circumstances should you toggle output pins during a conversion. The high current capability of the output drivers can cause significant additional noise. There will be enough of it out there anyway, so try to avoid adding any more!

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#### World Radio History

Are all your trailer lights working?

by Terry de Vaux-Balbirnie

The job of checking a caravan's road lights is not easy for the lone traveller. It is simpler when an assistant is available to call out that the various lamps are working. I heard of one independent caravanner who carried a piece of wood that he would wedge between the driver's seat and brake pedal to keep the stop lights operating while he went round the back of his unit to check! The circuit published here will help anyone to test their trailer's lights without assistance (in fact, a request was made for such a device in *Readout (EPE* December, 2004).

#### On your pins

Caravan road lights are notoriously prone to failure. Apart from blown bulbs, other possible causes are corrosion on the pins of the connecting plug and socket, deterioration of their terminals and detached wires. Another problem arises when rain water enters a lighting unit through a badly seated or broken rubber seal, causing deterioration of the bulb contacts. Since non-operational lights are dangerous, and may result in prosecution, it is essential to test them regularly and certainly before every journey.

Many caravan lighting units are of the 'four function' type, housing bulbs for the stop, tail, flashing indicators and fog lights. Some also incorporate reversing lights. On a caravan, the number plate lights are not usually part of the main units so these will need to be checked separately. There will also be marker lights at the forward end of the outfit but these are practically self-checking because they are so easily seen.

#### Light work

To use the Caravan Lights Check, a box (rear unit) is attached temporarily to each lighting cluster. The rear units are wired together and, in turn, connected to a hand-held section (main unit). This is plugged into the towing vehicle's cigarette lighter socket (or it may be powered using an internal battery). When the lights are operated in turn, light-emitting diodes (LEDs) on the main unit operate to show that they are working.

The display takes the form of five LEDs. The top one is simply an on indicator. The others are arranged in two pairs – red for the left and green for the right-hand side of the caravan (see photograph below). The upper two LEDs will operate when the side lights are switched on. When the flashing indicators, stop lights or fog lights are operated, the upper LEDs go off and the lower ones illuminate. For reasons to be explained presently, the flashing indicators may only operate the upper pair of LEDs but this is of no practical consequence.

The recommended power supply is the nominal 12V obtained from the vehicle's cigarette lighter socket. An internal 9V PP3 battery would be satisfactory but it would need to be replaced regularly to ensure that it was always in good condition and ready for use.

#### **Circuit description**

The complete circuit for the Caravan Lights Check is shown in Fig. 1.



Everyday Practical Electronics, May 2007

World Radio History

The on unit is left an Everytt main o It wit transis nation with it with re smalle themset to prev sides of

The only electronic device in each rear unit is a phototransistor (TR1 for the left and TR2 for the right-hand side). Everything else is contained in the main control section.

It will be necessary for each phototransistor to receive adequate illumination from all the bulbs associated with it. This may usually be achieved with rear units that are considerably smaller than the lighting clusters themselves. It will also be necessary to prevent external light entering the sides of the lighting units. Too much



Fig. 1: complete circuit diagram for the Caravan Lights Check

stray light reaching the phototransistors would cause false operation.

Of course, it would be obvious if this had happened because the LED indicators would illuminate even when no caravan lights were switched on. Simple light shields made using cardboard or thick paper may be used and more will be said about this later.

Although a particular phototransistor is specified in the parts list, other general-purpose types would be suitable. Note, however, that the unit chosen must be sensitive to visible light. An infra-red phototransistor housed in an opaque case will *not* be satisfactory.

#### On the level

The design must take account of the fact that fog lights (and reversing lights if fitted) do not operate in isolation. These work when the tail lights are on, so there will already be some light reaching the phototransistors. The circuit has, therefore, been designed to operate at two brightness levels. The lower one is used for the tail lights while the higher one operates with the brighter illumination associated with the other bulbs.

The sensitivity of a silicon phototransistor to yellow is considerably less than it is to red. The human eye is particularly sensitive to yellow so the flashing indicators appear bright.

However, to a phototransistor, they seem dimmer than, say, the stop lights, even though the bulb has the same power rating. The flashing indicators may, therefore, only operate the 'low level' LEDs. This does not matter as long as the tail lights are switched off when they are checked.

On-off switch S1 will not be needed if the car supply is used. Fuse FS1 will blow and interrupt the current in the event of a short-circuit. Diode D8 provides reverse-polarity protection – if the supply were to be connected in the opposite sense, D8 would not conduct and semiconductor devices in the circuit would be protected.

Capacitor C1 provides smoothing (in case the circuit is operated with the car engine running since the alternator gives a 'noisy' output). If an internal supply is used, C1 provides a reserve of energy which will be useful when the battery is nearing the end of its service life. Light-emitting diode (LED) D7 is the 'on' indicator and operates

#### Parts List – Caravan Lights Check

- 1 PC board, code 619, available from the EPE PCB Service, size 90mm × 60mm
- 1 plastic box for main unit, size 112mm × 62mm × 31mm
- 2 plastic boxes for rear units, size 100mm × 50mm × 25mm (see text)
- 1 20mm fuseholder and 200mA fuse to fit
- min. rocker, slide or toggle switch (optional – see text) (S1)
- 9V alkaline battery, with connector clips (PP3 type – optional, see text)
- 1 8-pin DIL socket
- 1 14-pin DIL socket
- 2 2-way screw terminal blocks, one PCB mounting, 5mm pitch (see text)
- 1 3-way screw-terminal block
- 2 nylon nuts and bolts for PCB mounting
- car cigarette lighter lead (supply lead – see text)
   Materials for attaching rear units

(see text); material for light shield (see text); automotive wire (see

text); multistrand connecting wire; solder etc.

#### Semiconductors

- 2 1N4148 signal diodes (D1, D2)
- 1 1N4001 50V 1A rect. diode (D8)
- 2 3mm red LEDs (D3, D5)
- 2 3mm green LEDs (D4, D6)
- 1 3mm orange LED (D7)
- 2 SFH300-2 phototransistors or similar (see text) (TR1, TR2)
- 1 LM324 quad op amp (IC1)
- 1 LM358 dual op amp (IC2)

#### Capacitors

1 220µ radial elect. 25V

#### Resistors (0.25W 5% carbon film)

- 5 680Ω (390Ω if a 9V battery is used) (R11, R12, R17 to R19)
- 6 47k (R7 to R10, R14, R16)
- 4 100k (R1, R2, R13, R15)
- 4 10M (R3 to R6)

#### Potentiometers

2 100k min. carbon preset, vertical (VR1, VR2)

through resistor R19, which limits its current to some 14mA.

#### Load resistors

Resistors R1 and R2 provide the load for phototransistor TR1 and TR2 respectively. Under dim lighting conditions, a relatively high voltage will be developed between a phototransistor's collector and emitter. With more light, this will fall. Suppose, for the sake of argument, that the 'dark voltage' (that is, with no lights switched on) is 11V, the 'low-light voltage' is 8V and the 'high-light voltage' is 6V.

The voltage appearing at phototransistor TR1's collector is applied to the inverting inputs (pins 2 and 9) of operational amplifiers (op amps) IC1a and IC1c, while that at TR2 is applied to the inverting inputs (pins 6 and 13) of IC1b and IC1d. IC1a and IC1b are associated with the low brightness level while IC1c and IC1d are used for the high one.

Ignore resistors R3 to R6 for the moment. IC1a and IC1b non-inverting inputs (pins 3 and 5) are connected to the sliding contact (wiper) of preset VR1. Since its track is connected across the supply, the sliding contact can apply any voltage between 0V and nominally +12V to the inputs.

Preset VR1's wiper also 'feeds' the upper track connection of preset VR2. Its wiper contact being connected to the non-inverting inputs (pins 10 and 12) of op amps IC1c and IC1d. The arrangement of VR1's sliding contact providing the upper track voltage for VR2 is used because VR2 will always need to provide a lower voltage than VR1. Suppose VR1 and VR2 are adjusted to give 9V and 7V respectively at their wipers.

With TR1 and TR2 under 'dark' conditions (that is, with no lights switched on), +11V will exist at all IC1's inverting inputs. The voltage at each non-inverting input will, therefore, be less than that at the inverting one in each case so all the outputs (pins 1, 7, 8 and 14) will be low.

#### Low level

When low-level light is picked up (tail lights switched on), +8V appears

at all IC1's inverting inputs. For IC1a and IC1b, the non-inverting input voltage exceeds the inverting one so the outputs (pins 1 and 7) will go high (nominally +12V). However, this is not the case for IC1c and IC1d so the outputs (pins 8 and 14) remain low.

IC1a and IC1b outputs (pins 1 and 7) feed a pair of potential dividers (resistors R9/R10 and R7/R8 respectively). These have equal 'arms' so one half of the output voltage will exist at the junction between the resistors. With IC1a and IC1b outputs high, a nominal +6V will therefore be applied to the noninverting input of IC2a and IC2b (pins 3 and 5 respectively). IC2a and IC2b are two sections of a dual op amp.

Ignore the effect of diodes D1 and D2 for the moment. Each of IC2's inverting inputs (pins 2 and 6) obtains a voltage from the mid-point of a potential divider which is connected across the supply (R13/R14 for IC2a and R15/R16 for IC2b). With the specified values, this divides the supply voltage by three approximately. About +4V will therefore exist at each inverting input.

When IC1a and IC1b outputs are low (phototransistors under 'dark' conditions) IC2's non-inverting inputs will also be low, while the inverting ones are at +4V. The outputs (pins 1 and 7) will therefore be low and nothing further will happen.

#### Tail chasing

When light from the tail lamps is picked up, the voltage at IC2a and IC1b non-inverting inputs (+6V) will exceed that at the inverting ones (+4V), so the outputs, pin 1 and pin 7, go high. These operate red LED D5 and green LED D6 (the indicators for the left-hand and right-hand tail light respectively) through current-limiting resistors R17 and R18.

When high-level light is detected, the conditions are the same (the noninverting input voltage exceeding the inverting one) for IC1a and IC1b, so LEDs D5 and D6 should remain on. However, this behaviour is modified by IC1c and IC1d. Here, the non-inverting input voltage (+7V) exceeds the inverting one (+6V) in each case so the outputs (pins 8 and 14) will go high.

This state is transferred through diodes D1 and D2 to IC2a and IC1b inverting inputs. This forces the inverting input voltage for each to exceed the non-inverting one. IC2's outputs go low and the low-level indicators D5 and D6 switch off. IC1c and IC1d outputs operate the high-level indicators, D3 and D4, via current-limiting resistors R11 and R12 respectively.

It is desirable for the low level LEDs to switch off when the high-level ones operate. The display might be confusing otherwise.

Note that the switching points of the various op amps and hence of the LEDs associated with them are not affected by changes in supply voltage. This is because any rise or fall in value will be reflected equally at both inputs.

#### **Sharp practice**

The switching action of op amps IC1a to IC1d is sharpened (so that the outputs operate 'cleanly') by introducing some positive feedback. This is the purpose of resistors R3 to R6 connected between the output and the corresponding non-inverting input. Only a little feedback is needed, hence the relatively high value of these resistors.

It will be noted that the same operating level adjustments are used for both left and right channels. For these to operate correctly, it will therefore be necessary for the components in each channel to be reasonably well matched. In practice, this is not difficult. As long as both phototransistors are of the same type and mounted in a similar way, a single adjustment will be satisfactory.

#### Construction

Construction of the Caravan Lights Check (main unit) is based on a single-sided printed circuit board (PCB). This board is available from the *EPE PCB Service*, code 619. The component layout and actual size copper master pattern is shown in Fig. 2.

Begin construction by drilling the board mounting holes. Solder in position the fuseholder, IC sockets, screw terminal block TB1, all resistors (including presets VR1 and VR2) also capacitor C1, taking care over its polarity. C1 should be mounted flat on the circuit panel (see photographs) to present a low profile. Note that if a 9V battery is used as a power supply, the value of the LED current-limiting resistors (R11, R12, R17, R18 and R19) should be reduced to 390 ohms to maintain a good level of brightness.

Follow with diodes D1, D2 and D8, also the five LEDs (D3 to D7) taking care with their polarity. The tops of the LEDs should stand at the same level and be higher than everything else on the circuit board.

Solder short pieces of stranded connecting wire to phototransistor TR1(c), TR2(c) and TR1/2(e) points at the left-hand side. Insert the ICs into their sockets. Set preset VR1 fully clockwise, as viewed from the lefthand edge of the circuit board, and VR2 fully clockwise, as viewed from the right-hand side.



The main unit printed circuit board mounted inside the small plastic case, using nylon nuts and bolts, and the left and right-side phototransistors mounted inside two small 'potting' boxes, via a 3-way and a 2-way screw terminal block.



phototransistors if the box is not too shallow. Also, light from the various bulbs inside the lighting cluster will reach the phototransistor more easily. A depth of 25mm was used in the prototype and this proved satisfactory.

#### On the block

Use a two-way section of screw terminal block taped to the bottom of the box to connect the phototransistor. Note that this has only two end wires – the emitter (e) being the longer one



#### **Boxing up**

Hold the circuit board in position on the bottom of the box and mark through the holes already present. Remove the PCB and drill mounting holes at these points. Drill holes also for the interconnecting wires to pass through and for the power supply lead (unless an internal battery is used).

Mount the PCB temporarily on standoff insulators so that the tips of the LEDs stand a few millimetres higher than the top of the box. Carefully measure the position of the LEDs and drill holes in the lid for them to show through. Drill a hole and attach on-off switch, S1, if an internal battery is to be used.

A 9V PP3 battery should be used for initial testing so, even if it is intended to use the 12V car supply eventually, fit a battery connector to terminal block TB1, observing the polarity. Note that the LEDs will operate more dimly when using a 9V supply if the current-limiting resistors have a value appropriate to 12V operation.

#### Mock-up

The boxes used for the rear units should be chosen according to the size and shape of the lighting clusters, and also where the bulbs are situated inside them. Most readers will wish to use boxes that are as small as possible consistent with reliable operation. To achieve this, it would be a good idea to make a temporary rear unit using cardboard. It will then be possible to perform some tests and assess its effectiveness before ordering the final boxes. There will be fewer problems caused by external light reaching the



Fig.2: printed circuit board component layout, full-size copper foil master pattern and wiring details to the high and low-level LEDs

World Radio History



Fig.3: interwiring details for connecting the two rear-light units (phototransistors) to the main master circuit board.

unit's left channel using a further piece for two-way screw terminal block. Take (care that the collector (c) and emitter (e) connect to the correct points.

Wrap a piece of thick black paper around one of the lighting units to act as a light shield. Attach the rear unit flat on the lighting cluster using adhesive tape. Connect the battery – the orange 'on' indicator should light. Operate the side lights and adjust preset VR1 anti-clockwise so that the low-level indicator switches on. Switch off the lights and check that the LED goes off. The stop lights and flashing indicators should also operate the low-level indicator. Repeat using the right channel, re-adjusting VR1 for best operation as necessary.

Operate the stop lights and any other bright bulbs and adjust VR2 anti-clockwise so that the high-level indicator operates. The low-level LED should go off when this happens. As stated previously, the flashing indicators may not operate the high-level LEDs but they should operate the low-level ones when the tail lights are switched off.

#### **Final arrangements**

In light of these experiments, choose plastic boxes for the rear units. Potting boxes (inexpensive lidless cases made from lightweight material) were used in the prototype. Decide how the rear units will be held in position. Simple rubber band 'harnesses' were used in the prototype (see photographs).

Drill holes for the interconnecting wires (one in the left-hand unit and two in the right-hand one). Attach a two-way piece of screw terminal block to the bottom of the 'left' box and a three-way section in the 'right' one (reverse this for a left-hand drive car). Secure the phototransistors and, referring to Fig. 3, complete the wiring. The colours shown were those used in the prototype.

It is best to make connections direct to the TR1(c), TR2(c) and TR1/2(e) points. Alternatively, you could solder the wires to those already in place and insulate the joints using heat-shrinkable sleeving.

The wire inter-connecting the rear units should be of the light-duty twin stranded variety, while that connecting the main section needs to be of the triple type. You could use four-core stranded burglar alarm type throughout and simply cut off the ends of the wires that are not needed. Do not use single-core telephone wire because this would soon fail in service. Apply a tight cable tie to the wire inside each unit to provide strain relief.

#### **Power supply**

If a 9V battery is used as the power supply, make a bracket to secure it. If

the car supply is to be used, obtain a commercial lead fitted with a cigarette-lighter type plug on the end. If you decide to make up your own lead, use proper automotive-type twin wire. Pass the free end through the hole drilled for the purpose and connect it to TB1, taking care over the polarity. Use a cable clamp or tight cable tie on the inside to provide strain relief.

Make up the light shields. Simple push-on cardboard or thick black paper sleeves to fit around each lighting unit would be sufficient. Alternatively, a pair of wide elastic 'cuffs' could be used. Light entering any exposed part of the front of the unit will pose less of a problem, although direct sunlight would probably cause false operation. To minimise any problems, try to make the checks when the ambient light is not too bright. Re-test the system and adjust VR1 then VR2 for best operation. **EPE** 



Rear light 'sensor' attached to a lighting cluster





lan Bell

### Using a 4046 Phase-Locked Loop (PLL)

Recently **Djgillery** posted a question on the *EPE Chat Zone* (via www. epemag.co.uk) forum about Phase-Locked Loops (PLL):

"Has anybody used a 74HC4046 to multiply a 64kHz clock up to 256kHz? I've had a quick look on Google but haven't come up with anything yet. I'm a novice with PLLs I'm afraid to say. Any info would be gratefully appreciated."

For a compete understanding of PLLs you need a combination of some powerful mathematics and plenty of 'real world' experience. Their basic structure is quite straightforward and yet a vast volume of academic papers and many textbooks have been published on their theory and use since their first implementation in the 1930s. Fortunately, it is possible to make some useful circuits from them without needing advanced theory, particularly if you use the off-the-self PLL ICs which are available from a number of manufacturers.

The 4046 CMOS PLL has been around for many years and is probably the most popular PLL chip for electronics hobbyists. We will look at some PLL concepts, including how they are used to form frequency multipliers like the one Djgillery hopes to build. We will than take a quick look at the 4046.

#### **PLL** applications

Phase-locked loops have many applications in communications, including reconstruction of the carrier, demodulation of both a.m. and f.m. signals, decoding FSK (frequency shift keying) signals, and receiver synchronization for digital data transmission (including regenerating the clock from the data). PLLs are also used in frequency synthesis (which itself has a variety of applications), where a large range of frequencies can be produced using a single accurate reference (e.g. crystal oscillator).

Many large digital ICs have PLLs as part of their clock system. The PLL can synchronize the internal clock with an external one, and allows the internal clock to be at a higher frequency than the external clock. Furthermore, the phase shift of the PLL clock can be set to give good synchronization between the timing of the chip's inputs and outputs. Similarly, the timing of data transfers on tri-state buses can be improved using PLLs to synchronize output switching. The basic structure of a PLL is shown in Fig.1, from which we can see that a PLL comprises a phase detector, a low pass filter, an amplifier and a voltage controlled oscillator (VCO). The frequency of oscillation of a VCO is determined by its control input voltage.

The PLL is, in fact, a negative feedback closed loop control system, rather like a servo mechanism that you might find in a radio control model. A 'demand' input (the position we require a servo motor to move to, or the frequency/phase for a PLL) is input and compared with the present output. An 'error signal' (i.e. the difference between the present and the demanded positions, or frequencies) is then used to move the output closer to the value we're demanding. of 'homing in' on the input frequency is called *capture, acquisition*, or *pull-in*. Once locked, the PLL can track changes in the input frequency (remaining locked) as long as these are not too large. Important parameters which measure PLL performance are:

• The capture time (how fast it locks onto a frequency)

• Lock range (what range of frequencies it will stay locked to, once locked)

• The capture range (the range of frequencies it will capture, starting in the nonlocked state).

#### Noise and stability

Other important PLL specifications relate to noise and stability, including the



Fig.1. Basic phase-locked loop (PLL) block diagram

#### Phase detector and locking

In a phase-locked loop, the phase detector compares the phase difference between its two input signals. If the signals are of different frequencies then the phase detector output will vary at the difference frequency. The phase detector output is smoothed by a low-pass filter (and buffered or scaled by the amplifier) to produce a control signal for the voltage-controlled oscillator. If there is a difference between the frequency (or phase) of the input signal and that of the VCO, then the

signal from the phase detector and filter will cause the VCO control voltage to change, such that the VCO frequency is moved closer to the input frequency.

Eventually the two frequencies will become equal and attain a fixed phase relationship, at which point the PLL is described as being 'locked'. The process response of the PLL to noise on its input, the noise on its output, and the stability of the output signal's phase and frequency. For different applications these specifications may take on a different significance, for example a small capture range will be useful for some tasks but not others. A large capture range makes the PLL more susceptible to noise, whereas a small capture range makes capture more difficult to achieve. It's possible to switch the properties of the filter after lock is obtained to get the best overall performance. The ability of



Fig.2. Illustrating the complexity of the PLL VCO control signal during the capture process


Fig.3. Block diagram for a phase-locked loop frequency synthesizer

the PLL to 'lock' to noisy signals is key to its usefulness in communications systems, where high levels of noise may be present.

The way in which a PLL attains lock is complex – the VCO control signal during capture (i.e. when the PLL is not locked) is not a simple DC representation of the difference in frequencies between the two signals. Furthermore, the phase difference between the signals needs to be considered. It is basically the DC component, or average value, over time, of the VCO control signal that moves towards the value required to lock the PLL. The typical form of the VCO control signal during capture is shown in Fig.2.

#### PLL applications

The application of PLLs can help produce excellent quality, ultra high stability oscillators. They can also be controlled digitally to produce a range of frequencies, instead of (for example) having to physically select different quartz crystals in a high accuracy oscillator circuit.

Fig.3 shows a simple block diagram of a PLL-based frequency synthesizer capable of producing a wide range of frequencies using a single fixed crystal-controlled oscillator. The frequency is digitally programmable – i.e. it could be set by logic circuitry, by a microcontroller such as a PIC, or by a PC. The circuit is a basic PLL with a couple of programmable divide-by-n counters added. These counters are sequential logic circuits that divide an input frequency by n, where n is a binary number provided on a control input. They are available as ICs such as the 4059.



Fig.4. Pinout information for the 74HC/HCT4046A PLL ICs (Philips datasheet, 1997)

The first counter divides the crystal oscillator frequency  $f_{xtal}$  by the integer value N<sub>1</sub> to give the reference input to which the PLL will lock. Thus, the PLL will lock onto  $f_{xtal}/N_1$ . The second counter divides the VCO output, so that the phase detector is comparing the input with a divided version of the VCO frequency.

The PLL will lock when the divided VCO frequency matches the input frequency – so the VCO will be running at N<sub>2</sub> times the input frequency, i.e.  $N_2 \times f_{xtal}/N_1$ . The PLL is acting as a frequency multiplier – the output from the frequency synthesizer is the PLL's VCO output.

The VCO can have any waveshape (sine, square, triangular etc) and by selection of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  a range of possible frequencies can be produced. For an integer multiply, such as Djgillery's requirement for multiplying a 64kHz clock up to 256kHz counter,

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 $N_1$  is not required. In this case  $N_2$  would be a divide-by-four circuit to give an output frequency four times that of the input.

#### **Type 4046 PLL**

The popular type 4046 PLL is available in a variety of forms, as shown in Table 1.

The pinouts of the 74HC/HCT4046A are shown in Fig.4, and Fig.5 shows an internal block diagram and the connection of the key external components required in even the most basic 4046-based PLL.

The 4046 contains three phase comparators from which to to choose. However, the low-pass filter is made using external components (R3, R4 and C2 in Fig.5). Pin 10 (DEM<sub>OUT</sub>) provides a buffered version of the low-pass filter output (and VCO input) so that this signal appears as the voltage across RS and can be used elsewhere in your circuit without loading the filter.

Table 1. 4046 Varieties

HEF4046B	PLL with VCO
74HC4046A	5V PLL with VCO
74HCT4046A	5V PLL with VCO; TTL enabled
74HC7046A	5V PLL with Lock Detector
74HCT7046A	5V PLL with Lock Detector; TTL enabled
74HCT9046A	5V PLL with Bandgap Controlled VCO; TTL enabled



Fig.5. Internal block schematic diagram and basic internal components for the 74HC/HCT4046A PLL ICs (Philips datasheet, 1997)

To use the PLL you need to decide on the lock range frequencies (which determines the VCO frequencies and hence C1, R1 and R2), the low-pass filter values (R3 and C2), and which phase comparator to use. None of this is trivial and you may find the 34-page datasheet somewhat daunting. Philips, however, provide some helpful software, more on this in a moment. The datasheets are available from www.stan dardics.nxp.com/products/plls/.

In a typical PLL design you will know either the VCO centre frequency ( $f_0$ , which it produces when the control voltage is around half the supply voltage), or you will know the required lock range ( $f_{\min}$  to  $f_{\max}$ ), which will be centred on the VCO centre frequency. For example for the HEF40406, if you know  $f_{max}$  you can select suitable values of R2 and C1 using graphs provided on the datasheet. The ratio R2/R1 is related to the ratio  $f_{max}/f_{min}$  so now you have R2 (and assuming you know  $f_{\min}$ ) you can select R1 using another graph from the datasheet. The VCO can also be operated in 'no offset' mode with R2 open circuit. In this case you set  $f_{max}$  as twice the VCO centre frequency and select R1 and C1 from yet another graph on the datasheet.

#### **Phase comparators**

The two phase comparators operate on different principles and have different characteristics, benefits and potential problems. Phase comparator 1 is simply an XOR gate. When using phase comparator 1 the signal and reference inputs must both have a 50% duty cycle in order to achieve maximum lock range.

Phase comparator 2 is more complicated than phase comparator 1. It is a state machine, which changes state when logic transitions occur on either the signal or reference inputs. Phase comparator 2 also has another output, PCP<sub>out</sub> (phase comparator pulse output) on pin 1, which can be used to tell when the PLL is locked.

Phase comparator 3 is a positive edgetriggered sequential phase detector using an RS-type flip-flop. When the PLL is using this comparator, the loop is controlled by positive signal transitions. Some of the properties of the phase comparators are compared in Table 2.

The loop filter should use the longest RC time possible for the application. This

#### Table 2. Phase Comparator Properties

Property	Comparator 1 (pin 2)	Comparator 2 (pin 13)	Comparator 3 (pin 15)
Lock Range	full VCO f <sub>min</sub> to f <sub>max</sub>	full VCO $f_{min}$ to $f_{max}$	low-pass filter dependent
Capture Range	low-pass filter dependent	equal to lock range	low-pass filter dependent
Signal noise rejection	good	poor	poor
Will lock on harmonics of $f_o$ ?	Yes	No	Yes
Effect of input duty cycle	best performance at 50%	does not matter	does not matter
Output when fully out of lock	f <sub>o</sub> (VCO centre frequency)	fmin	f <sub>min</sub>

depends on the speed with which the input frequency changes. If the RC time constant of the loop filter is too long the PLL will not move fast enough to track changes. If it is too short the VCO frequency will jump around too much, in the worst case responding to individual cycles of the input signal. The performance of the PLL may be improved by using an active filter based on an op amp, rather than just an RC circuit. Calculation of the components values for the loop filter (whatever configuration is used) may be quite involved and tiresome if you are experimenting and need to recalculate the values many times. Fortunately, it is possible to get software to do most of the work for you.

#### **Design tool**

A PLL Design Software Tool for the HC/HCT4046/7046A and HCT9046A is available for download from Philips Semiconductor at www.standardics.nxp. com/products/plls/. It can also be used with other devices, for example the HEF4046. Note that downloads of this program are also available on other sites on the internet, but they do not all provide the most up-to-date version (version 2.0, 1994). This is a DOS-based program, so it looks somewhat primitive compared with Windows applications. It runs under XP, but we have not tested it with Vista.

The program asks for details of your PLL design requirements and calculates component values for the VCO and loop filter. This takes a lot of the effort out of experimenting with these chips. The software also gives an approximation of the PLL's complete dynamic behaviour, and can generate a Bode plot (frequency response graph) to check loop stability.

The software was originally distributed on a floppy disc and contains a file **INSTALL.BAT**. This was designed to copy the files from the floppy onto the C drive. You do not need to run this if downloading the software onto your hard drive. Simply unzip the compressed file and run **PLL\_BODY.EXE**. The program takes over the whole screen, but you can still access other applications using the usual ALT-TAB shortcut.

The software asks a number of questions about your PLL design. These include IC type (4046/7046/9046), mid-frequency and expected drift (%) of input. Also, VCO centre frequency and VCO frequency range, value of  $_{\rm N}$  for the optional divider, which phase comparator to use, active or passive loop filter and supply voltage. The software uses two loop filter designs: a passive RC circuit and an active filter based on an op amp.

Once you have responded to all the questions, the software calculates the component values for the VCO and your chosen loop filter; it also issues a warning if the PLL you have created is likely to be unstable. The component values can be read from the screen or printed, but not saved to file. Schematics of the loop filters can be displayed by the software – you will have to copy them from the screen.

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Minimum system requirements for these items: Pentium PC running Windows 98, NT, 2000, ME, XP; CD-ROM drive; 64MB RAM; 10MB hard disk space.

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Flowcode is a powerful language that uses macros to facilitate the control of complex devices like 7-segment displays, motor controllers and I.c.d. displays. The use of macros allows you to control these electronic devices without getting bogged down in understanding the programming.

Flowcode produces MPASM code which is compatible with virtually all PICmicro programmers. When used in conjunction with the Version 3 development board this provides a seamless solution that allows you to program chips in minutes.

 Requires no programming experience
 Allows complex PICmicro applications to be designed quickly
 Uses international standard flow chart symbols (ISO5807)
 Full on-screen simulation allows debugging and speeds up the development process

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\*All circuits can be viewed, but can only be simulated if your computer has Crocodile Technology version 410 or later. A free trial version of Crocodile Technology can be downloaded from: www.crocodile-clips.com. Animated diagrams run without Crocodile Technology.

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H.H

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# This Bass Extender circuit can give you as much as an extra octave of bass response from your existing hifi speakers, as long as you are not running them near full power.

Design by RICK WALTERS

THIS MAY SOUND like black magic. Just how is it possible to get an extra octave of bass response from a hifi loudspeaker? Well, the theory supporting this idea originates from Neville Thiele's 1961 paper (1) on loudspeakers and vented enclosures. He postulated that the response of a loudspeaker in a vented enclosure was similar to a fourth-order high-pass filter, rolling off in the bass region at -24dB per octave. For a sealed





enclosure, the response was similar to a second order high-pass filter, rolling off at -12dB per octave.

Fig.1 shows this for hypothetical speakers that are -3dB down at 70Hz (the cutoff frequency), in each type of enclosure. Now if we apply bass boost with an amplitude of +3dB at 70Hz, rising to a maximum boost of around 11dB or so (for a sealed enclosure), it will partially compensate for the speaker's rolloff and thus extend the bass response by as much as an octave.

As we'll see later, the Bass Extender can be tailored for either type of enclosure, applying less boost to a vented enclosure than a sealed enclosure. This is the opposite of what you might expect, but is necessary because the speaker cone in a vented enclosure has little loading below the box resonance.

There is a limit to the amount of bass compensation we can apply anyway. A speaker's cone excursion increases as frequency decreases, so large bass boost levels would test the mechanics of the speaker as well as the damping ability of the enclosure. Also, it is likely that some power amplifiers would run into clipping.

Even with all these limitations, we can usually gain an extra octave without major problems. This is much more precise than merely boosting the bass with your amplifier's tone controls, as it's compensating for the loudspeaker's natural rolloff.

Note, this does not mean that the overall bass from the speaker will increase for all music. Since the bass response will be extended to a lower



Fig.2: the circuit includes two identical channels, each consisting of an input buffer followed by an equal component Sallen-Key filter. As shown, the circuit is configured for vented enclosures but will also work with sealed enclosures by changing the indicated resistor values.

frequency (say, 35Hz instead of 70Hz) you will only hear the difference if the music signal includes bass content at these low frequencies. Incidentally, if your loudspeakers have a response down to 50Hz or better, there is no point in building the Bass Extender.

#### **Speaker specifics**

The catch in this process is that you need to know the rated cutoff frequency for your speakers. Once you know this, you need to calculate a particular resistor value for the bass boost circuit. Apart from that, the circuit is simple and foolproof.

So, what is the rated cutoff frequency for your hifi loudspeakers? If you have the manufacturer's original specs, it is easy. They should give a frequency response curve and you just look to see where the bass response is 3dB down



Fig.3: the cutoff frequency of your speakers can be determined from the manufacturer's data sheets. Here, the frequency response curve shows a -3db point around 25Hz. In this case, there is absolutely no point in building the Bass Extender!



with respect to the output at a higher reference frequency, say 200Hz. An example frequency response curve is shown in Fig.3 (this example has a very good low-frequency response).

Failing that, have a look at the speaker's impedance curve, if you have it. For a bass reflex (vented) enclosure, the impedance curve will have a double hump in the bass region. The -3dB point is usually to be found in the dip between the two humps.

Similarly, if you have a sealed enclosure, the impedance curve will have a single peak (the system resonance) in the bass region and the -3dB point will be about 10% below that. For example, if the system resonance for a sealed enclosure is at 80Hz, then the -3dB point will be around 70Hz. If we wanted to compensate a vented enclosure, we need to boost the bass by 3dB at 70Hz, rising to a maximum of 6dB at around 35Hz.

#### **Circuit details**

Fig.2 shows the circuit details. It uses two op amps per channel, all in a TL074 quad op amp package. We will discuss only one channel, since both channels are identical.

The input signal for the left channel is fed through a  $1\mu$ F capacitor and a resistive attenuator to the non-inverting input (pin 5) of op amp IC1b, which is wired as a unity gain buffer. The  $68k\Omega$  and  $47k\Omega$  resistors at pin 5 result in a loss of 2.74 times (-8.76dB). To compensate for this loss, op amp IC1c provides a gain of 2.74 (+8.76dB) so that the overall circuit gain is unity; ie, zero gain.

Apart from providing some gain, IC1c is configured as an equal

# SPECIFICATIONS

Frequency response $-3dB @ 61kHz$ (see graph for bass response)
Signal-to-noise ratio – 70dB unweighted, – 83dB A-weighted (with respect to 1V, 20Hz – 20kHz bandwidth)
Total harmonic distortion 0.02% at 1kHz and 20kHz (1V input)
Signal handling 2.5V RMS maximum input level (12V DC supply)
Crosstalk

component Sallen-Key filter. How it works is quite complex but in simple terms, the resistors from the output (pin 8) to the junction of the two 100nF capacitors provide positive feedback below a certain frequency. Thus the gain increases to provide the bass boost characteristic we want. This is shown in Fig.4.

Naturally, the shape of the bass boost curve will need to vary, depending on whether we are compensating for a sealed enclosure or a vented enclosure (bass reflex) and the rated cutoff (-3dB point) of the loudspeaker system.

Accordingly, the values of resistors R1, R2 and R3 on the circuit are for vented enclosures. If you have sealed enclosures, R1 should be changed to  $27k\Omega$ , R2 to  $47k\Omega$  and R3 to  $39k\Omega$ .

Similarly, the value of the four resistors marked  $R_S$  depends on your speaker's cutoff frequency and this is calculated using the formula:

 $R_S = R_T - 33k\Omega$ 

where  $R_T = 3,180,000 \div f_c$  and  $f_c =$  speaker cutoff frequency.

This formula applies to both sealed and vented enclosures. For example, if your speakers have a cutoff frequency (-3dB point) of 70Hz,  $R_T =$ 3,180,000 ÷ 70 = 45.4k $\Omega$ . Subtracting 33k $\Omega$  from this figure gives a value of 12k $\Omega$  for  $R_S$ .

You will have to do the calculations for your own system before you can assemble this project.

#### **Power supply**

The circuit can be powered from 12 to 20V DC. Diode D1 provides supply input polarity protection.

Two  $10k\Omega$  resistors divide the supply rail in half (V<sub>CC</sub>/2). This is used as a bias voltage for IC1, necessary to allow the op amp to work with AC signals when running from a single supply rail.

Provision has been made for a power indicator (LED1) but we expect that most readers will not install this. It should not be installed if the board is to be powered from a DC plugpack, as the extra current drain will increase supply hum.

#### Construction

All parts for the Bass Extender mount on a small PC board, measuring 74 x 56mm (code 618). As usual, begin by checking the PC board for defects. Now is also a good time to enlarge the mounting holes for the



phono sockets and/or power socket, if required.

Next, install the single wire link, diode (D1) and all of the resistors, using the overlay diagram (Fig.5) as a guide. It's a good idea to check resistor values with a multimeter before installation. Note that the banded (cathode) end of the diode must be oriented as shown.

Follow up with the IC socket and all of the capacitors. The larger  $100\mu$ F and  $330\mu$ F electrolytic capacitors are polarised and must be inserted with their

#### Parts List

- 1 PC board, code 618, available from the EPE PCB Service, size 74 x 56mm
- 1 plastic case (optional see text)
- 2 dual PC-mount phono sockets
- 1 2.1 or 2.5mm PC-mount DC socket
- 2 6G x 6mm self-tapping screws for phono sockets
- 1 14-pin IC socket

#### Semiconductors

- 1 TL074 quad op amp (IC1)
- 1 3mm or 5mm red LED
- (optional see text)
- 1 1N4004 diode (D1)

#### Capacitors

- 1 330 $\mu$ F 25V PC electrolytic
- 1 100 $\mu$ F 16V PC electrolytic 2 1 $\mu$ F 16V non-polarised
- PC electrolytic 2 2.2µF 16V non-polarised PC electrolytic
- 4 100nF 50V metallised polyester (MKT)
- 1 100nF 50V monolithic ceramic
- 2 10pF 50V disc ceramic

#### Resistors (0.25W 1%)

2 1MΩ	2 22kΩ	<b>2 39Ω</b> *
2 68kΩ	2 10kΩ	2 27kΩ*
2 47kΩ*	1 1.5kΩ	4 R <sub>S</sub> *
6 33kΩ	2 100Ω	
	* SEE TEX	Г

positive leads oriented as indicated by the '+' markings on the overlay.

The two phono sockets and power socket can be left until last. Push them all the way down on the PC board before soldering them in position. That done, plug in the TL074 (IC1),

# Table 1: Resistor Colour Codes

	No.	Value	4-Band Code (1%)	5.
ā	2	1MΩ	brown black green brown	b
	2	68kΩ	blue grey crange brown	b
	2	47kΩ	yellow violet orange brown	y
	2	39kΩ	orange white orange brown	0
	6	33kΩ	orange orange orange brown	0
	2	27kΩ	red violet orange brown	re
	2	22kΩ	red red orange brown	re
	2	10kΩ	brown black orange brown	b
	1	1.5kΩ	brown green red brown	b
	2	100Ω	brown black brown brown	b

#### 5-Band Code (1%)

brown black black yellow brown blue grey black red brown yellow violet black red brown orange white black red brown orange orange black red brown red violet black red brown brown black black red brown brown green black brown brown brown black black brown

# DIY Loudspeaker Measurements

where the second secon

terminals, running one of the connections via the  $47\Omega$  resistor. That done, monitor the voltage across the speaker terminals (set your meter to its lowest AC range) and slowly reduce the oscillator frequency, starting off at about 200Hz. The reading should rise to a maximum then fall then rise again. The middle of the dip is the resonant frequency of the speaker and enclosure combination.

Sealed (closed box or infinite baffle): the same setup is used as for a bass reflex design but instead of a dip between two peaks, your meter should rise to a maximum then fall. The peak is the resonant frequency of the system.

In most cases, the system resonance will be near your speaker's free-air resonance but can be a little higher or lower depending on the enclosure size.

If you cannot get a reasonable reading on your multimeter, perhaps due to the low output level from your oscillator, you will have to feed the oscillator into an audio amplifier. Place the resistor (preferably 5W or so) in series with the ungrounded output of the amplifier and the speaker.

Connect the multimeter across the speaker terminals and set the oscillator output to give about 1V on the multimeter at 200Hz (with the amplifier turned on, naturally). Then follow the relevant procedure above.





watching that you have the notched (pin 1) end around the right way.

#### Testing

To test the Bass Extender you will need an audio oscillator and a multimeter or oscilloscope.

Start with the oscillator set to about 1kHz, with 450-500mV RMS output. Check the output of the oscillator with your multimeter (or millivoltmeter) if it doesn't have a calibrated amplitude scale.

Apply power and connect the oscillator to the left and right phono inputs in turn. Measure the amplitude of the signals at the corresponding phono outputs: they should be almost identical to the inputs.

Now set the oscillator to your speaker's resonant frequency; eg. 80Hz.



Everyday Practical Electronics, May 2007

The PC board can either be mounted inside an existing stereo amplifier or it can be mounted inside a small plastic instrument case as shown here. You will need to drill holes in one side of the case for the phono sockets and to provide access to the DC power socket (see Fig.7).



ENDE



Measure each channel again and this time you should find that the outputs read about 40% higher (+3dB).

Finally, measure each channel while tweaking the oscillator frequency to obtain the maximum possible reading. For a bass reflex (vented) enclosure, the maximum output should be around twice the input (+6dB), while for a sealed enclosure it should be about 3.5 times higher (+11dB), in line with the performance of our prototype (see Fig.4). If the results aren't what you expect, then go back and re-check your resistor calculations. If you don't get any bass boost, it is likely that the value calculated for  $R_S$  is much too large.

For those without the appropriate test gear, a listening test will quickly tell whether the Bass Extender is doing its job. Simply hook the project into one channel of your hifi system and listen to the bass with a suitable music programme; the difference between channels should be noticeable.

#### Housing

The Bass Extender could be used in a variety of ways. For example, it could be installed inside a stereo amplifier and patched into a tape loop or inserted between the preamp and power amplifier stages. It could also be used in a car sound system.

Where a separate enclosure is required, the board can be installed inside a small plastic instrument case. Mounting details for this option are as follows:

Photocopy the drilling template (Fig. 7) and place it centrally along the open edge of the plastic case, fixing it in place with adhesive tape. Mark and drill the holes, starting with small pilot holes and working up to the final size in several steps. A tapered reamer can also be used to enlarge the holes.

The three ribs on the inside of the case should be removed with a sharp knife or chisel to allow the power socket to fit flush with the inside. The bottom 5mm or so of the three ribs on the other side may need to be removed if the board is reluctant to fit.

Drop the PC board into the case and then slide the board backwards. The sockets will drop into their holes and the two self-tapping screws can then be fitted to hold the phono sockets and PC board in place.

#### Reference

(1). A. Neville Thiele, 'Loudspeakers in Vented Boxes,' Proceedings of the IRE Australia, August 1961; reprinted Journal of Audio Engineering Society, May & June 1971. EPE

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# TAKE A LOOK, A FREE ISSUE IS AVAILABLE

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# **PRACTICALLY SPEAKING** Robert Penfold looks at the Techniques of Actually Doing It!

S POINTED out in previous articles in this series, the easiest way of producing front panels that have a professional appearance is to enlist the help of a computer, a printer, and some graphics software. Even the cheapest of inkjet and laser printers are capable of producing top quality black and white results.

Any reasonably modern inkjet printer can also produce a wide range of colours, as can some laser printers. It is not even necessary to have any specialised software in order to produce some simple labels.

#### **Transfer market**

Of course, not everyone has access to computer equipment, and some seem to consider this way of doing things as 'cheating'. There are alternative approaches to

producing front panel labels, and there were plenty of professional looking projects in the pre-computer era. On the other hand, many of the labelling materials that were available (say) 20 years ago are no longer available today.

Some years ago many electronic project builders used the Alfac range of dry transfers, which were readily available at that time. Like many of the lettering products of the past, this range is no longer available, and using 'Alfac' as the search string in the Google search engine gives the impression that this company never existed!

This is not to say that dry transfer lettering is no longer available at all. The huge range and variety that was available until not so long ago has now almost disappeared, and will presumably never be available again. However, transfer sheets can still be obtained from some stationers and craft supply shops, and lettering can sometimes be found in amongst the other types on offer.

There is likely to be no choice of font, and only a limited range of sizes. The last point is an important one, because most of the transfers that are still available seem to be rather too large for labelling most projects. Using rub-on transfers to produce panel legends is still a practical proposition, but only just. It is probably time to start considering alternative approaches.

#### **Electronic labellers**

The decrease in the range of available lettering materials is no doubt due to a reduction in demand from professional and educational users. Computer techniques have gradually taken over, making it more difficult for anyone wishing to use traditional techniques. There are other modern hi-tech methods that have eroded the market for transfers, and that offer a useful alternative for amateur users as well. Probably the quickest way of producing neat and durable labels is to use an electronic labelling machine. This is an excellent method that should not be overlooked even if you do have access to a PC and a printer.

Electronic labelling machines have been around for many years now, but the early units were too expensive for intermittent amateur use. Fortunately, electronic labellers have been subject to the gradual price reductions associated with electronic goods, and the cheaper units are now well within the price range of most amateur users. Admittedly, some labelling machines are still quite expensive, but a small hand-held type is perfectly adequate for producing the panel legends for projects. and symbols. Surprisingly perhaps, even the low cost labellers usually offer a small range of text sizes and styles.

There are often some simple effects available, such as underlining and the option of having the words within a frame. Having set the size, style, etc., the required word or words are entered and the Print button is pressed. Once the label has been printed it is just a matter of pressing a lever to cut off the completed label.

The quality of the labels, which are produced using some form of thermal printer technology, varies somewhat from one unit to another. However, the print quality of even the cheaper units is quite impressive. Fig.2 shows the results obtained from two Brother labelling machines, and they certainly rival the quality obtained using good



Fig. 1. Labelling machines usually have a QWERTY keyboard, but in some cases, as here, there is only a very rough approximation of the standard layout

> As with any electronic goods, it is worth taking your time and shopping around. There are sometimes some very good introductory offers consisting of a labeller plus some additional tapes. It should be possible to get a labeller complete with batteries and at least one tape for less than £20. From time to time they are available for much less than this. Pre-used units often sell at quite low prices on a well-known Internet auction site.

#### A bit QWERTY

Most labellers are very straightforward to use. Characters are entered on what is a form of QWERTY keyboard, although in some cases it is only a rough approximation of one (see Fig.1). A small liquid crystal display shows the text that has been entered so that you can check for and correct any errors. The usual range of characters are available, including upper and lower case letters, numbers, and a full range of punctuation marks

# VOLUME VOLUME POWER SUPPLY TREBLE

Fig.2. Example labels produced using two Brother labellers. Three different sizes of tape have been used (6, 9, and 12mm).

quality rub-on transfers. They also compare quite well with print quality of most laser and inkjet printers. Unlike rub-down transfers, they are quite durable and will withstand quite a lot of wear and tear without the need for any additional protection.

The labels are of the self-adhesive variety, so they are easily fixed to cases and panels. They adhere well to most plastics and metals, and practical experience suggests that they will not start to peel off after a few months or years of indoor use. Most labelling systems require additional protection for use outside, where they will be exposed to the elements.

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#### **Cutting down**

A slight drawback of electronic labellers is they use relatively wide tapes and produce lettering that is often a bit larger than would be ideal. Some of these units are designed for a single tape width, which for the smaller units is either 9 or 12mm. The 9mm type is well suited to most projects, and the actual height of normal text is only about 4mm or so. There is usually an option to print in smaller text.

Many of the more recent labellers (see Fig.3) will accept tapes of several different widths. One that can use 6mm, 9mm, and 12mm tapes is ideal for making labels for projects. Normal lettering on the 6mm type is fractionally less than 3mm high, which makes it just about ideal for small projects. The 9mm tapes are useful when labelling larger projects, and the 12mm type is useful when larger labels are needed, such as when naming a project (e.g. '100W + 100W Amplifier').

The raw labels often have a rather large blank area around the lettering. Consequently, it is often necessary to trim them slightly in order to fit them into position on small projects. The labels on 6mm tapes can be trimmed so that they will fit into quite small spaces. This is rather fiddly, but with due care it can be done with the aid of a sharp modelling knife and a metal ruler. is much easier, but it is still necessary to make sure that the words are properly centred above controls and sockets, and to make sure they are not on a slant.

Electronic labelling machines normally use proportional spacing, which gives neater results but makes it more difficult when determining the centre of a word. For example, on the face of it the centre of the word 'volume' is midway between the 'l' and the 'u'. However, with proportional spacing the 'l' is allotted less space than the other letters in this word, pushing the centre slightly to the right of this.

If you are good at this type of thing you can simply position the labels 'by eye'. Where a more technical approach is preferred, the only sure way to determine the centre of the label is to measure it. Guide lines can then be lightly marked on the panel as an aid to keeping the labels on the level, and to indicate the centre point for each label.

Whenever working on front panel designs it is as well to bear in mind that it is the design that looks the best that is right, and not the one that is mathemati-



Fig.3. This Brother P-Touch 1250 labeller can be used with 6, 9, or 12mm tapes. It is shown with a 6mm tape cartridge

The tapes are available with various colour schemes, but in the present context it is the more conservative ones that are most useful. In particular, black lettering on a white background and the inverse of this should suit any project. Tapes that have black or white lettering on a transparent background are also very useful. Brighter colours are available and can be used on the more zany projects where that type of thing is appropriate.

#### Self-centred

It is probably true to say that labels give slightly less professional results than dry transfer lettering that has been expertly applied directly on to a panel. On the other hand, labels represent a more practical approach with many modern cases.

Contemporary cases often have front panels that cannot be removed, making access to the panel very awkward. This tends to make the one letter at a time approach very tricky indeed. Using labels cally perfect. At times it is best to trust your own judgement and ignore measurements and mathematics. Try to arrange things so that these marks are just covered up when the labels are accurately in place on the panel. This avoids the problem of removing the lines.

#### A bit sticky

The adhesive on tapes from most types of labelling machine is usually quite strong. This has the advantage of giving the labels permanence, but it means that it is not possible to slide them into position once they are even partially stuck to the panel.

It is inevitable that the occasional mistake will be made when positioning labels, and one way of correcting matters is to carefully peel the offending label from the panel and reposition it. Doing this more than once or twice will probably leave the label in an unusable state. This does not really matter too much because making a replacement should only take a few seconds, and the cost of the labels is literally about 'ten a penny'!

When manoeuvring a label into place it is best to place it on the end of the blade of a small screwdriver, or some similar implement. This enables the label to be positioned very accurately, and it also makes it possible to position them in what would otherwise be inaccessible places. It also reduces the risk of touching the adhesive.

With any self-adhesive product it is advisable to avoid touching the adhesive, or to keep any contact to a minimum. Grease from your fingertips can reduce the effectiveness of the adhesive, possibly causing the labels to start peeling off before too long. Having manoeuvred the label precisely into position it can be pressed down onto the panel.

#### Cover up

As pointed out previously, the labels seem to be quite durable and do not normally need to be protected with lacquer or varnish. Choose carefully if you should decide to apply a protective coating. Some varnishes and lacquers will attack the plastic base material of the labels. In fact, some will also attack the plastic used in the construction of some project cases.

With anything like this it is advisable to make a test on a dummy label before progressing to the 'real thing'. With a plastic case, also try some of the lacquer inside the case where it will not matter if it does some slight damage.

While electronic labelling machines are not quite at giveaway prices, they would still seem to be a very worthwhile investment for someone who produces a steady flow of projects. It is still possible to obtain inexpensive labelling machines such as the Dymo Junior, but these use a simple embossing technique to produce the labels. This does not give anything approaching the same quality as that from the electronic labellers. Also, the difference in cost between a mechanical labeller and one of the cheaper electronic units is becoming quite small.

With greater versatility and higher quality results, electronic labellers seem to more than justify their extra cost. It is also worth bearing in mind that both kinds of labeller are useful gadgets that are also suitable for general labelling around the home or office.

# PLEASE TAKE NOTE

#### Low-Cost 50MHz Frequency Meter (Sept '06)

An updated version of the software has now been placed in the Downloads section of our website at **www.epemag.co.uk**. This corrects a bug in the original version.

#### PIC Digital Geiger Counter (Feb '07)

The parts listing for the Capacitors and Resistors is incorrect. Except for preset VR1 (which should be  $100k\Omega$ ), the values shown on the circuit diagram are correct.



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# **Ultra-Regulated LED**

– Constantly Brilliant

HE easiest way of limiting the current through an LED is simply to use a series resistor (see Fig.1). In many situations that is perfectly adequate, particularly if the supply voltage is fairly stable and predictable. The current is simply determined by the voltage across the resistor (which is approximately the supply voltage less the LED voltage of about 2V, depending on type) divided by the resistor's value. If the supply voltage changes (due to a dying battery or poorly regulated supply) then the LED current changes, and so does the LED's brightness.

#### Transistor current sink

Another very common method of regulating the current is to use a single transistor current sink (see Fig.2). The voltage across resistor R1 is kept approximately constant at around 0.6V by the emitter-follower action since the base voltage is about 1.2V, derived from the pair of diodes D1 and D2. The current through the diodes is provided by R2. In this example the current through R1 (and therefore transistor TR1 and the LED) is around 20mA ( $0.6V / 30\Omega = 20mA$ ).

As supply voltage increases, the current through the diode pair increases also, the voltage across them increases slightly (but not a great deal) and thus the voltage across R1 is maintained fairly stable. This in turn provides a fairly stable sink of current through the transistor and the LED.

For sudden changes in supply voltage, due to a poorly regulated supply with a heavy load that has just come on, you can

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still notice brightness variations. This is almost entirely caused by the change in the current through the diode-pair and the resulting small change in the voltage dropped across them.

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#### Enhanced current regulation

We can greatly enhance the regulation by adding just one extra transistor and a resistor (see Fig.3). Here, the voltage across the LED itself is used to regulate the current that



flows through the diode-pair. If the LED voltage is about 2V (fairly typical), the voltage developed across R3 will be around 1.4V, this results in a current through R2 (and therefore TR2 and the diodepair) of about 2mA.

So now the voltage across the diode-pair stays very well regulated, which in turn maintains a very well regulated LED current, which in turns maintains a very well regulated diode-pair current ... ad infinitum.

Note that R3 is required to initiate a small amount of current through the diode-pair at switch on (as there is no voltage across the LED at this moment to cause TR2 to start conducting). Once



Fig.4. Graph showing the comparison between the three simple LED 'current sink' circuits. Note the almost flat performance of Fig.3

current flow is started, the regulation loop takes over and R3 has negligible effect.

A comparison of these three circuits is shown in the graph in Fig.4. Note the almost completely flat performance of circuit Fig. 3, this continues in fact up to any practical voltage you like (taking care of transistor TR1 power dissipation of course).

It takes up quite a few components to light up an LED, but the flat regulation, very low voltage required to get regulation started, and also its low current requirement, makes it more attractive than using voltage regulators or many other IC-based approaches. Jez Siddons, Chapel-en-le-Frith

# Courtesy Light Delay – Politely Into Darkness

UST by chance, I'd already designed the circuit in Fig.5, and then when my *EPE* Feb '07 issue arrived I saw John Clarke's design. My circuit does not have the sophistication of dimming and cannot be switched off by the tail light circuit, but it works well and is easy to install. It fits cars which have the courtesy lights connected to the +12V supply rail and the door switches connected to the car chassis.

#### Circuit

The circuit monitors the voltage at point B, the chassis side of the bulb. When the door is open, point B is at logic level 0. When it is closed, point B rises to logic level 1. This logic level is fed into a monostable based on a 4093 quad NAND Schmitt trigger, formed around IC1.

IClb-IClc form the monostable. ICla is an inverter which ensures that the monostable is triggered by a low to high transition (i.e. when the car door closes). Inverter ICld ensures that it pulses low at the end of the delay period. With the components specified, the delay period is about five seconds. The first car door to close starts the timing period, further doors opening or closing have no effect until the timing period has expired.

TR1 is a power transistor which acts as a switch, supplying power to the courtesy lamps when the doors are open. It will handle a maximum current of 3A. As with John Clarke's design, it bypasses the door switches. As it is always fully on or fully off it should not need a heatsink, but a small one was used 'just in case', though in use the transistor runs perfectly cool.

C1 and C2 are smoothing and decoupling capacitors respectively. The LED D1 was found useful for testing and installing the circuit, but it (and and its load resistor R3) could be omitted.

Although the 4093 and the capacitors are permanently connected to the supply, the quiescent current consumption was barely detectable on the microamp scale of a digital multimeter. A 2A inline fuse was included in the chassis wire as a safety feature, fitted inside the box.

#### Installation

Installation is straightforward – there are just three connections. On my car I found access to the door switches impossible; the easiest access was to the courtesy light itself – the circuit is connected to both sides of the lamp terminals. Point A is connected to the *live* terminal of the lamp. (This can be found by removing the bulb and checking for the live side with a multimeter.)

Point B is connected to the other bulb terminal, and point C is connected to earth, via one of the bolts securing the lamp housing to the chassis for example. A small access hole was made for the wire in the dome lamp cover and the stripboard was mounted in a small project box at the top of the windscreen, behind the rear view mirror. It is quite inconspicuous.

#### Glyn Shaw, Staines, Middx



Fig.5. Circuit diagram for the Courtesy Light Delay. Components to the right of the dashed line represent existing vehicle parts. Vehicle door closed, door switch open – light off. Door open. door switch closed – light on

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Everyday Practical Electronics, May 2007

1



Did you build the SMS Controller published in the March and April 2007 issues? The universal nature of the design means that it can be used in a huge variety of applications. As a result, external interface circuits will sometimes be required. Here are three handy add-ons that we've devised.

OUR THREE ADD-ON circuits for the SMS Controller are as follows: (1) a test jig; (2) a PIR sensor interface; and (3) a low-battery alarm. Let's start with the test jig.

#### Test jig

After suitable message programming, all of the controller's inputs and outputs can be tested with little more than a length of wire and a multimeter. However, if you want to do some serious bench testing, or just want to demonstrate your completed project, a simple test jig with LED indicators can be constructed to make life easier.

As shown in Fig.1, push-button or toggle switches can be connected

between each of the inputs and ground. Closing any switch pulls that input down to a logic low (OV) level. When the switch is opened again, the input returns to a logic high.

On the output side, the LEDs are used to provide a visual indication of the state of each channel. All LEDs are powered from +12V via individual 1k $\Omega$  current-limiting resistors. When any output is programmed to be 'low', the open-collector driver for that channel is switched on, illuminating the respective LED.

#### **PIR sensor interface**

To eliminate the need for a fullblown alarm system, some constructors have asked if it would be possible to connect the output terminals of a PIR sensor (or similar) directly to one of the SMS Controller's digital inputs.

While a typical sensor can be connected directly to the controller, its output will trip many times when an intruder is detected, causing the controller to send multiple messages. A simple solution to this problem is to connect a monostable circuit between the sensor's output and the controller's input.

The circuit shown in Fig.2 provides a 114s (approx.) positive pulse at its output, measured from the time of the last pulse at the input. Additional input pulses that occur within this period retrigger the monostable via transistor Q1, discharging the timing capacitor (C1) and restarting the timer.

The effect is to produce one long positive pulse for the controller, meaning just one alarm message. R1 and C1 can be altered to change the pulse width for your particular application.

The additional circuit in Fig.3 can be inserted ahead of the power supply inputs of the monostable (or any other add-on interface that you devise) to





protect against transient voltages when reliability is important.

Note that the jumper for the associated  $3.3k\Omega$  pull-up resistor on the controller input should be removed, as it is not required when driven from the 555's totem-pole output.

#### Low-battery alarm

Several constructors have requested a low-battery alarm add-on for the SMS Controller. Although a number of circuits would be suitable for this job, perhaps the easiest approach is to modify the Micropower Battery Protector, published in the November 2006 issue of *EPE*.

The original project is designed to disconnect a battery from its load when the terminal voltage drops below a preset value. In this case, we require only the voltage monitoring circuit and can dispense with the MOSFET switch (Q1) and a few other components (see Fig.4).

The circuit is based around the MAX8212 Voltage Monitor (IC1), which compares a scaled-down version of the input voltage (set by R1, R2 and VR1) on the THRESH pin with



an internal 1.15V reference. When the input (battery) voltage is above the preset value, the open-drain output on pin 4 is grounded. Conversely, when the input voltage falls below the preset value, the output goes open circuit.

Although the circuit could be constructed on a prototyping board, the easiest route would be to partly assemble the original Micropower Battery Protector PC board. A matching overlay diagram appears in Fig.5, showing how to populate the PC board for the low-battery alarm function.

The fuse (F1), MOSFET (Q1), 220nF capacitors and Zener diode (ZD3) that were part of the original design are all omitted. Two links are added in place of the fuse and MOSFET and a  $100\Omega$  resistor is substituted for the  $1M\Omega$  value to the left of the existing  $100\Omega$  resistor.

The battery to be monitored connects to the input terminals and the '+' output connects to one of the inputs of the SMS Controller. The jumper for the associated  $3.3k\Omega$ pull-up resistor on the controller input should remain in place, as the low-battery alarm's output is open-drain.

#### Where to get stuff

Copies of the November 2006 issue are available from our back issues department. The PCB is available from the *EPE PCB Service*, code 592. *EPE* 



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Everyday Practical Electronics, May 2007

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Email: john.becker@wimborne.co.uk

John Becker addresses some of the general points readers have raised. Have you anything interesting to say?

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# Carles and

All letters quoted here have previously been replied to directly.

# ★ LETTER OF THE MONTH ★

#### MPLAB

#### Dear EPE,

You invited comments on the request by Michael McLoughlin in *Readout* to adopt MPLAB as a *defacto* standard for projects. At the risk of being a crawler, I agree with your 'wait and see' policy.

Although it is tempting to wish that MPLAB could be the standard to use, and although I use it myself, I can't recommend it as a standard for hobby use. While it is a good product, it is also a complex product, as Michael himself has noticed. Part of this complexity is intrinsic, part of it is an inevitable price to pay for its ability to cope with all Microchip devices, and part of it is the price to pay for 'backwards compatibility' with earlier versions.

It actually has two assemblers: a single file assembler and a multi-file assembler. Although superficially these are similar, and although it is possible to contrive code fragments that can be converted easily from one to the other, for practical programs, a program written for one needs extensive manual rewriting to work with the other.

As anticipated, the single file assembler is relatively simple, and it is tempting to think that this might be suitable for beginners. However, it is probably useful to resist that temptation. It is more like 'mother bear's porridge' than like 'baby bear's porridge'. I found the limitations very conspicuous and very irritating. In particular, I found that many of the more useful features of the simulator work only with the multi-file assembler.

Sadly, the alternative, the multi-file assembler, is still not 'baby bear's porridge'. It is a learning precipice, rather than a learning curve. Part of the problem here is that the hardware architecture of the 12F and 16F PICs is not optimised for relocatable assembly. The assembler includes some features that help, but ultimately, most of the cleverness needed to cope with the irregularities of the architecture must be in the head of the programmer. It is not an accident that the 18F PICs have a much more regular architecture, including some of the hardware extensions needed to cope with relocatable assembly.

In my case, I started with the single file assembler, but as my program grew, I pined for the extra features of the multifile assembler. I needed three tries, spread over about two years, to convert; that is, two failed attempts before the successful one. Now that I have done it, I have a toolkit of macros that minimise the pain and I am unlikely to revert, but it was a huge struggle that I wouldn't want to inflict on anyone else. While it is easy to understand Michael's wish for a 'basic MPLAB', I think this is misguided. If we omit enough to make it 'basic', it isn't MPLAB, and if we include the features that make it MPLAB, then it isn't 'basic'. Athough C seems daunting, in the olden days most programmers learnt a 'complier' language before they learnt assembly language.

I think that more useful ideas include the work Mike Hibbett is doing to introduce us to C, and the PICAXE as used in the recent *Lap Counter* project.

#### Keith Anderson, Tasmania, Australia, via email

Thanks Keith. Mike Hibbett comments on your email:

Some interesting points about MPLAB. I hadn't realised there were two assemblers hidden in there. I'll remember Keith's points when I take a look at the MPLAB tutorial I am working on. I'm hoping that there can be a third way so to speak, using the more complicated assembler in a simpler way.

Quite often – and C is no different – one can set up a simple development framework (which takes a lot of effort to set up) but reusing the framework on new projects is a lot easier. That's the approach I hope to be able to take. Mike Hibbett, via email

#### **EPE Website Problem**

#### Dear EPE,

I have been trying to log on to your web site at **epemag.wimborne.co.uk** but Internet Explorer keeps hitting a problem and shuts down. I eventually tried adding /**shopdoor.htm** and reached your online ordering site which I will use eventually to order some back issues.

The panel with the buttons connected me with every site listed except the home site when Internet Explorer again had a problem and closed down. I have no problem with other sites. Is there a problem with your site?

#### David Allerton, via email

Webmaster Alan replied to David:

The only thing I can think of on the home page is the scrolling Java applet, which appears at the top right of the page. It could be that you have disabled the running of Java (not JavaScript) in your security settings, but I have never known a browser to crash due to that.

I know it's a bit of a nuisance, but it may be worth checking your Java installation, which can be done by visiting Sun Microsystems at www.java.com/en/down load/manual.jsp

Unfortunately, I can't see any other reason for the problem vou outlined but I hope the above is of help.

Alan Winstanley, via email

#### David then responded:

Thanks for the suggestion. I had always assumed I had Java installed! I have now installed it from the Java site and your web page now works.

#### David Allerton, via email

#### Using TK3 with MK2 Board

Dear EPE,

I have been following John's articles and the various versions of the *Toolkit* programmer and hardware for a number of

World Radio History

years. I continue to use the MK2 board with the modification outlined for the *Toolkit TK3*.

I'm running into problems. I'd like to add a new PIC not listed in V3.05. The PIC is the 16F819, very similar to the 16F84. I have created a PIC entry in the 'types' file. However, I can't seem to program the PIC. Can you provide suggestions?

Can the programmer handle PICs not listed, in particular newer lower power PICs like the 16LF819?

#### Ritchie Long, California, via email

Ritchie, it is possible that the 819 requires a different programming algorithm to the F84, just as the F84A and F84 have different algorithms. A number of more recent PICs require different althogrithms, of which there are several. The 18Fxxx series are even more different. I don't know the 819.

Very sorry, but I've gone as far with updating TK3 for different PICs as I wish, and shall not be adding other chips unless I need them. I suggest you may need to move over to a commercial programmer which does handle a wider variety of PICs. Check the Microchip datasheet about programming your device.

#### **PSU for 1W LEDs**

Dear EPE,

I've been looking at the article on the PSU for 1W LEDs (Jan '07). I find the method of reverse battery protection a little crude. Might I suggest the scheme used by the makers of PMRs. In these they use a sacrificially fuse. In the PSU circuit, this fuse would be inserted in the lead from the +VE pin of CON1 and the remainder of the circuit. If a reverse polarity battery were to be connected then the high current through D1 would cause the fuse to blow, thus protecting the whole circuit, including D1.

#### Peter Mitchell, via email

Thank you Peter. Finding and replacing any protection component is always a hassle. Far better to avoid stupidity in the first place. But you can see the problem in this instance, insufficient supply voltage to allow conventional diode protection.

#### **Emergency Lighting**

Dear EPE,

I have an enquiry about which I hope you or someone through *Readout* might be able to give me some advice. It sounds quite simple, but I am not sure of the best approach.

I would like to make up an emergency light for use during a power cut, or where no mains electricity is available. I would like it to be efficient and run from a standard 12V battery. I would like the light to be diffused, like a fluorescent tube or even a filament lamp (but this of course breaks the efficiency requirement), and not a spot light. I would like it to be a reasonable colour, and finally I would like it to be reasonably simple and not too costly to build. This has thrown up a surprising number of questions!

From the simplicity angle, I thought of a cluster of LEDs. However, most of them appear to produce an ice blue colour, which is not really acceptable. Does anybody produce a reasonably priced warmer colour LED? I have read about the Luxion Lumileds, manufactured by Philips, but they appear rather expensive, and I am not sure what sort of beam pattern they produce.

Would an inverter of the *World Lamp* type detailed in *EPE* some time ago, still be my best bet to drive a normal compact fluorescent? This would of course be much heavier and more complex than using LEDs.

#### John Mair, via email

John, I regret this is not an area in which I have expertise. Can any reader help?

#### **Printer Problems**

Dear EPE,

Just a quick email regarding something I saw a little while ago in *Readout*. You were asked a question about which PCB program you used, and I am sure you said that you used an ageing copy of EasyPC Pro. I have a copy of EPCPRO which I bought in about 1990, but have not used for many a year, but would like to use it again. My question is how do you print from the program. The options I have are either a dot matrix printer or a Laser Jet II, neither of which I have access to any more. Is there a program that converts the output to a more modern printer, or is there another way I don't know about?

Really enjoy the magazine – I bought my first copy of *Everyday Electronics* in October 1975 when I was a mechanical draughtsman. What caught my eye was a radio built into a matchbox, which I built. In those days draughtsmen used to wear a long white coat (at least they did in the company I worked for). I used to put the radio in my trousers pocket, with the earpiece going up under my white coat, out of the collar and into my ear. No one could see anything, as my hair was down onto my shoulders – the fashion in those days.

After that I was hooked, and electronics became my hobby. I left the drawing office and retrained as a TV engineer and have worked in electronic/electrical positions ever since. All of that is totally irrelevant to my question, but I thought I'd tell you anyway. Keep up the good work on the PICs – that's what I want to make PCBs for.

#### Richard Sullivan, via email

Interesting you should ask this question right now Richard – I have a similar problem, and have not yet got a satisfactory answer.

My older printers have ceased to give me a decent printout suitable for PCB making in a UV light box and photosensistive PCB board. I still want to use my ancient EasyPC (pre-1990ish – I never used EPCPRO). The two new printers won't take data from EasyPC.

I raised my problem on our Chat Zone only recently (access via www.epe mag.co.uk). It generated a fair bit of info and discussion, but none of it helped me, though there seemed to be some web links given which might help you.

I'm now tempted to give in and maybe switch to another PCB CAD prog, and ignore EasyPC (their later versions I didn't like – too complex and restrictive, including EPCPRO). I've recently asked on the CZ what CAD progs others use and which will print satisfactorily through a modern printer, and which I can download and then use free! But the thought of no longer being able to use my extensive library of symbols horrifies me.

I'll be interested to know if the CZ info helps you, let me know.

#### **EPE Soldering Site**

Dear EPE,

I want to tell you that your soldering site, written by Alan Winstanley, has helped me so much! I am working towards getting my technician's licence in amateur radio in the USA and I had visions of building my own radio. However, I had never soldered before and so I decided to start 'small' with just a siren/LED flashing light project. It was agony to get anything to solder, especially those transistors, but then I decided I had to try to read about the technique of soldering and I found your site. The kit I bought emphasized to clean, clean, clean, but I enjoyed seeing the pictures you had of bad soldering etc. Now with my handy piece of sand paper and cellulose sponge I'm unstoppable! I produced my second kit in a fraction of the time it took me to do the first one. I just might make that radio after all. Of course, I need to study and stop wasting time at the work bench. It's just too much fun! Even my engineer husband is envious of my soldering skills, and he admits to learning a thing or two. Hats off to you and your site!

#### Deborah Dana, via email

#### Alan replied to Deborah,

That's terrific news! I'm glad the guide was of use. Starting with a small project is the best way, not being too ambitious in order to avoid disappointment. Then as your confidence grows you'll soon be soldering with confidence.

You might also be interested in our sister magazine Radio Bygones at www.radioby gones.com.

#### Alan Winstanley, Online Editor

#### **Poor Soldering**

Dear EPE,

I'd like to draw attention to March 2007 page 39, Figure 3b, which shows a very poor example of soldering. This junction is a cold solder joint which is just blobbed solder. Please use examples of good workmanship in the future. Perhaps a tutorial on proper soldering is long overdue.

I offer a tutorial on Hot Air Surface Mount Soldering of SMT devices and would be interested in doing an article for *EPE*. If you would like to see the tutorial I have published on my website, please goto: www.zianet.com/erg/SMT\_Soldering.html.

I look forward to getting the *EPE* magazine each month and I appreciate that you publish it electronically.

Cash Olsen, via email

Editor Mike replied to Cash:

While it does look poor in the photo, it is in fact a good joint and solder has run all around the tag. There is a very good feature on soldering available from our website (access via www.epemag.co.uk).

#### Mike Kenward, Editor

Ian Whiting, via email

#### Free 16F84/628 C Interpreter

Dear EPE,

You might be interested in a new free C interpreter for the PIC 16F84/16F628 **www.the-ace-works.co.nr**. This is, for the user, very similar to the Basic Stamp in that the complexity level is low and that mistakes do not cause crashes. No special hardware is required.

The interpreter executes 5000 lines of ANSI C per second while controlling three servos. It seems to me that this is something which corresponds to the skill level of many of your readers and ties in nicely with your current series about the C language.

Thanks lan



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### Surfing The Internet

# Net Work

# **Alan Winstanley**

#### Failing memories

Last month I described the Sandisk Cruzer Profile, a useful USB memory device that includes a fingerprint scanner. The biometric memory key allows users to log automatically into password-protected web pages (e.g. My eBay) with the swipe of a fingerprint as well as being able to transport the settings to other USB-equipped machines. The logins are safely secured in the biometric-protected memory.

Recently a customer proposed using a cheap USB memory key to store some of her vital electronic files. I advised her that a flash memory device is probably not robust enough for the safe long-term storage of data. As reported last month, a memory key can fail without warning especially if it is a counterfeit that uses low-spec chips, or if it is damaged by static electricity discharge or accidentally due to e.g. spilt coffee, or simply by breaking the thing (or even losing it).

I never cease to be stunned by the lack of rigorous data backup routines used on some computer installations. Imagine the chaos caused when you lose your email or accounts data in a crash. File sizes have grown a thousand-fold in size and volume over the years, and how to store data easily and safely has become an increasing problem. Backup drives have consistently been the most unreliable hardware peripherals I have ever bought: over the past decade my Iomega Zip drives, Iomega Ditto Max Tape drives and at least four Onstream ADR tape backup drives have all failed in use. To cap it all, my external 300GB Maxtor drive recently keeled over as well, taking my archive files with it to 'magnetic heaven'. Sometimes I marvel that I have any valuable data archive material left at all!

The best backup methods work transparently and automatically with little effort needed by lazy users. Today, I use Dantz Retrospect for daily backups to a second hard drive, and periodically use Acronis True Image to take an off-site data backup onto 35GB Iomega REV hard disk cartridges, locked in a fireproof magnetic data storage box. The USB REV drive will boot a broken PC into Linux and allow disk images to be restored from the 35GB disks.

The moral of the story is that as far as critical data is concerned, you should leave nothing to chance and you need to back up your critical backups as well. Remember to store software disks and serial numbers safely too.

#### Remote backups

With the growth of broadband usage, it is increasingly feasible to think about using online storage services to host one's data, images and email database. Even better, a remote backup service will take



Carbonite is a simple to use flat-rate remote backup service offering unlimited disk space for approximately £25 per machine per year.



The status of file and folder backups is denoted with a coloured dot.



care of uploading critical files automatically and allow you to restore them on demand as well.

Some online storage services are free, but without a robust service agreement your data could be deleted without warning (e.g. you fail to access your account within a certain period). Just as with physical backup systems, a good remote backup solution works automatically without the need for constant user intervention. One such system is Carbonite (www.carbonite.com) a convenient, fixed-cost service for Windows XP or Vista only (a Mac version is promised later this year) that they claim will encrypt and store your files on their remote servers safely and securely. It seems to be extremely easy to install and utilise but probably works best on a modern fast machine.

Simply install the Carbonite software and point to the drives, folders or files you wish to be monitored for backing up to the Carbonite servers.

Simple coloured dots on the icons indicate the backup status of selected data folders or files. A yellow dot means 'awaiting backup' and a green dot means it has been backed up.

Windows system and temp files are not backed up unless selected individually. A coloured padlock icon in the system tray indicates the status of backups in progress – queued, done or error. You may need to configure security software (e.g. Norton) to allow the software to upload, and note that Carbonite does not handle scheduled backups, but constantly syncs. backups in the background. Be aware that if you later delete a data file from your PC, the backup is also deleted from Carbonite's servers after a month.

#### Price of restoration

Carbonite allows for the simple restoration of files after a hard disk crash or complete failure of a PC system. After repairing the system, go online and log in to Carbonite using your password (you have backed it up securely haven't you?), and then Carbonite will re-install data at a typical rate of 700MB per hour – about 14 to 18GB per day, depending on your own bandwidth available.

The cost of Carbonite is \$49.95 (£26) per machine per year, and a 15 day free trial is available. The amount of online storage is unlimited. Their online tutorials are commendably clear (if you don't mind the 'Colonel Klink' voice-overs) and are an especially good confidence-boosting introduction for non-experienced computer users. The only caveat is that if you fail to renew your subscription, your data is erased after 30 days, but Carbonite promises to notify you well beforehand. It could be a worthwhile solution for many users, but consider taking a hard copy archive of all your data periodically.

You can email comments or feedback to me at: alan@ epemag.demon.co.uk













Everyday Practical Electronics, May 2007

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