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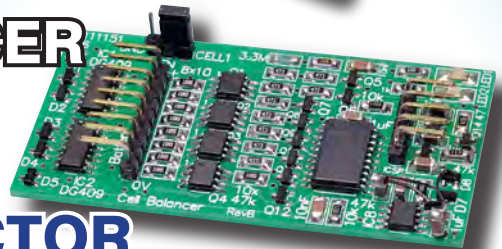
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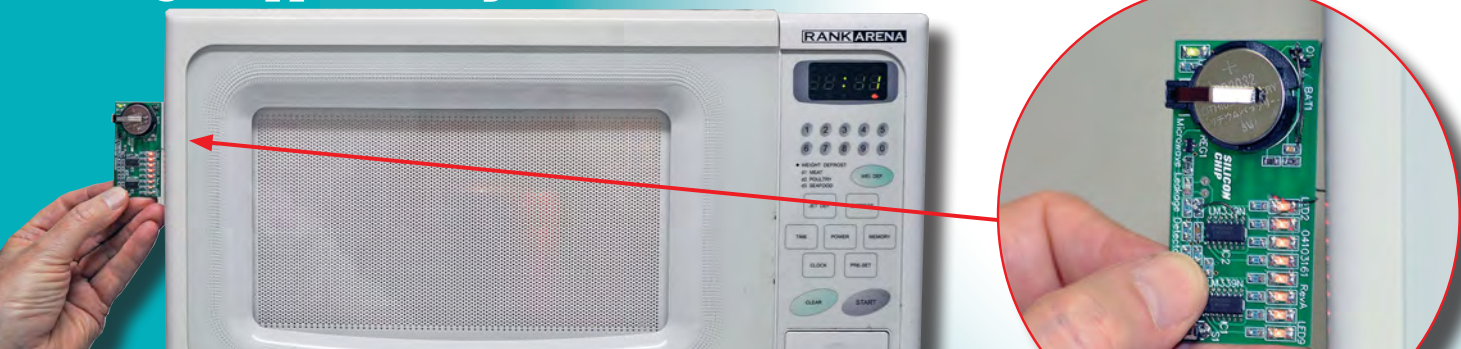
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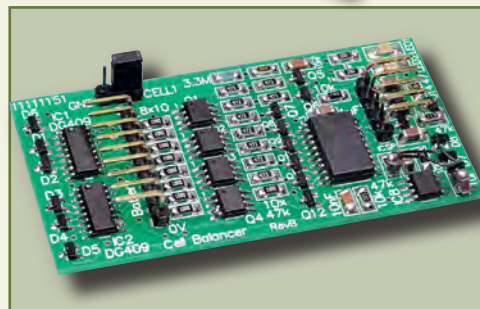


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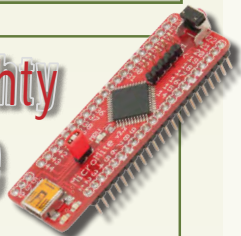
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Meet the mighty Micromite

Part 3: Programming
the Micromite in MMBasic



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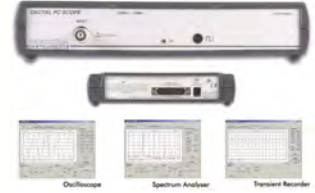
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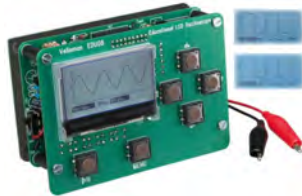
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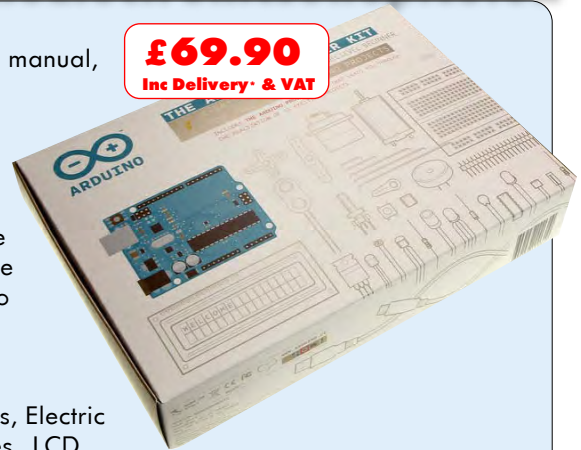
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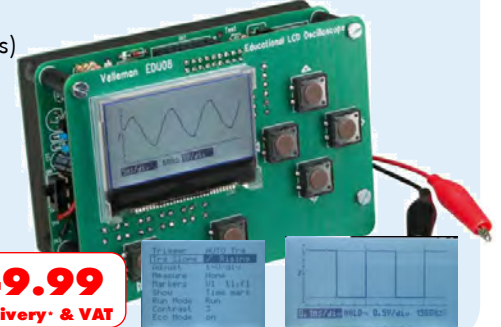
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What will you do with Micromite?

This month, we come to the end of our brief but thorough introduction to the Micromite, a small, but impressive microcontroller that combines the raw processing power of 32-bit PIC technology with the flexibility and ease of use of the BASIC language. However, it's by no means the last that we'll hear from this Australian marvel in *EPE*. Next month, we will add a bespoke touch-screen that greatly increases the device's ability to control, automate and sense the world of electronics and beyond. Further on in the year we will have other exciting projects and 'how to' articles that involve the Micromite, and so my advice is not only to read and enjoy this month's article, but also consider buying this wonderful (and very cheap) device. Experiment, build and have fun with it! And as always, drop us a line and let us know what you have achieved.

Jam tomorrow

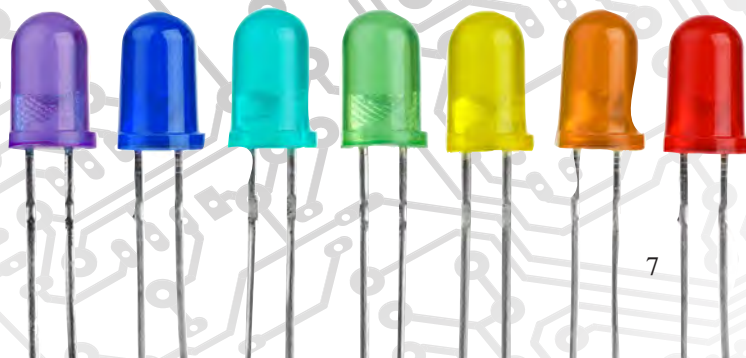
Power – computer processing and electrical, are the two great commodities of the modern era. So it comes as no surprise that two of the biggest engineering-physics projects in the world are the search for near-free power and spectacular computing power – I refer of course to fusion reactors and quantum computing. What do these two quests have in common? They always seem to be just around the corner, but that corner never quite gets reached. Fusion power – where the only fuel you need is a trivial amount of hydrogen (ie, water) – has been actively researched since the 1950s, and while progress has undoubtedly been made, the dream of 'electricity too cheap to meter' remains decades away.

But what of the other great pursuit, what has happened in the world of quantum computing, which proponents claim will revolutionise industry, commerce and science? Well, apparently, it's all happening on my doorstep – literally! Just up the road from where I live (in Brighton) at the University of Sussex, an international team has unveiled the first practical blueprint for how to build a quantum computer. The next stage is the construction of a prototype quantum computer, based on this design at the University. The machine is expected to fill a large building, consisting of sophisticated vacuum apparatus featuring integrated quantum computing silicon microchips that hold individual charged atoms (ions) using electric fields.

Professor Winfried Hensinger, head of the Ion Quantum Technology Group at the University of Sussex, who has been leading this research, said: 'For many years, people said that it was completely impossible to construct an actual quantum computer. With our work we have not only shown that it can be done but now we are delivering a nuts and bolts construction plan to build an actual large-scale machine.' Hensinger discusses his work here: <https://youtu.be/naqHy5MAYXw>

Who knows, perhaps for quantum computing tomorrow is about to arrive. If so, it will be a very exciting time in computing and electronics.

Mick



NEWS

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



RIP Cyanogen, hello simple DIY solar power – report by Barry Fox

Cyanogen, the open-source tweaked version of Google's Android operating system is no more.

Cyanogen was adopted by WileyFox, the British company that sells high-spec 'Swift' smartphones online, at lower cost than similarly specified big-name phones. But Google has been tweaking 'pure' Android and the adoption of Cyanogen slowed, and so development has faltered. This has left WileyFox with the problem of how to provide past, present and future owners of Swift phones with software updates.

CEO Michael Coombes recently revealed his plan. Over the coming months, WileyFox will provide over-the-air updates which convert all its phones to 'pure' Android Version 7, nick-named 'Nougat'. The name Cyanogen will then disappear from WileyFox boot-up screens.

Two-tray option saved

One very important feature of the WileyFox phones will, however, remain; they will continue to have either two SIM card trays or one SIM tray and another tray, which accepts either a SIM or Micro SD card. Both trays are 'unlocked' so will take any network SIM. This gives the owner an instant choice of networks, for instance where reception is better for Vodafone than EE, or when a data plan such as Three's 123 is more appealing than O2's Pay as You Go; or a SIM bought on a foreign trip can be used abroad without preventing the phone from receiving speech calls and texts to the UK number.

Careful and creative SIM juggling can save the user considerable costs – which is why UK networks have always rejected the idea of providing customers with subsidised dual-SIM phones. But WileyFox is now hoping to change the networks' mindset.



WileyFox Cyanogen phones such as the Swift or Storm are migrating to Android 7 (Nougat)

Says Michael Coombes: 'We can, if necessary, electronically lock both the SIM trays to the same network so that users can have two SIMs with different numbers or tariffs. Or we can even physically glue one tray closed, or cover it with tape'.

This could create a whole new world of challenges for hackers – how to re-activate a de-activated second SIM tray.

A brief guide to DIY solar power

For decades, homes in Japan have had solar-powered water heaters on their roofs – water for bathing is circulated through panel pipes to a hot storage tank. Now, solar-electric panels are rapidly replacing those water systems.

In the not-so-sunny UK, homes often have panels that earn some electricity bill credit by feeding power

into the grid. Solar farms – fields of panels – are popping up, especially in the south of England.

In sunny Spain you will see satellite TV dishes on most rural roofs, but very few solar systems. An expert explains: 'The only reason is because the power companies lobby the government to keep the price of the panels prohibitive. Which is madness in a country where daily sunshine is taken for granted'.

So why, when people in Spain are buying UK satellite systems by mail order, for DIY fitting, is the same thing not happening with solar panels? – because there is a widespread lack of basic DIY solar knowledge.

Here then, are a few basics, learned the hard way over several years of practical trial-and-error experimenting with available technology.

Top tips

Feeding 230V AC into the grid is not a DIY project. But storing 12V DC with batteries, and then using the DC to run 12V caravan or boat equipment is affordable, safe and easy. So is up-converting 12V DC to 230V AC (isolated from the grid).

Don't waste money on small panels; buy at least one 20W, 48cm panel or larger, and ideally gang several in parallel. Each panel will chuck out around 20V, which will fry batteries on a sunny day when the current steps up. So a PWM charge controller is essential. The bundled price for panel and controller can now be under £50.

An inverter, which handles a few hundred watts of 12V DC-to-230V AC can now be had for under £30. This is more than enough juice to run a modern TV, PC, eco-lamp or LED light. Often, the inverter will now include a 5V USB socket for charging phones.

A brief guide to DIY solar power *continued*

The charge controller and inverter will usually not be waterproof, so it needs weather protection.

Don't mess with lithium batteries unless you really know what you are doing; they are expensive and likely to explode if the charge rate is not just right. NiCad batteries lose their ability to hold a charge. So stick with tried and tested, good old-fashioned lead-acid technology. Sealed gel cells are compact, but cost more for less capacity and (in my experience) are more likely to fail.

Unless size is an issue, go for war-horse car batteries, which are designed for rough treatment. It's hard to think of rougher treatment than sitting next to a hot petrol engine and delivering huge currents to a starter motor in the freezing cold. Several lead acids can be ganged in parallel to increase storage capacity.

Often, car owners have to change their battery in the winter because cold-starting gets sluggish when the engine oil thickens. The discarded

battery may still be good enough for solar storage where there is no need for sudden current surges, and the cells are being continually topped up during the day.

So, if a friend needs to replace a car battery, ask to keep the old one. Or ask a friendly garage if they have some serviceable throw-outs they will sell for a few quid. But check each battery separately for charge-holding before parallel-ganging, because one bad battery will drag down the rest.

...and finally

Last, but not least, if you really get the solar power bug and want to move on from plain vanilla panels and lead-acid batteries, *EPE* often carries advanced solar power projects that will enable you to safely and economically use modern battery technology such as lithium-ion, lithium-polymer or LiFePO_4 (see this month and February/March 2017).

Breakthrough radiator



A doctor waves a hand-held scanner over your body and gets high-resolution images of your internal organs and tissues. Using the same device, the physician then sends gigabytes of data instantly to a remote server and just as rapidly receives information to make a diagnosis. Researchers at the University of California, Irvine (UCI) have created a silicon-based component that could make this possible.

Known as a 'radiator,' the tiny gadget emits millimetre-wave signals (110 to 300GHz). Waves of this frequency easily penetrate solid surfaces and provide extremely sharp resolution, enabling new, more effective methods of biomedical and security scanning and imaging. The device can also perform a key role in point-to-point wireless communication.

The UCI invention performs three crucial functions: it combines power from multiple amplifiers; it modulates that signal to a desired frequency setting; and it radiates it out in waves that are used to see, sense or communicate. Plus, by making a single device that provides a multitude of operations, all the interstage, inefficient systems found in other radiators have been eliminated.

The device is an octagonal semiconductor chip with a unique cavity structure that allows for the emission of circularly polarised radiation. Most transmitters generate linearly polarised signals, which can get 'lost' when antennas and receivers are out of alignment. Emissions from one of the UCI radiators, if you could see them, would appear as tiny spinning tornados. Beams of this shape are particularly effective at penetrating solid objects and providing detailed pictures of what's inside.

The invention will be particularly beneficial in biomedical applications, but the new radiator can do a lot more than facilitate scanning and imaging. It could be the key that unlocks millimetre-wave transmission as part of the fifth-generation wireless standard now in development. In addition, the tiny-yet-powerful device can be embedded virtually anywhere, supporting the Internet of things, which relies heavily on machines, buildings and other infrastructure being equipped with sensors and antennae.

MeArm Pi – Raspberry-Pi-controlled robot arm

The MeArm Pi Kit is a build-it-yourself robot arm that's controlled by a Raspberry Pi. It includes a standard Pi HAT that attaches to your Raspberry Pi and has a couple of on-board joysticks to control it. Because it's connected to the Pi you can program it through any of the various programming languages that already run on the Pi. There's also free software available which lets you program it through a web interface using drag and drop programming

environments like Scratch and Blockly, or with Python and Javascript for the more experienced.

Further details from Mime Industries at: <https://mime.co.uk>



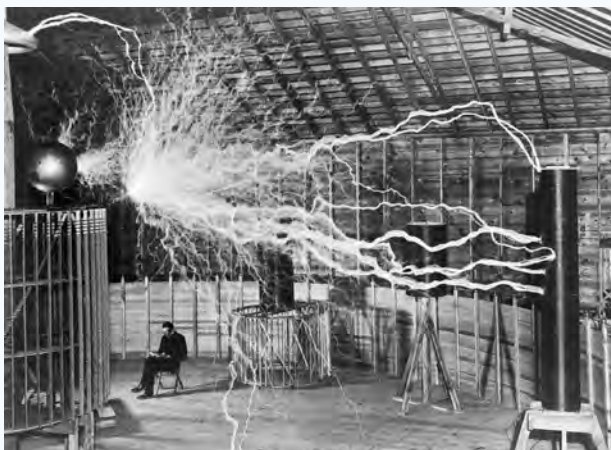
Electricity: The spark of life

If you are in London before 25 June then do consider visiting the Wellcome Collection on the Euston

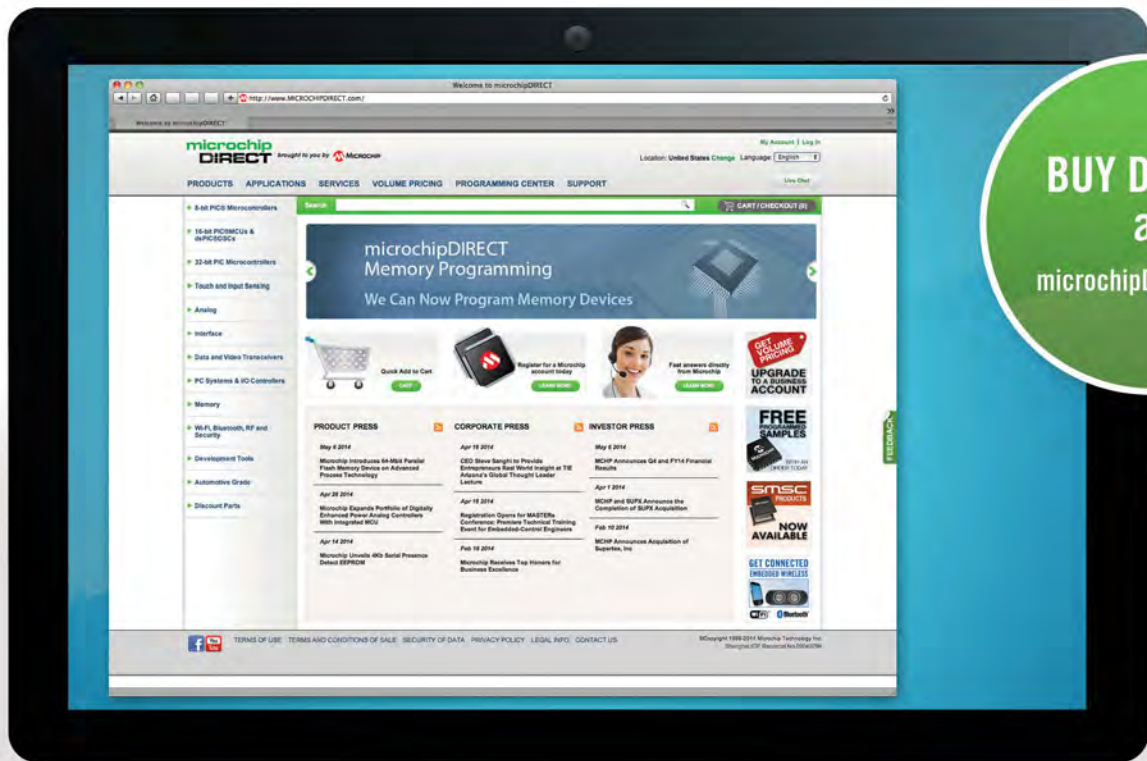
Road for its imaginative exhibition on electricity. As the guide explains, 'From the structure of the atom to the function of our brains, an electric charge is hidden within every object on earth. *Electricity: The spark of life* will trace the story of mankind's quest to understand, unlock and master the power of electricity.'

For further details: <https://wellcomecollection.org/electricity>

Nikola Tesla in his lab, 1901 (Wellcome library, London)



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Zero value – but not valueless!

Have you encountered zero-ohm resistors yet? If they strike you as the daftest thing yet, this article may change your mind. And what about electric petrol? It's the latest innovation and might save Britain fortunes on imported fuel.

'RETARDED DEVELOPMENT' IS MY middle name, so it may come as no surprise that it was only last year that I first encountered zero-ohm resistors. If they have not yet appeared on your particular planet, let me assure you that they do actually exist and have a very real function in everyday practical electronicery. Just enter the term into eBay and you will find the top two hits show the two main types of this device, one looking like a normal 0.25W resistor and the other in the form of a standard surface-mount 'chip' resistor.

No joke

First off, these little critters are not an April Fool's joke and have been used for decades, hidden in plain sight and looking like other resistors. Usually, they are employed as an alternative to a wire link or 'strap' and being of a consistent size, they can be placed by robot assembly machines. They have many advantages, as the Web reveals. Often, they are used on single-layer boards for connections that cannot be routed on copper due to density. In other cases, 0Ω resistors are used as factory switches, when the same PCB board can be equipped in several variants, and particular connections must exist in each variant. A simple way of making 115V and 230V versions of the same power supply board could be to place a 0Ω resistor either at one place or another to route the line voltage to different windings on the transformer. The 0Ω resistors could be connected to different pins on, for example, a microcontroller, to pull pins high or low. When it reads which pins are pulled high and low, it sets up different parameters in the software. Or you could provide an optional filter circuit, with a 0Ω resistor for bypassing the filter, sending the signal another way. This is much cheaper than making separate, differing PCBs.

Deeply devious

Another use is for a test point. You can remove the zero-ohm resistor and apply a signal generator, then replace it. But they also have more strategic uses. On the *EE Times* 'Planet Analog'

website, Bill Schweber recalls a cunning plan. It was standard practice at some firms to put these devices at various places on the PCBs to confuse anyone trying to reverse-engineer the design from a physical unit. In fact, to make this reverse-engineering task more difficult, the 0Ω components had no



markings, and were special-ordered in a variety of different colours, so it would appear that they were different devices.

Electric petrol

They used to call crude oil 'black gold', but the talk now is of 'white petroleum' alias 'electric petrol'. Yes, this is another 'fossil' fuel that you dig up from the ground and as with crude oil, its resources are intrinsically finite. But electric petrol is renewable, if you stretch the point. Well, rechargeable at least, but I had better stop talking in riddles.

In fact, we are talking about lithium, that peculiar metal that is as soft as cheese, lighter than any other metal and also the least dense solid element. For many years, most people would give you a puzzled look if you mentioned its name and folk would recognise it only as a 'chemical cosh' used for treating bipolar illness, schizoaffective disorders and major depression. Then along came mobile phones and the need for smaller batteries that could hold their charge longer than a single day. In 1991, the Sony Corporation released the first commercial lithium-ion battery in partnership with Asahi Kasei. 20 years later, lithium-ion batteries managed to account for two thirds of all portable rechargeable battery sales in Japan.

Time to hit the road

So what's the attraction of lithium-based batteries? Basically, the low atomic mass of lithium endows it

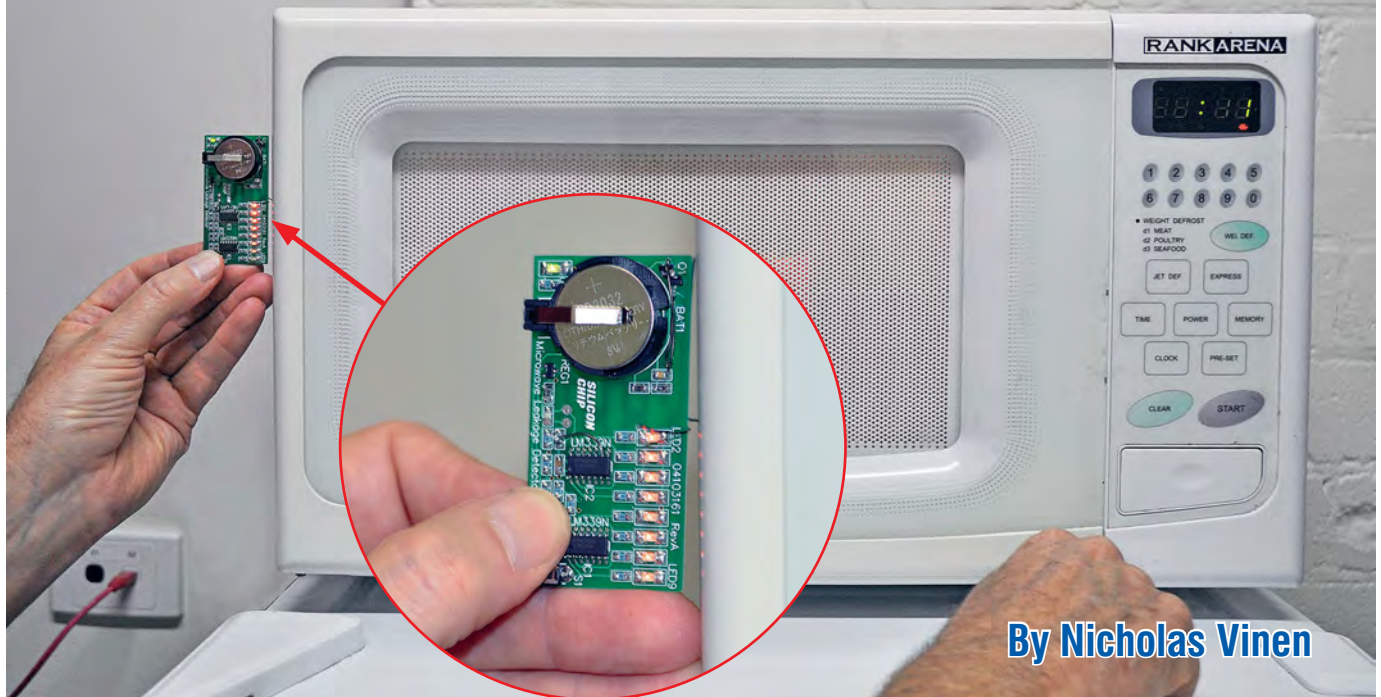
with extremely high charge-to-weight and power-to-weight ratios. Up to now, most of these batteries have been used in consumer electronics, but now their use is increasing rapidly in cars, motorcycles, heavy vehicles and off-road equipment. Proponents cite up to 80 per cent weight saving, an ability to charge and discharge at high currents, recharging times of five minutes and a minimum of five years' service life, rising to ten years depending on use. Car giant Volkswagen is quoted as wanting up to 25 per cent of its sales to be electric vehicles by 2025. The switch towards electric cars across the world is expected to cause the market for lithium to quadruple to £70 billion by 2020, assuring strategic importance to the metal.

Currently, most lithium is produced in South America, Australia and China, but in January a British company by the name of 'Cornish Lithium' announced plans to extract the metal at locations across Cornwall where it is known to exist. Chief executive Jeremy Wrathall stated: 'We believe the potential benefits of developing a lithium industry in Cornwall will be significant for the county and for the UK as a whole. This is a hugely exciting opportunity to put Cornwall back on the map as a mining centre, as well as develop a new industry in the UK.'

Eco-friendly

Mining lithium comes at a cost, although it is considered less hazardous than other kinds of mineral extraction. At some locations it is carried to the surface in the leachate (liquid) of geothermal wells, and as long ago as 1864 high levels of lithium were detected in water flowing into Cornwall's now abandoned tin mines. This geothermal energy raises the possibility of harvesting environment-friendly power as a by-product of the lithium extraction process, tilting the nett environmental impacts potentially positive. Let's hope the availability of home-harvested lithium brings down the price of car batteries to make electric cars as cheap as chips. We will see.

Is your microwave oven safe?



By Nicholas Vinen

... don't get zapped – test it with our Microwave Leakage Detector!

Just because your microwave oven still looks shiny and new does not mean it is safe. It could be leaking lots of microwave energy, potentially putting you at risk of being zapped. Now you can easily test it with our tiny *Microwave Leakage Tester*. As a bonus, it will also test Wi-Fi access point activity.

DO YOU SLAM the door of your microwave oven after you've used it? Of course you do! Everyone does! That repeated slamming can damage the integrity of the mesh inside the glass door, so that as time goes by the shielding becomes less effective, allowing some microwave radiation to leak out around the edges.

In particularly bad cases, enough RF could leak out to cause injury. Since RF energy is invisible, the question becomes how do you know whether your microwave oven is still safe?

Basically, you need to run our *Microwave Leakage Detector* around the edges of the door while the oven

is operating, to check that it's safe. The level of microwave leakage (field strength) is indicated with an 8-LED bargraph. As the microwave oven is operating (and the turntable is rotating), you will see a surprising variation in leakage as you run the *Microwave Leakage Detector* around the door edges.

The detector is powered by a lithium button cell with low drain and no standby current. This unit can also be used to check whether 2.4GHz transmitters, such as those in Wi-Fi routers, are active. If the Detector is held up to the base station antenna, its LEDs will flicker in response to network activity

and the number of LEDs lit will indicate the transmission power level.

Operation

A *Microwave Leakage Detector* is a type of AM radio receiver tuned for signals around 2.5GHz, with an indicator of the RF field strength. Because we're mainly concerned with indicating the presence of fields and whether they are above a certain hazard power threshold, we don't need a very complex circuit. Issues such as distortion, bandwidth, linearity and so on are not important.

The basic principle of this detector is based on an article published in the

July 1979 issue of *Electronics Today International (ETI)*. A dipole antenna is formed from two collinear tracks on the PCB, with each track's length being one-quarter of the wavelength for 2.5GHz signals (12cm). A 'hot-carrier' Schottky barrier detector diode is used to detect the signal and its output is filtered by a 220pF ceramic capacitor.

Two low-value inductors, comprising zig-zag tracks on the PCB, connect the detector diode to the filter capacitor. These prevent the capacitor's low impedance from excessively loading the dipole and also enhance the filtering operation of the capacitor at microwave frequencies.

The original *ETI* project used a tiny moving-coil analogue meter (as used in squillions of tape recorders in those days) to display the received signal strength. This had the advantage of making the device entirely passive, ie, the received RF energy operated the meter and thus no battery was required.

However, while this was cheap and simple in those times, it would now result in a fairly bulky and moderately expensive unit, with the meter costing around £10 today. Our new design can be built for less than that in its entirety.

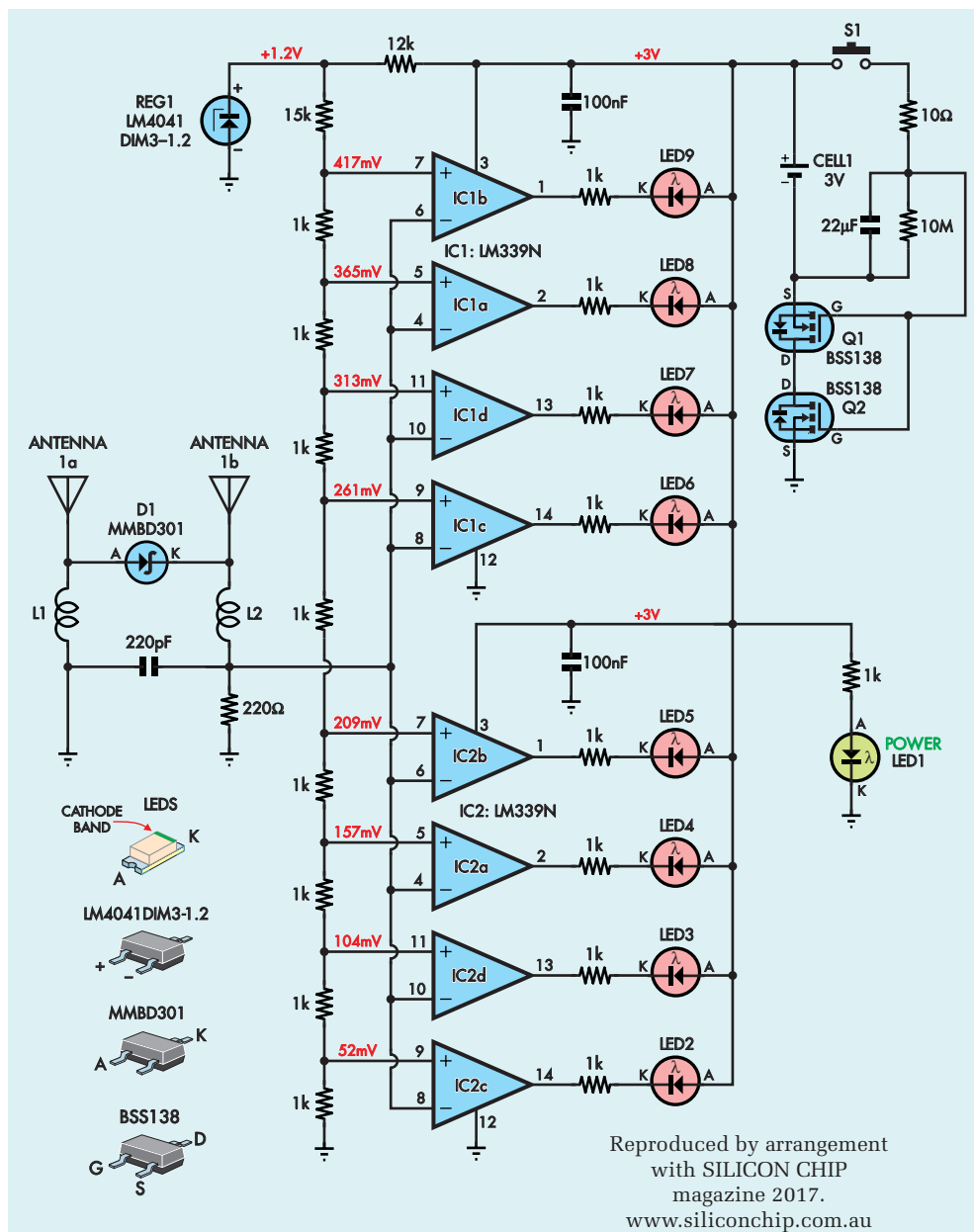
Instead of an analogue meter, we're using an 8-LED bargraph driven by two quad comparators, powered by the CR2032 lithium button cell.

Since you're only going to use this tester for a few minutes now and then, the button cell should last for years. The SMD parts used are compact and relatively inexpensive. The LEDs respond very quickly so you can easily see if the field is steady or pulsed and they're bright and easy to see, even at arm's length.

Having said that, if you wanted to, you could simply fit the detector diode, filter capacitor and loading resistor and measure the voltage developed across it with a multimeter (available for a fiver). It's up to you; this is the cheapest and simplest option, but of course it will be somewhat more awkward to use.

Circuit description

The complete circuit is shown in Fig.1. The dipole antenna is shown at left, connected to either end of the MMBD301 UHF diode. This then feeds the 220pF filter capacitor via low-value inductors L1 and L2. One end of the filter capacitor is grounded, while



MICROWAVE LEAKAGE DETECTOR

Fig.1: the Microwave Leakage Detector circuit. The dipole consisting of antennas 1a and 1b picks up ~2.5GHz radiation and this is rectified by D1 and filtered by L1, L2 and the 220pF capacitor. The voltage developed across the 220Ω load resistor is indicated by an LED bargraph consisting of red LEDs2-9 which are driven by quad comparators IC1 and IC2. The whole unit is powered from a 3V lithium button cell and switched on (for a minute or two at a time) by pressing switch S1.

the other is loaded with a 220Ω resistor. The voltage developed across this resistor depends on the microwave field strength.

This voltage is fed to the inverting inputs of eight comparator stages, based on two LM339 quad comparators, which are cheap and will run from a 3V supply. The non-inverting inputs are connected to a resistor ladder which provides a series of linearly increasing

voltages to each subsequent comparator stage. These are derived from a 1.2V reference voltage from REG1, which is reduced to around 417mV by a 15kΩ resistor, in combination with the 8kΩ resistance of the ladder.

If the voltage across the 220Ω load resistor is above 52mV, the output of IC2c will go low, pulling current through LED2 (the lowest red LED) and its 1kΩ current-limiting resistor. This

Constructional Project

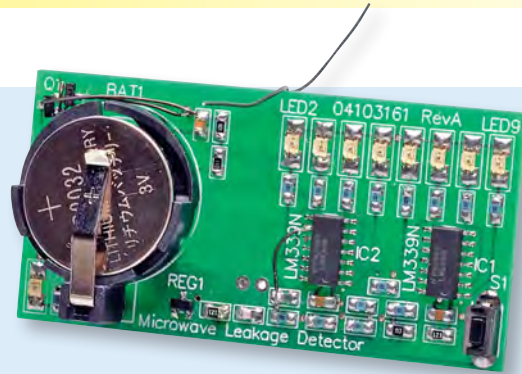
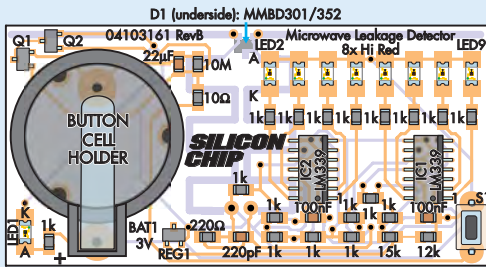


Fig.2: follow this PCB layout diagram and photo to build the *Microwave Leakage Detector*. All parts except for detector diode D1 go on the top of the board and most are SMDs, the exceptions being BAT1 and S1. The dipole antenna is on the bottom layer and is visible along the top of the board, as are the two zig-zag tracks that form the inductors below it. During construction, watch the orientation of IC1, IC2 and LEDs1-9. (Note: photo shows prototype board).

WARNING

DO NOT PUT THIS DETECTOR INSIDE A MICROWAVE OVEN AND TURN IT ON. IT WILL BE DESTROYED IMMEDIATELY!

You may think that this is a silly warning but we understand that Dick Smith Electronics had a number of similar kits returned in a rather melted condition because people had done just that!

resistor sets the LED current to around 1mA, sufficient for a high-brightness SMD LED to be quite visible. Similarly, if the voltage goes above 104mV, LED3 also lights, and so on. Above 417mV, all eight red LEDs (LED2-LED9) will be lit.

LED1 is on whenever the circuit is powered and similarly draws around 1mA. IC1 and IC2 together draw around 1mA, for a total quiescent current of around 2.4mA and a maximum current draw of just over 10mA, with all LEDs lit.

REG1 is a shunt regulator (like a zener diode) and is fed from the 3V battery via a 12kΩ resistor, which sets the nominal current level to $(3V - 1.2V) \div 12k\Omega = 150\mu A$. The current through the ladder is $1.2V \div (15k\Omega + 8k\Omega) = 52\mu A$. That leaves around 100μA of bias current for REG1; the minimum specified for proper operation is 60μA. This means the circuit should work OK even if the cell voltage has dropped to 2.55V (which would make it quite flat).

The remaining components protect against a reversed battery and provide the power switch-on and auto-off timer. MOSFETs Q1 and Q2 are connected

back-to-back (ie, in inverse series) so that they will block current flow from the battery regardless of its polarity.

With correct battery polarity, when switch S1 is pressed, the 22μF capacitor charges to a positive voltage via the 10Ω resistor and this brings the gates of Q1 and Q2 high, switching them on and powering the circuit. The 22μF capacitor is slowly discharged by its 10MΩ parallel resistor and once its voltage falls below the on-threshold of Q1 and Q2 (around 1.25V), the circuit shuts down. LED1 dims and eventually goes out.

If the battery is inserted backwards, pressing S1 simply pulls the gates of Q1 and Q2 negative with regards to their source terminals, which only serves to switch them off harder, so nothing should be damaged; the circuit simply won't operate.

To calibrate the circuit, we simply adjusted the value of the 220Ω load resistor until a full-scale reading was reached with fields just strong enough to set off the alarm on a commercial microwave leakage detector that we purchased.

Construction

The *Microwave Leakage Detector* is built on a double-sided PCB available from the *EPE PCB Service*, coded 04103161 and measuring 64 × 32mm. Most parts are surface-mount type and all but one are fitted on the top side of the board. The exceptions are the battery holder and power switch (both through-hole parts) and the RF diode (D1) which is soldered on the underside. Refer to the PCB overlay diagram, Fig.2, during assembly.

Start by fitting the SMDs on the top side, beginning with the two ICs. Note that these are oriented with pin 1 towards the bottom of the board. Pin 1 is

normally indicated with a divot or dot in the corner of the part, but if there is no such marking, then you will instead need to identify the side of the package with the bevelled edge. Pin 1 is on that side.

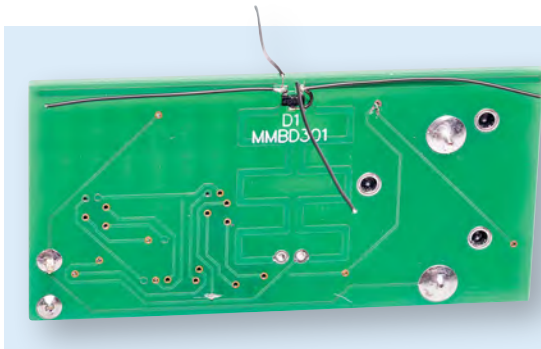
Melt a little solder onto one of the IC pads, then slide the IC into place while heating that solder. Check its orientation and pad alignment. If both are good, solder the diagonally opposite pin. Otherwise, re-heat the initial joint and nudge the part into place.

Finally, solder all the remaining pins and don't forget to add a little solder or flux to refresh the initial joint. If any of the pins are bridged with solder, clean them up with some solder wick. A small dab of flux paste will help this process.

Next, solder REG1, Q1 and Q2 in place. These are in more or less identical packages (SOT-23) so don't get them mixed up. Use a similar technique as for IC1 and IC2. Then fit the four ceramic capacitors. These are in 2 × 1.2mm (2012/imperial 0805) packages with no markings. The same basic technique as described above will work for these too.

Follow with the resistors, which are similar in size to the capacitors but have their value printed on top in tiny text. You will need a magnifying glass to read it.

The nine LEDs are next; eight red and one green (LED1). These are in larger packages at around 3.2 × 1.6mm. Use a DMM set on diode test mode to determine which end is the cathode – when the LED lights up, the black probe is connected to the cathode. Solder the LEDs with this end towards the 'K' on the PCB. Note that LED1's cathode faces towards the top of the PCB while LED2-LED9 are soldered with their cathodes facing the bottom.



The dipole antenna etched into the PCB works well but you can improve the sensitivity by soldering four 30mm lengths of wire to the pads on either side of D1, as shown here. Keep the wires straight; ours got a little bent during photography.

Now you can flip the PCB over and fit D1 before fitting the final two components, BAT1 and S1, on the top side.

Testing

Insert the CR2032 cell into the holder, with the positive side up. Press S1 and check that green LED1 lights up. It should stay lit for a minute or so, then dim and eventually go out. Red LEDs LED2-LED9 should remain off. If they switch on, either there is something wrong with the circuit or you are in a rather strong microwave field and should probably move!

Most constructors will have access to a Wi-Fi router of some sort and this is the easiest way to test the device, especially if you have the type with one or more external stub or whip antennas. With the unit switched on, hold it up alongside one of the router's antennas with its on-board dipole aligned with the antenna.

Assuming there is some network activity (and there usually will be, if only because the router is broadcasting its SSID), you should see some of LED2-LED9 light up and flicker as the router transmits bursts of data. Depending on how close you're holding the device, some bursts may be strong enough to light up all eight LEDs while others may result in just a few LEDs lighting. Bursts that light up all LEDs aren't necessarily hazardous as they will be quite brief, so the total radiated energy should be low.

Rotate the unit and note how quickly its sensitivity drops if it is not aligned with the radiated field. This is why, when checking a microwave oven, you will need to rotate the device as you move it around the oven.

Improving the antenna

While the dipole etched into the PCB works, we found that by soldering four 30mm lengths of thin, stiff insulated wire to the pads on either side of D1, the detector can be made less

sensitive to antenna orientation. Basically, two of the pieces of wire are soldered directly in parallel to the PCB tracks while the other two are perpendicular, sticking out the front and back of the board (see photo).

We used Kynar but you could also use 'bell wire', which is a light-duty solid copper core insulated wire that was historically used for telephones. Make sure that it can't short to anything – you may need to insulate the ends with some thin heatshrink or a dab of silicone sealant.

It's still a good idea to hold the board so that one dipole or the other is in the assumed field direction. However, even if it's not quite perfectly aligned, you're more likely to get a reading with this arrangement.

This does make fitting heatshrink tubing over the PCB somewhat more tricky but it can still be done. You would need to solder the two parallel antenna wires, fit the tubing, shrink it down, then cut a couple of small holes and solder the perpendicular wires in place.

It may seem odd soldering antennas in parallel with the PCB tracks that act as antennas, but it's important because the impedance of the PCB tracks is much higher than the thin, circular cross-section wire. So the wire antennas will dominate the response unless they are fitted in pairs as described.

Using it

Pressing S1 switches the unit on for 1-2 minutes. You can hold down S1 or press it regularly to keep the unit on while you are using it. It will then switch off by itself.

The LED bargraph indicates the voltage generated across a 220Ω load resistor, in roughly 50mV steps. Thus the segments correspond roughly to received power levels of 11μW, 45μW, 100μW, 180μW, 284μW, 410μW, 556μW and 727μW. The danger level is generally considered to be 5mW/cm²;

Parts List

- 1 double-sided PCB, available from the *EPE PCB Service*, coded 04103161, 64 × 32mm
- 1 20mm button cell holder, through-hole (BAT1)
- 1 CR2032 cell (BAT1)
- 1 micro SPST tactile pushbutton switch (S1)
- 1 80mm length of 30mm-diameter clear heatshrink tubing (optional)
- 4 30mm lengths thin, stiff insulated wire (optional) (antenna for improved signal pick-up)

Semiconductors

- 2 LM339, LM239, LM2901 or LM3302 quad comparators, 3.9mm wide SOIC-14 (IC1,IC2)
- 1 LM4041DYM3-1.2 micropower 1.2V shunt regulator, SOT-23 (REG1)
- 2 BSS138 logic-level N-channel MOSFETs, SOT-23 (Q1,Q2)
- 1 green high-brightness LED, SMD 3216/1206 (LED1)
- 8 red high-brightness LEDs, SMD 3216/1206 (LED2-LED9)
- 1 MMBD301 single or MMBD352 dual Schottky hot-carrier diode (D1)

Capacitors (all SMD 2012/0805)

- 1 22μF 6.3V X5R
- 2 100nF 50V X7R
- 1 220pF 50V C0G/NP0

Resistors (all 1% SMD 2012/0805)

- 1 10MΩ 17 1kΩ
- 1 15kΩ 1 220Ω
- 1 12kΩ 1 10Ω

cm²; however, we need to determine how effectively our unit picks up the radiation in order to calibrate the bargraph response.

We compared the response of the bargraph against a commercial microwave leakage detector and found that, with the 220Ω load resistor, a full-scale reading (ie, all eight red LEDs lit) corresponded pretty closely to 5mW/cm² (the legal limit, above which it is considered hazardous) on the commercial detector. This assumes the dipole is in alignment with the field, which we determined by rotating the detector for maximum response.

Constructional Project

Operate the oven

The oven needs to be operating in order to check for leaks, but it's a bad idea to operate a microwave with nothing in it. Simply fill a bowl or mug with cold water and microwave this for a few minutes while testing, then tip the water out. Take care as it may be very hot; it's best to put in enough water to avoid it boiling during the test period.

So, if you want to check that your microwave is safe, start heating some water at full power, then switch the detector on and move it around the outside of the door – both the front face and around the sides. Also check around the edges of the window.

It's best to hold it such that the dipole is facing across the edge of the door. In other words, when holding it at the front of the oven, point the dipole at the centre of the door and when holding it at the sides, align the dipole so that it is pointing to the back of the oven.

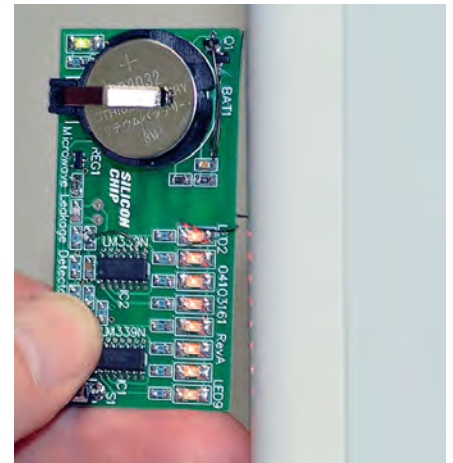
Note that because the contents of the oven are normally on a rotating tray, the leakage field will change over

time, as the contents will interact with the field. That means you will need to move the detector slowly and pause if you get a reading to see what it will peak at, at that location. Doing multiple sweeps is also a good idea.

Antenna distance

Generally, keep the antenna around 50mm from the oven as you sweep. But while this is the specified distance for the legal limit, the relatively long wavelength of microwave radiation (~12cm) means it's possible that the field strength could actually be higher further away from the oven, due to constructive and destructive interference. So a second sweep at a somewhat greater distance would not hurt.

If you want to use the detector to sense 2.4GHz radio signals, it's simply a matter of holding it as close to the radiating antenna as you can and rotating it until you get a response. Note that while it's quite effective at picking up Wi-Fi router transmissions, at the low power levels generated by battery-powered Wi-Fi devices, mobile



The microwave oven is checked while it is operating by moving the *Microwave Leak Detector* around the edge of the door and the edge of the viewing window. If all eight bargraph LEDs light then there is excessive leakage and the oven can be considered hazardous. Note: this is closer than you would normally hold it.

phones and other 3G/4G devices, you may have difficulty picking up enough energy to light the LEDs.

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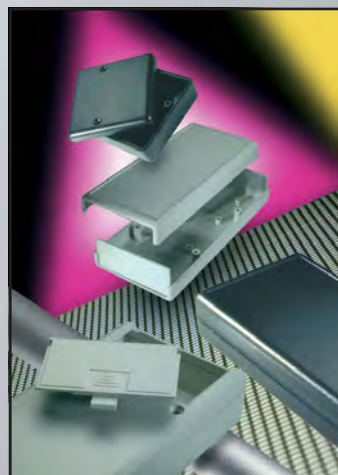


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EVERYDAY PRACTICAL ELECTRONICS is offering its readers the chance to win a Microchip BM64 Bluetooth Audio Evaluation Board (BM-64-EVB-C2).

This board enables easy development with Microchip's new IS206X family of SoC devices and modules, which offer Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE) capability. Uniquely engineered for speakers, headsets and gaming headphones, the IS206X flash-based platform offers flexibility and powerful design features, allowing audio manufacturers to easily incorporate wireless connectivity in streaming music and voice-command applications.

The BM64 Bluetooth Audio Evaluation enables the user to evaluate and demonstrate the functionality of the BM64 Class 2 stereo audio module. The BM-64-EVB-C2 includes an integrated configuration and programming interface for plug-and-play capability, and also has status LEDs which enable rapid prototyping and faster time to market.

Along with the BM-64-EVB-C2, software tools and applications are provided to demonstrate the Bluetooth connections to the on-board BM64 stereo audio module and to optionally configure or program it. Microchip's highly-integrated module solutions are self-contained, low-power, and fully-certified for designers seeking to develop wearable or IoT devices without any Bluetooth Low Energy IP Stack or RF experience.

The BM64 EVB has two USB ports that can be connected to the host PC using a micro-USB cable. Other BM64 Bluetooth Audio Evaluation Board features include:

- Based on the fully-certified Bluetooth 4.2 BM64 Class 2 stereo audio module
- Powered by a PC host using a micro-USB cable or by connecting a Li-Ion battery
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- Stereo audio output for high-quality audio
- Easy access to I/O pins
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Arduino Multifunction 24-Bit Measuring Shield

Here's a low-cost PC-linked measuring system project which provides four accurate DC voltage measurement ranges, together with an audio frequency level and power meter, plus an optional RF level and power meter that can operate to 500MHz.

WANT TO accurately measure voltages, decibels and power levels using an Arduino? This design combines a 4-range, 24-bit DC voltmeter with both audio frequency and RF level and power meters. The audio meter can measure up to 60V RMS (up to 900W into a 4 Ω load) while the RF section will measure up to 1kW into a 50 Ω load, with a frequency range extending up to around 500MHz.

Apart from the RF measurement head, everything fits into a small die-cast aluminium box (119 × 94 × 57mm) which is hooked up to a PC via USB. No separate power supply is required. The RF Head is tiny; just 51 × 51 × 32mm and connects to the main box via a standard 3.5-to-3.5mm tip/ring/sleeve (TRS) (or stereo phono jack) cable.

The unit is designed to be controlled from a Windows PC (the software is

for Windows 7 or later) but you could also write your own Arduino 'sketch' to suit other measurement tasks.

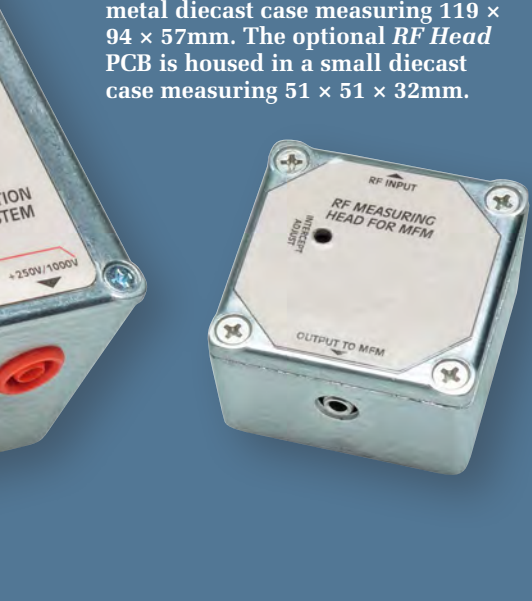
In short, this is a seriously useful and accurate test instrument that can be built at moderate cost. Refer to the specification panel for more details.

What's inside the box

Fig.1 on the facing page shows a simplified block diagram of the *Multifunction*

Part 1: By Jim Rowe

The *MFM* shield PCB is housed in a metal diecast case measuring 119 × 94 × 57mm. The optional *RF Head* PCB is housed in a small diecast case measuring 51 × 51 × 32mm.



Meter (MFM). At its heart is an Arduino Uno or compatible (eg, Freetronics Eleven or Duinotech Classic). This is shown at upper right and it controls the rest of the circuitry, including the USB link to the PC. The USB cable also provides 5V DC to power all of the meter's circuitry.

Coupled closely to the Arduino is the digital sampling 'engine' shown to its left. This comprises a Linear Technology LTC2400 24-bit precision ADC (analogue-to-digital converter), together with an LT1019ACS8-2.5V precision voltage reference. This combination forms a high-resolution, high accuracy digital DC voltmeter with a basic range of 0-2.5V, a resolution of 150nV (nanovolts!) and a basic accuracy of around ±0.06% (ie, ±1.5mV).

The LTC2400 is a very impressive device. It comes in an SO-8 SMD package, uses delta-sigma conversion technology and connects to the Arduino via a flexible 3-wire interface compatible with SPI and Microwire communication protocols. Other nice features include a built-in pin-selectable notch filter providing better than

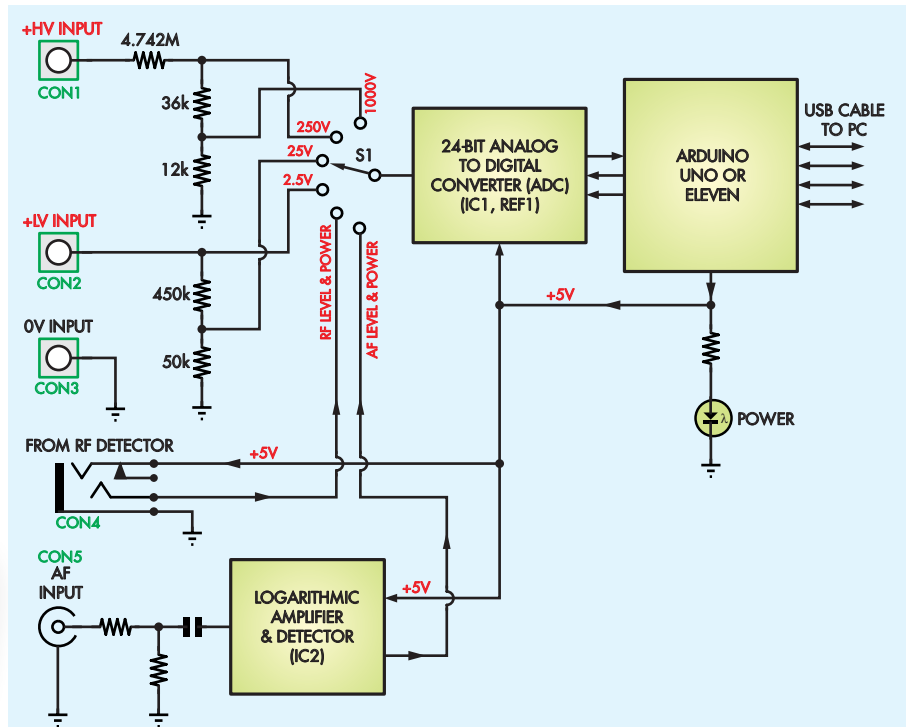
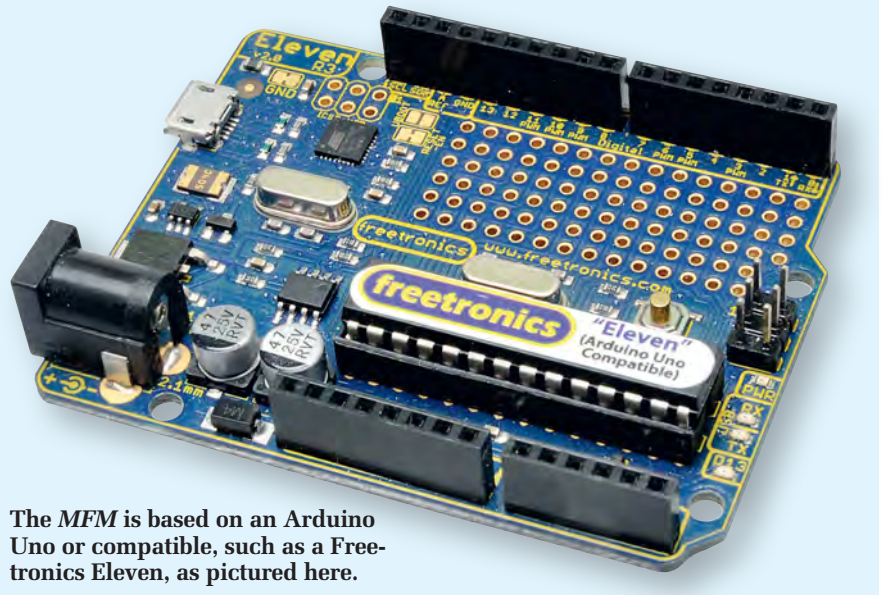


Fig.1: a simplified schematic showing the general operating principle of the *Multifunction Meter*. There are four inputs: low and high-voltage DC, audio level/power and RF level/power. S1 connects these inputs to a high-precision analogue-to-digital converter (ADC) which is controlled by the Arduino. This in turn passes the measured values on to the PC for logging or display. IC2 provides AC-to-DC conversion for audio signals, while an identical chip mounted off-board (but configured differently) feeds in RF level and power measurements via jack CON4.



The *MFM* is based on an Arduino Uno or compatible, such as a Freetronics Eleven, as pictured here.

110dB rejection at either 50Hz or 60Hz (ie, to reject mains hum fields), very low offset and noise, and a low supply current of only 200µA. It operates from a single 2.7-5.5V supply.

Range switch S1 controls the connections between the ADC and the various inputs and has six positions. Four of these are for the DC voltage ranges,

while the remaining two are used for the *Audio Level & Power* and the *RF Level & Power* ranges respectively.

In the third position of S1, the +LV input connector CON2 is connected directly to the input of the ADC, giving a measurement range of 0-2.5V. In the next position, the ADC is connected via a 10:1 voltage divider, giving a

Features and specifications

- **Description:** A PC-linked digital measurement system combining the functions of an accurate DC voltmeter, an audio level and power meter and an RF level and power meter. PC link is via USB with an adjustable sampling rate. The application software allows saving data in CSV format for later loading, plotting or analysis.
- **Power supply:** All power comes from the host PC. Draws less than 65mA from the USB port (<325mW @ 5V).

DC Voltmeter

- **Four ranges:** 0-2.5V, 0-25V, 0-250V and 0-1000V.
- **Resolution:** 24 bits (1 part in 16,777,216) corresponding to 150nV, 1.5 μ V, 15 μ V and 60 μ V for each range.
- **Basic accuracy:** approximately $\pm 0.06\%$ on 2.5V range (± 1.5 mV), $\pm 0.5\%$ on higher ranges (± 125 mV, ± 1.25 V and ± 5 V respectively).
- **Input resistance:** 500k Ω on the 2.5V and 25V ranges, 4.79M Ω on the 250V and 1000V ranges.

Audio Level & Power Meter

- **Input range:** 4.2mV RMS (-37.5dBV) to 60V RMS (+35.5dBV) (83dB range)
- **Frequency response:** from below 20Hz to above 200kHz.
- **Input resistance:** 60k Ω .
- **Power readout:** watts, dBm and dBV for load impedances of 600 Ω , 75 Ω , 50 Ω , 32 Ω , 16 Ω , 8 Ω , 6 Ω , 4 Ω or 2 Ω .
- **Maximum readings:**
 - 600 Ω : 6W, +37.8dBm
 - 75 Ω : 48W, +46.8dBm
 - 50 Ω : 72W, +48.6dBm
 - 32 Ω : 112.5W, +50.5dBm
 - 16 Ω : 225W, +53.5dBm
 - 8 Ω : 450W, +56.5dBm
 - 6 Ω : 600W, +57.8dBm
 - 4 Ω : 900W, +59.5dBm
 - 2 Ω : 1800W, +62.5dBm

Front panel artwork

Artwork for the two labels can be downloaded from the *EPE* website as a PDF file.

Print these out (or photocopy Fig.6), then laminate them in clear plastic for protection and then finally attach them using thin double-sided tape.

RF Level & Power Meter

- **Input range:** 15.8mV RMS (-36dBV) to 223.6V RMS (+47dBV) (83dB range)
- **Frequency response:** approximately 10kHz to 500MHz.
- **Input resistance:** 101k Ω .
- **Power readout:** watts, dBm and dBV for load impedances of 75 Ω or 50 Ω (600 Ω , 32 Ω , 16 Ω , 8 Ω , 6 Ω , 4 Ω and 2 Ω modes also available).
- **Maximum power readings:**
 - 75 Ω : 667W, +58.2dBm
 - 50 Ω : 1000W, +60.0dBm
- **Minimum readings:**
 - 75 Ω : 3.33 μ W, -24.8dBm
 - 50 Ω : 4.99 μ W, -23.0dBm

The first position of S1 is used for the *Audio Level & Power* function, with the signal fed into a separate BNC input socket. Signal processing is performed by IC2, an Analog Devices AD8307ARZ logarithmic amplifier/detector device, which uses a progressive compression/successive detection technique to provide a dynamic range of more than 88dB with a linearity of ± 0.3 dB, at all frequencies between 20Hz and 100MHz.

In effect, the AD8307 is a wideband AC-to-DC converter with a logarithmic transfer function. It converts AC signals to a DC output voltage which varies from 0.25V to 2.5V, with a nominal slope of 25mV/dB. This can be adjusted via external components, as we shall see shortly.

Finally, the second position of switch S1 connects the ADC input to the tip of CON4, which interfaces with the *RF Detector Head*. We haven't included this circuitry in Fig.1, but it will be covered below. It's based on another AD8307 logarithmic amplifier detector, but with a different configuration, to allow it to operate at frequencies up to about 500MHz.

Circuit description

Fig.2 shows the full circuit diagram for the *Multifunction Meter's* main 'shield' PCB, ie, everything apart from the Arduino itself and the *RF Head*. The Arduino interface is via the SIL header pins shown on the right-hand side of the circuit, while the RF level and power measurement head connects via CON4 at centre left. More on this shortly.

Fig.2 includes the LTC2400 24-bit ADC (IC1) and LT1019ACS8-2.5 2.5V reference (REF1) which were both mentioned previously. Pin 3 of IC1 is the analog input (V_{IN}), with Schottky diodes D1 and D2 providing input over-voltage protection, in conjunction with a 1.5k Ω series resistor.

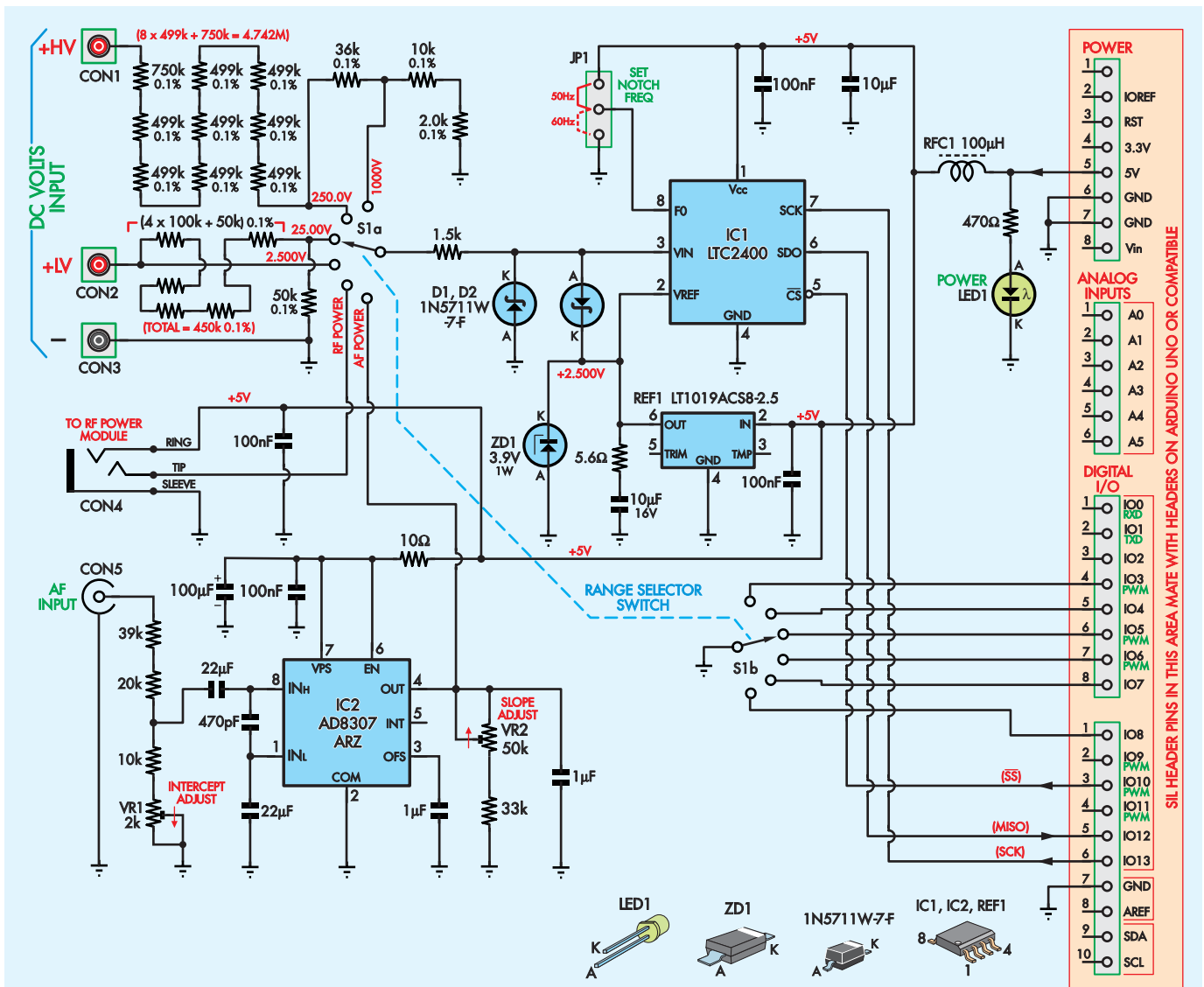
The 2.5V reference from REF1 is fed to pin 2 of IC1 (V_{REF}), while ZD1 and the series RC circuit between this pin and ground both reduce any noise present in the output of REF1 and limit any voltage rise of the 2.5V reference output due to accidental input voltage overload.

Pin 8 of IC1 is used to set its internal notch filter to either 50Hz or 60Hz, by connecting it to +5V or ground via JP1. Pins 5, 6 and 7 of IC1 form the SPI serial interface connecting it to the Arduino.

measurement range of 0-25V. In either case, the load impedance is 500k Ω .

In the fifth / sixth positions of S1, the ADC input is connected to the +HV input at CON1 via a 2-step voltage divider

giving a division ratio of 100:1 for the fifth position and 400:1 for the sixth position. This gives two further DC voltage ranges of 0-250V and 0-1000V respectively.



ARDUINO MULTIFUNCTION 24-BIT MEASURING SHIELD

Fig.2: the full circuit diagram for the *MFM* shield (the optional RF power head and the components on the Arduino PCB are not shown). The input switching and attenuation circuitry is shown at upper left, while the 24-bit ADC (IC1) and associated components is at upper right. The audio level and power measurement circuitry is based on IC2 at lower left, while the Arduino interface headers are on the righthand side of the circuit.

Pin 5 is the 'slave select' (enable) input, while pin 7 is the serial clock (SCK) input. Sample data emerges from pin 6, the serial data output (SDO), which connects to the MISO (master in/slave out) serial input of the Arduino, via digital I/O pin 5 (IO12).

Fig.2 also shows a second pole for range switch S1 (S1b). This allows the Arduino to monitor which range the user has selected. Each position goes to a different digital input on the Arduino (pins IO3-IO8), while the rotor is grounded. These inputs have internal pull-up resistors so the firmware can tell the position of S1b (and thus S1a) by sensing which pin is pulled to ground.

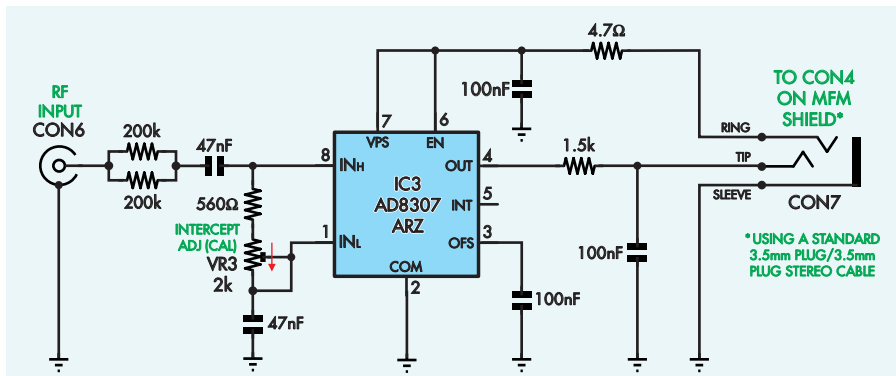
The audio level and power meter circuitry is shown at lower left in Fig.2. As noted previously, this is based around IC2, an AD8307 logarithmic amplifier/detector. Its DC output voltage at pin 4 rises by a maximum of 25mV per decibel increase in the input AC voltage, which is applied between pins 8 and 1.

The 25mV/dB slope can be easily reduced by connecting an external load resistance, and this is the purpose of trimpot VR2 (50kΩ) and the 33kΩ series resistor. With VR2 adjusted to give a total of 50kΩ, IC2's output slope drops to 20mV/dB.

The audio input from CON5 is fed to pin 8 (IN_H) via a 60:1 resistive

voltage divider and a 22μF capacitor, while pin 1 (IN_L) is connected to ground via another 22μF capacitor. Note that while the IN_H and IN_L pin names imply polarity, they are in fact interchangeable.

In determining the resistor values in the divider, we must consider the 1.1kΩ input resistance of the AD8307. So when trimpot VR1 in the lower leg of the nominal divider is set to 1kΩ (ie, to mid-range), the external lower leg resistance is 11kΩ, giving an effective lower leg resistance of 11kΩ // 1.1kΩ = 1.0kΩ. In conjunction with the upper leg resistance of 59kΩ, this gives the required 60:1 ratio.



RF HEAD FOR ARDUINO MFM SHIELD

Fig.3: the optional *RF Head* circuit. Note the similarity to the audio level and power measurement circuitry in Fig.2; the main difference being that various component values and placements have been changed to expand the bandwidth out to 500MHz. 5V power comes from the main board via the ring connection of CON7, while the measurement output goes to the tip.

As a result, this section produces an output of 2.5V DC for an audio input of 60V RMS, falling at a rate of 20mV per dB, down to around 840mV DC with an input of 4.26mV RMS. That results in a measurement range from +35.5dBV to -47.5dBV, for signal frequencies from below 20Hz to above 200kHz.

You might wonder why VR1 is labelled 'Intercept Adjust'. This is because by adjusting the input divider ratio, it controls the input

level that corresponds with 0V output from IC2.

The 470pF capacitor connected between input pins 8 and 1 of IC2 is there to attenuate input frequencies above about 300kHz. This is necessary because the AD8307 can respond to frequencies up to above 500MHz, which would result in the circuit being affected by RF interference. The 1μF capacitor between IC2's output pin 4 and ground acts as a noise filter,

while the 1μF capacitor bypassing pin 3 (OFS) has a similar function.

The 5V DC rail that powers all these ICs comes from the PC's USB port, via the Arduino. Inductor RFC1 provides some RF filtering in case any unwanted signals have been picked up by the wiring. LED1, in conjunction with a 470Ω current-limiting resistor provides power indication.

RF input head

The RF input section is housed in a second smaller metal box and connects to CON4 on the main PCB via a 3.5mm 'stereo' cable. Fig.3 shows the circuit of this section and again, it's based on an AD8307 logarithmic amplifier/detector (IC3), with a changed configuration to make it suitable for measuring RF signals up to about 500MHz. We put it in a separate metal box, to prevent any RF radiation from affecting the operation of the rest of the circuit.

In this case, the input divider values provide a nominal division ratio of 158:1, while the output from pin 4 has no external resistance to ground, giving a nominal slope of 25mV/dB. As a result, the *RF Head* provides a 2.5V DC output for an RF input of 223V RMS, corresponding to 1000W into 50Ω or 666.6W into 75Ω. The minimum input voltage level is lower than

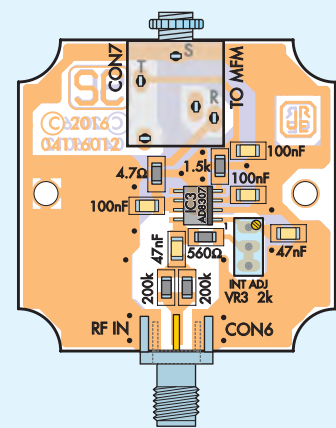
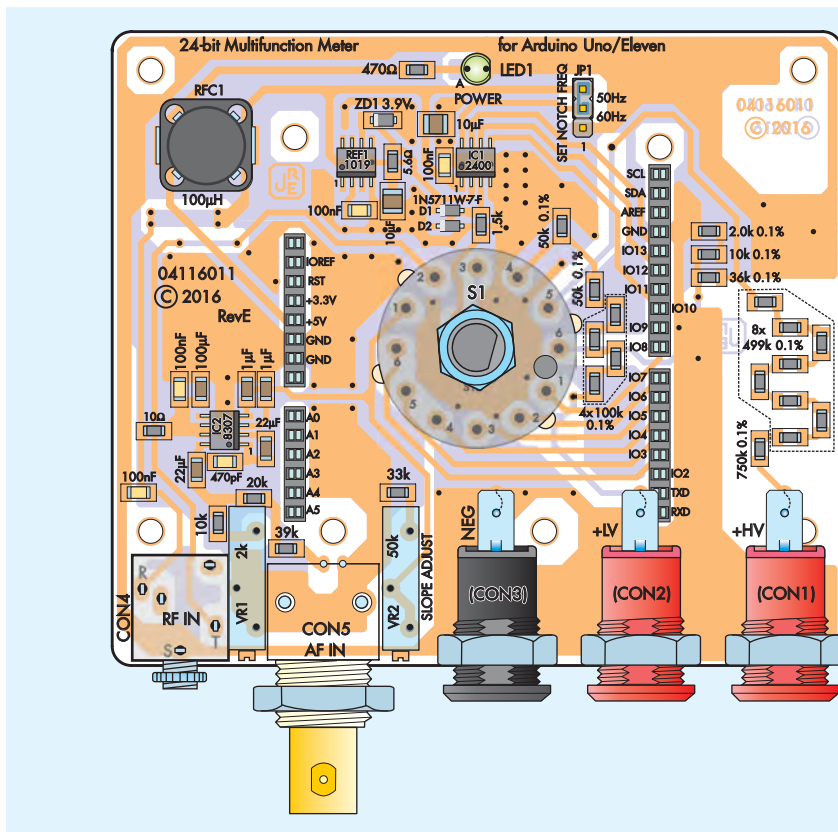


Fig.4: follow these two parts layout diagrams to build the *MFM shield* and *RF Head* PCBs. All parts are mounted on the top side of each board, while CON1-CON3 are chassis-mounted and connect to the *MFM shield* PCB via short lengths of tinned copper wire. Be sure to fit the SMD components first before moving on to the through-hole types.

7.07mV RMS, corresponding to $1\mu\text{W}$ into 50Ω or $0.66\mu\text{W}$ into 75Ω .

The *RF Head* receives its +5V DC power from the main *MFM* shield, via the same cable used to carry the output from IC3 back to CON4.

Construction

Most of the parts of the *MFM* are mounted on a single $96 \times 83\text{mm}$ 'shield' PCB, available from the *EPE PCB Service* (code 04116011) which plugs directly into the Arduino PCB via SIL pin headers. Range switch S1 is at the centre of the shield PCB, while the RF and AF input connectors are at lower left. The complete assembly fits into a diecast box, along with three panel-mount DC input sockets (CON1-CON3) which are mounted just above the shield PCB.

All parts for the *RF Head* are fitted on a second PCB also available from the *EPE PCB Service* (code 04116012) which measures $42 \times 41\text{mm}$. This slips into a smaller diecast box (see photos). Use Fig.4 as a guide to assemble both boards. All components mount on the top sides of the boards.

Begin by fitting the SMD resistors, taking care not to overheat the 0.1% types. Follow with all of the SMD capacitors, which are not polarised.

Next, mount the diodes (D1, D2 and ZD1) on the main PCB, then IC3 on the

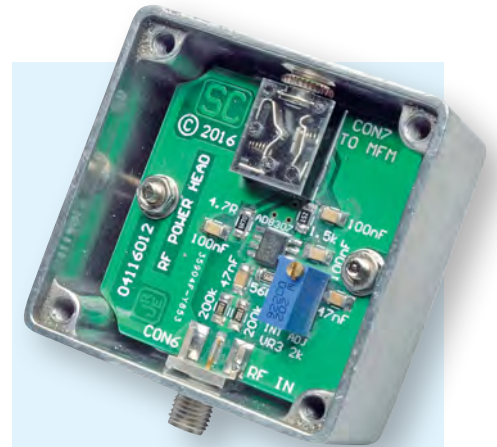
RF Head and IC2, REF1 and IC1 on the main PCB, preferably in that order. Finally, fit inductor RFC1. After that, only the through-hole parts are left.

Install the trimpots, taking care not to get VR1 and VR2 mixed up. BNC socket CON5 can then be fitted, followed by 3.5mm stereo socket CON4. Then fit the four SIL headers used to make the interconnections between the *MFM* shield and the Arduino. As you can see from the photos, these mount on the top of the *MFM* shield PCB, with their pins soldered to the pads underneath.

Take care to use the minimum solder necessary to make a reliable joint, as the main length of each pin needs to be free from solder, flux and dirt in order to make good contact with the matching clips in each Arduino SIL socket.

With the headers all in place, fit the 3-pin SIL header for JP1 at upper right. Then pass 20mm lengths of 0.75mm tinned copper through the three holes at lower-right on the main PCB, soldering them to the pad underneath. These will later be soldered to DC input connectors CON1-CON3. Alternatively, you can use cut-down IC socket pins as shown in the photo below, but soldered connections may be more reliable.

Rotary switch S1 can now go in, after first having its spindle cut to around 17mm long (remove any swarf with a



The *RF Head* PCB fits inside a metal diecast case measuring just $51 \times 51 \times 32\text{mm}$. It's mounted on 12mm spacers, as shown in Fig.5.

small file or hobby knife). Make sure it's oriented correctly, with the plastic post on the right side, as shown in Fig.4, so the knob will go on the correct way around.

The shield PCB can now be completed by fitting LED1. This is mounted at top/rear centre with its leads at their full length so that the underside of the LED's body is 24mm above the top of the PCB (use a cardboard spacer).

To finish the *RF Head* PCB, fit SMA input socket CON6 to the bottom edge of the PCB and 3.5mm socket CON7 at the top. The SMA socket is 'edge mounted', with the PCB passing through its side slots and its centre pin resting on the central rectangular pad on the top of the PCB. Solder this pin to that pad, then solder the earthy 'side bars' to the matching copper pads on both the top and bottom of the PCB.

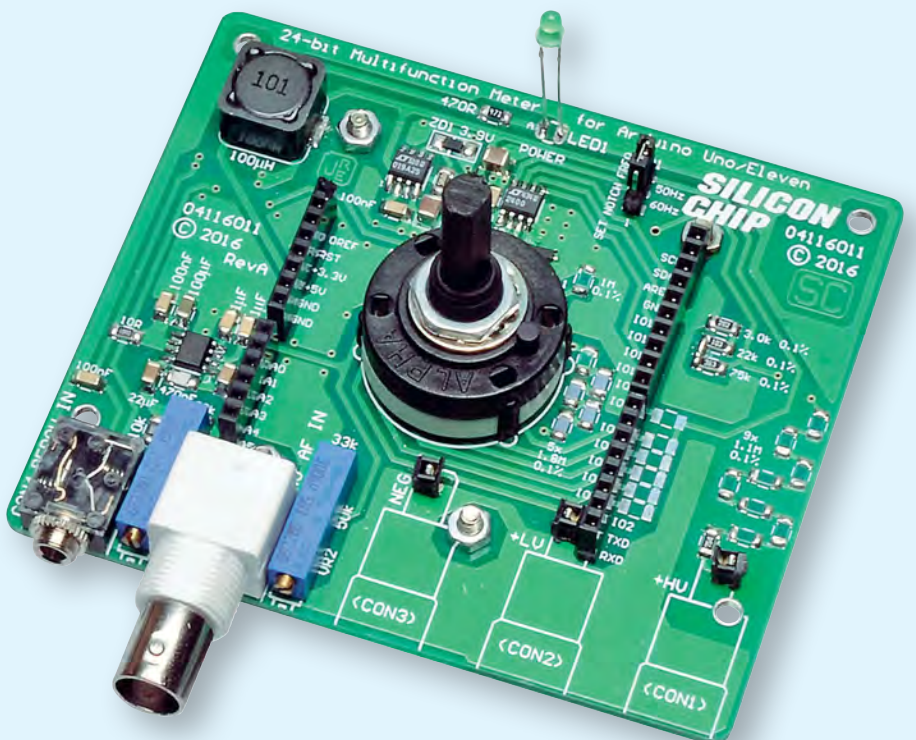
Both of your *MFM* boards should now be complete and ready to be mounted in the two boxes. We will describe how to do that next, but we recommend you go through the test procedure (to be described in Part 2) first, before mounting it in the box.

Preparing the boxes

The drilling and cutting details for both boxes can be downloaded from the *EPE* website. There are 11 holes to drill in the main case, plus one rectangular cut-out, and seven holes in the *RF Head* case.

Note that the rectangular cut-out is sized to suit a USB type B plug, as required by the Arduino Uno or Duinotech Classic. You could get away with making a smaller cut-out for the micro-USB input on a Freertronics Eleven.

Once all the holes and cut-outs have been made, remove any burrs from the



This view shows the fully-assembled PCB. We used cut-down IC socket pins to accept the tinned copper wire leads from CON1-CON3.

Parts List

- 1 double-sided PCB, 96 × 83mm, code 04116011. Available from the *EPE PCB Service*
- 1 diecast aluminium box, 119 × 94 × 57mm
- 1 lid panel label, 103 × 84.5mm
- 1 Arduino Uno, Freetronics Eleven or Duinotech Uno module
- 1 USB cable to suit Arduino module
- 1 2-pole 6-position rotary switch, PCB mounting (S1)
- 1 instrument knob, 24mm diameter
- 1 100µH SMD RF inductor
- 1 3-pin SIL header with jumper shunt (JP1)
- 2 red panel-mount banana sockets, fully insulated (CON1-CON2)
- 1 black panel-mount banana socket, fully insulated (CON3)
- 1 3.5mm stereo switched jack socket (CON4)
- 1 PCB-mount BNC socket (CON5)
- 1 2kΩ multi-turn horizontal trimpot (VR1)
- 1 50kΩ multi-turn horizontal trimpot (VR2)
- 1 set Arduino male/female headers
- 4 M3 × 25mm tapped spacers
- 8 M3 × 6mm machine screws
- 4 4.5mm OD, 12mm-long untapped spacers
- 4 M3 × 20mm machine screws
- 4 M3 hex nuts
- 4 stick-on rubber feet
- 1 14-pin DIL socket (for CON1-3)

Semiconductors

- 1 LTC2400CS8#PBF 24-bit ADC, SOIC-8 (IC1)
- 1 AD8307ARZ logarithmic amplifier/detector, SOIC-8 (IC2)
- 1 LT1019ACS8-2.5#PBF precision 2.5V reference, SOIC-8 (REF1)
- 1 3.9V 1W zener diode, SC-109B (ZD1)
- 1 3mm green LED (LED1)
- 2 1N5711W-7-F Schottky diodes, SOD-123 (D1,D2)

Capacitors (all 1206 SMD)

- 1 100µF 6.3V X5R
- 2 22µF 10V X5R

- 2 10µF 16V X5R
- 2 1µF 16V X7R
- 4 100nF 16V X7R
- 1 470pF 100V C0G/NP0

Resistors (0.25W 1206 SMD)

- | | |
|--------------|--------------|
| 1 750kΩ 0.1% | 1 10kΩ 1% |
| 8 499kΩ 0.1% | 1 10kΩ 0.1% |
| 4 100kΩ 0.1% | 1 2.0kΩ 0.1% |
| 2 50kΩ 0.1% | 1 1.5kΩ 1% |
| 1 39kΩ 1% | 1 470Ω 1% |
| 1 36kΩ 0.1% | 1 10Ω 1% |
| 1 33kΩ 1% | 1 5.6Ω 1% |
| 1 20kΩ 1% | |

RF Head (optional)

- 1 double-sided PCB, Available from the *EPE PCB Service*, coded 04116012, 42 × 41mm
- 1 AD8307ARZ logarithmic amplifier/detector, SOIC-8 package (IC3)
- 1 diecast aluminium box, 51 × 51 × 32mm
- 1 front panel label, 45.5 × 45.5mm
- 1 PCB edge-mount SMA socket (CON6)
- 1 3.5mm stereo switched jack socket (CON7)
- 1 2kΩ multi-turn vertical trimpot (VR3)
- 2 12mm × 4.5mm OD untapped spacers
- 2 M3 × 20mm machine screws
- 2 M3 hex nuts
- 1 3.5mm stereo jack to 3.5mm stereo jack cable, length to suit user requirements
- 4 stick-on rubber feet

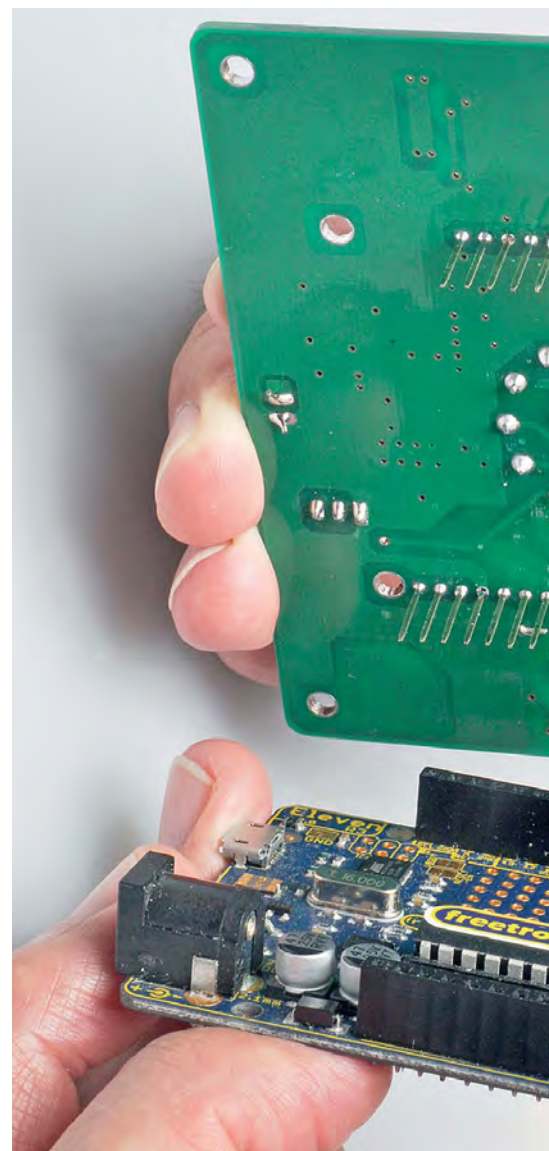
Capacitors (all 1206 SMD)

- 3 100nF 16V X7R
- 2 47nF 50V X7R

Resistors (0.25W, 1% 1206 SMD)

- | | |
|---------|--------|
| 2 200kΩ | 1 560Ω |
| 1 1.5kΩ | 1 4.7Ω |

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The header pins on the back of the *MFM* shield PCB are plugged into matching headers on the Arduino PCB. The assembly is then secured using 12mm-long untapped spacers and M3 × 20mm machine screws and nuts (see Fig.5).

- (3) Push M3 × 20mm machine screws up through the Arduino PCB and each spacer and fit M3 hex nuts on the top.
- (4) Gradually tighten each screw and nut until the two PCBs are held together. **Note that you will need to file a small amount of metal off one 'flat' of the nut used on the mounting screw that is very close to the rear end of the 10-way SIL header (the one at upper right in Fig.4) so it doesn't interfere.**
- (5) Fit four M3 × 25mm tapped spacers into the bottom of the case using M3 × 6mm screws. Don't tighten these screws up fully yet.
- (6) Remove the nut and lockwasher from the front of BNC socket CON5.

inner and outer edges with a large drill or needle file.

Box assembly

Fig.5 shows how the two PCBs are mounted. The procedure is as follows:

- (1) Plug the *MFM* Shield PCB into the

Arduino module, making sure they are properly aligned. Don't push both boards together as far as they'll go.

- (2) Slip four 12mm long untapped spacers into the locations for the Arduino mounting screws between the two boards.

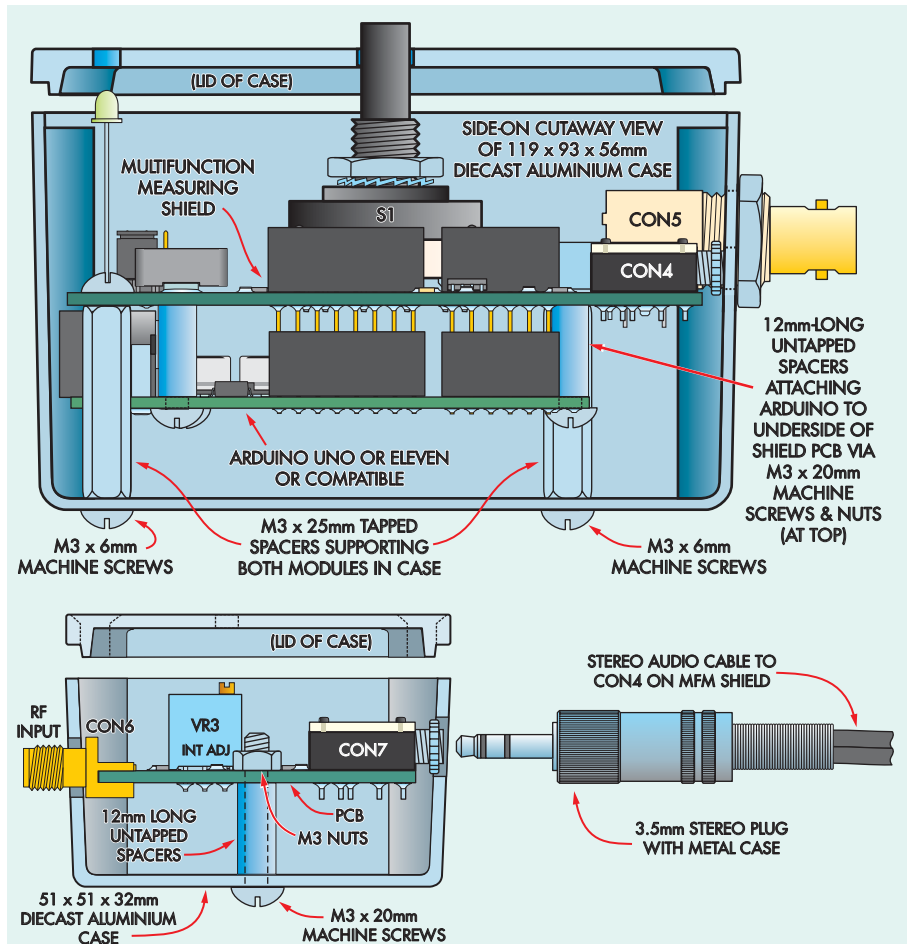
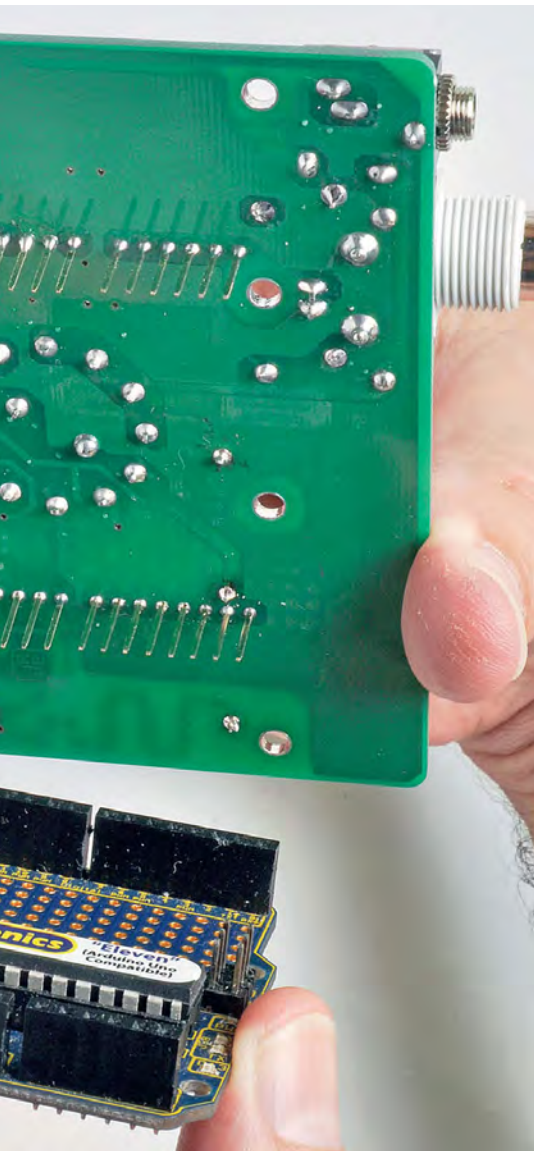


Fig.5: here's how the PCB assemblies are mounted inside the diecast cases. The Arduino board is mounted on the MFM shield PCB using four 12mm untapped spacers and secured with machine screws and nuts. The entire assembly is then mounted on the bottom of the case on M3 x 25mm tapped spacers. The RF Head PCB is secured inside its case on two 12mm-long untapped spacers.

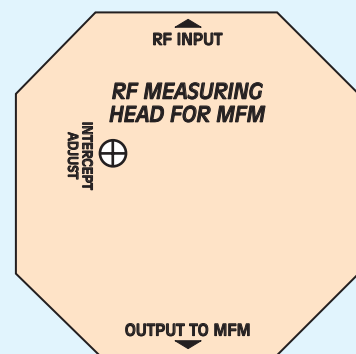
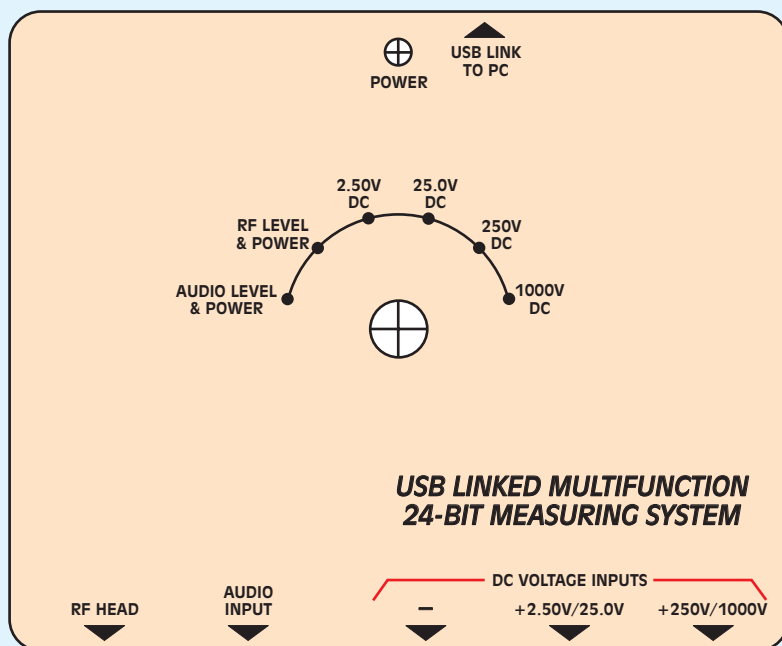
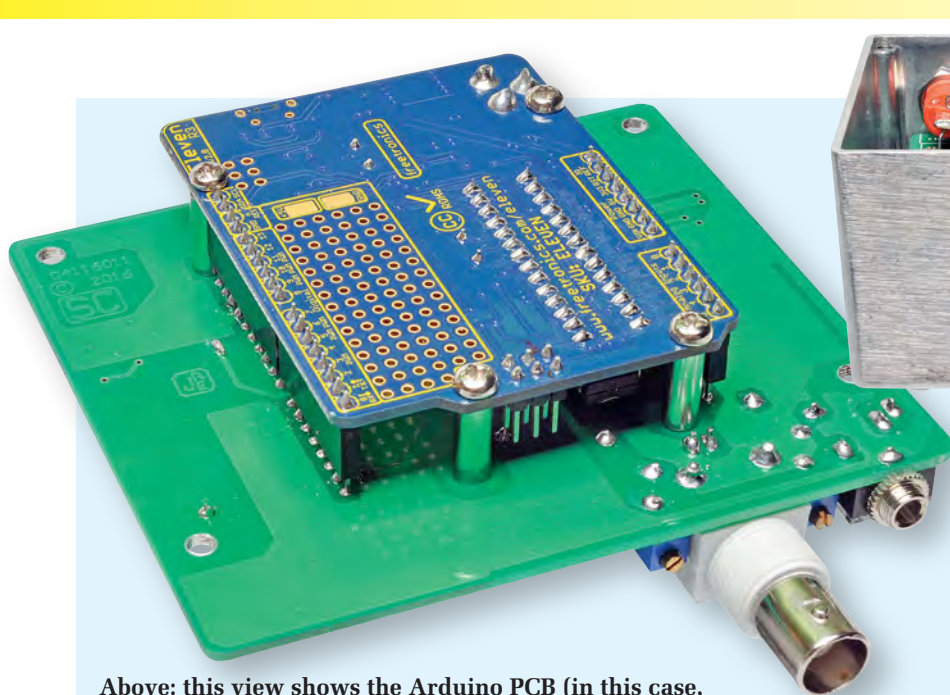


Fig.6: full-size panel artwork for the main MFM unit lid and the RF Head lid. These can also be downloaded as a PDF from the EPE website, printed out and laminated.

Constructional Project



Above: this view shows the Arduino PCB (in this case, a Freetronics Eleven) mounted on the rear of the MFM shield PCB.



The rear panel has a cut-out to access the USB socket on the Arduino module. Note that this cut-out can be made smaller than shown if the module is fitted with a micro-USB socket.

front of the box and slip the nuts back on. Make sure the black socket (CON3) is closest to BNC socket CON5.

(11) Rotate the banana sockets so that their tabs are horizontal and do the nuts up tight.

(12) Bend the previously soldered lengths of tinned copper wire so they pass through the corresponding banana socket holes, then solder them in place (or push tinned copper wire leads into cut-down IC sockets and then solder these to CON1-CON3).

(13) Attach the label to the lid.

(14) Drop the lid in place, ensuring that LED1 passes through its 3mm hole, then screw the lid down and attach the knob.

RF Head assembly

Use the following steps to assemble the RF Head:

- 1) Push M3 × 20mm machine screws up through the two holes in the bottom of the box, then slip a 12mm-long untapped spacer over each.
- 2) Insert CON6 through the larger hole in the side of the box, then lower the PCB into place and slide it back so that CON7's ferrule lines up with its smaller hole opposite.
- 3) Attach the board using two M3 hex nuts. Do these up nice and tight.
- 4) Attach the label to the lid.
- 5) Secure the lid in place, making sure that the hole to allow trimpot VR3 to be adjusted is positioned above the trimpot's screw.

Next month

Your *Multifunction Meter* hardware is now complete and you're ready to tackle the remaining steps such as installing the firmware and software, calibration and finally putting the instrument to use. These topics will be covered in Part 2 next month.



The PCB assembly is installed in the case by first angling the BNC socket down through its hole, then forcing the rear of the assembly down into the case. The three banana sockets are then fitted and wired to the shield PCB.

(7) Insert BNC socket CON5 through its corresponding hole in the front of the box, then force the PCB assembly down into the case until it is resting on top of the four 25mm spacers.

(8) Attach the MFM shield board to these spacers using M3 × 6mm screws,

then tighten the corresponding screws in the bottom of the case.

(9) Screw the lockwasher and nut back onto the ferrule of BNC socket CON5.

(10) Remove the nuts from the three banana sockets for CON1-CON3, push them through the 12mm holes in the

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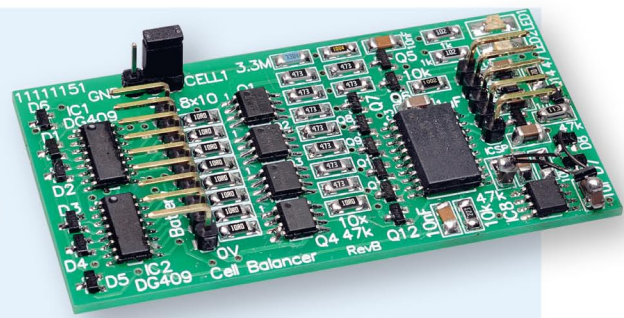
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Battery Pack Cell Balancer



Many multi-purpose chargers can handle lithium-ion, lithium-polymer or LiFePO₄ batteries. But they may not balance the charge between individual cells and this can lead to incomplete charging and premature failure. This small device solves this by providing the balancing function separately. It can also be used with Nicad and NiMH packs for a longer life-span and is suitable for use with the *MPPT Solar Lighting Charger/Controller* published in the previous two issues.

By Nicholas Vinen

TRADITIONAL BATTERY chargers treat a battery as a device having two terminals, delivering current until the battery voltage reaches a certain level. The termination voltage is the fully-charged cell voltage multiplied by the number of cells and the assumption is that when the battery reaches this voltage, each cell is fully charged. However, this relies on the cells being identical.

Similarly, the battery is determined to be flat when the overall voltage reaches a level indicating that each

cell is fully discharged. But if one cell starts out with a lesser charge or discharges faster for some reason, it could be over-discharged before this threshold is reached. This could damage the cell, leading to lower capacity and a shorter battery-pack life.

It's quite typical for a battery-pack to fail because the internal resistance of just one cell has gone high. The charge and discharge current must flow through all cells, so once one cell can no longer pass enough current, the whole battery is useless. Similarly, if

one cell's voltage is especially low (or perhaps even negative), the fully charged battery voltage may be insufficient, even though the rest of the cells are healthy.

So, for the longest battery life you need to ensure that all cells are charged and discharged equally. Even with a brand new battery, cell capacity may vary slightly (by one or two percent, say) but over time, this can worsen. This effect is greater with lithium-based cells than other types, which is why it's important to ensure they are properly balanced during charging.

Consider a 4-cell LiPo battery with one cell that has 2% lower capacity than the others. All cells start out fully discharged at 3V, ie, the battery is at 12V. It is then charged to 16.8V, which we would expect to yield 4.2V per cell. However, since the lower capacity cell will charge faster, it may have reached 4.3V while the other cells are all at 4.166V. $4.3V + 4.166V \times 3 = 16.8V$, so the charger can't tell the difference.

This cell has now been over-charged and this could lower its capacity further, to say 3% below the rest. Despite its lower capacity, it has a higher charge state than the other cells, so after discharge the voltages may be equal again. But eventually its capacity could drop so much that it also starts discharging further than the other cells each cycle, accelerating the damage.

Features and Specifications

- Balances Li-ion, LiPo or LiFePO₄ batteries with 2-8 cells
- Can also balance NiMH or Nicad packs with 4-8 cells
- Fully charged battery voltage of up to 33.6V (8 x 4.2V)
- Suitable for use with chargers up to 10A
- Will work with chargers >10A, but not as effectively
- Cell balancing shunt current: ~200mA
- Very low quiescent current: <25µA
- Compact PCB can be mounted next to battery pack
- Works with virtually any non-balancing charger
- Plugs straight into typical battery balance connectors
- No external power required
- Automatically detects number of cells
- Detection of charging by cell voltage or via external signal
- Adjustable cell voltage balance start threshold via resistor
- LEDs indicate balance status

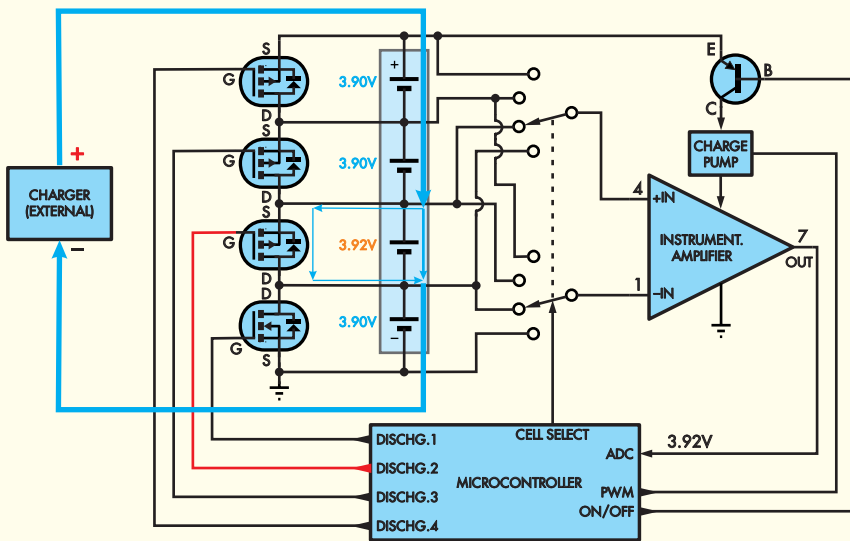


Fig.1: a simplified circuit showing the general principle of cell balancer operation. We're showing four cells, but our balancer will work with up to eight. MOSFETs are connected across each cell, to divert some of the charge current if that cell's voltage rises higher than the others. Analogue switching, driven by a microcontroller, allows each cell to be connected across the inputs of an instrumentation amplifier, so the micro can measure that cell's voltage. A charge pump is used to provide sufficient voltage for the instrumentation amplifier to operate, while a transistor allows its supply to be switched off when it isn't being used.

The simple solution is to monitor the voltage of each cell during charging and shunt current around those cells which have a higher voltage than the others. This reduces the charge delivered to lower capacity cells, so they all reach the correct charge termination voltage simultaneously. This not only prevents weak cells from being over-charged, but also stops strong cells from being under-charged.

Arguably, it's a good idea to monitor and balance cell voltages during discharge too; however, if balancing occurs during charging, this should hopefully keep the cells healthy and they will discharge at a more or less equal rate. Serious imbalances normally take multiple charge/discharge cycles to build up, so regular cell balancing during charging is thought to be sufficient.

However, should you wish to balance a battery pack while it's being discharged, our unit can do that too. It can be constantly active, drawing very little current until an imbalance is detected, at which point it 'wakes up' and attempts to rectify it.

Our cell balancer

The concept of a cell balancer is quite simple. It periodically checks the voltage of all cells. If one cell has a

significantly higher voltage than the others, some of the charge current is shunted around it, or if the battery is not currently being charged, it is discharged slightly. This reduces its voltage back in line with the others. This process is continuous, so as soon as any cell's voltage starts rising above the others, it is brought back in line.

Block diagram

The basic principle is shown in the simplified circuit of Fig.1, drawn with a 4-cell battery. Blue arrows show the flow of current from the charger through the battery. The second cell has a higher voltage than the others, so the microcontroller enables the corresponding MOSFET to divert some of the charge current around it.

There are some complications to this approach. Cell voltages will need to be measured accurately so that small imbalances can be detected before they become significant. Ideally, inter-cell error should be around 10mV or less.

This will prevent unnecessary shunting/discharging of the cells due to measurement error. In the worst case, if there is a bias in the way the balancer measures cell voltages, it could actually imbalance an already balanced pack!

Also, if the balancer is to be left

connected to the battery pack (which, in fixed installations, it would be), it needs to have negligible drain when the battery is not being charged or balanced. Ideally, it should be able to detect when charging is occurring and switch off for the rest of the time.

It also needs to be able to shunt a sufficiently large percentage of the charge current to be able to 'keep up' with the rate at which cell imbalance can occur, without this resulting in excessive dissipation which could cause undesired heating of the balancer or the battery.

It should also ideally suit a wide range of battery types, from two cells or more and including all the different chemistries that may require balancing.

In order to accurately assess the difference in cell voltages, we've avoided using a voltage divider. If we had simply connected each cell to a micro's ADC inputs with its own divider, it would be difficult to assure cell-to-cell accuracy. And if we used dividers after some sort of analogue switching arrangement, they would have to be very accurate to keep the common-mode rejection ratio (CMRR) high enough.

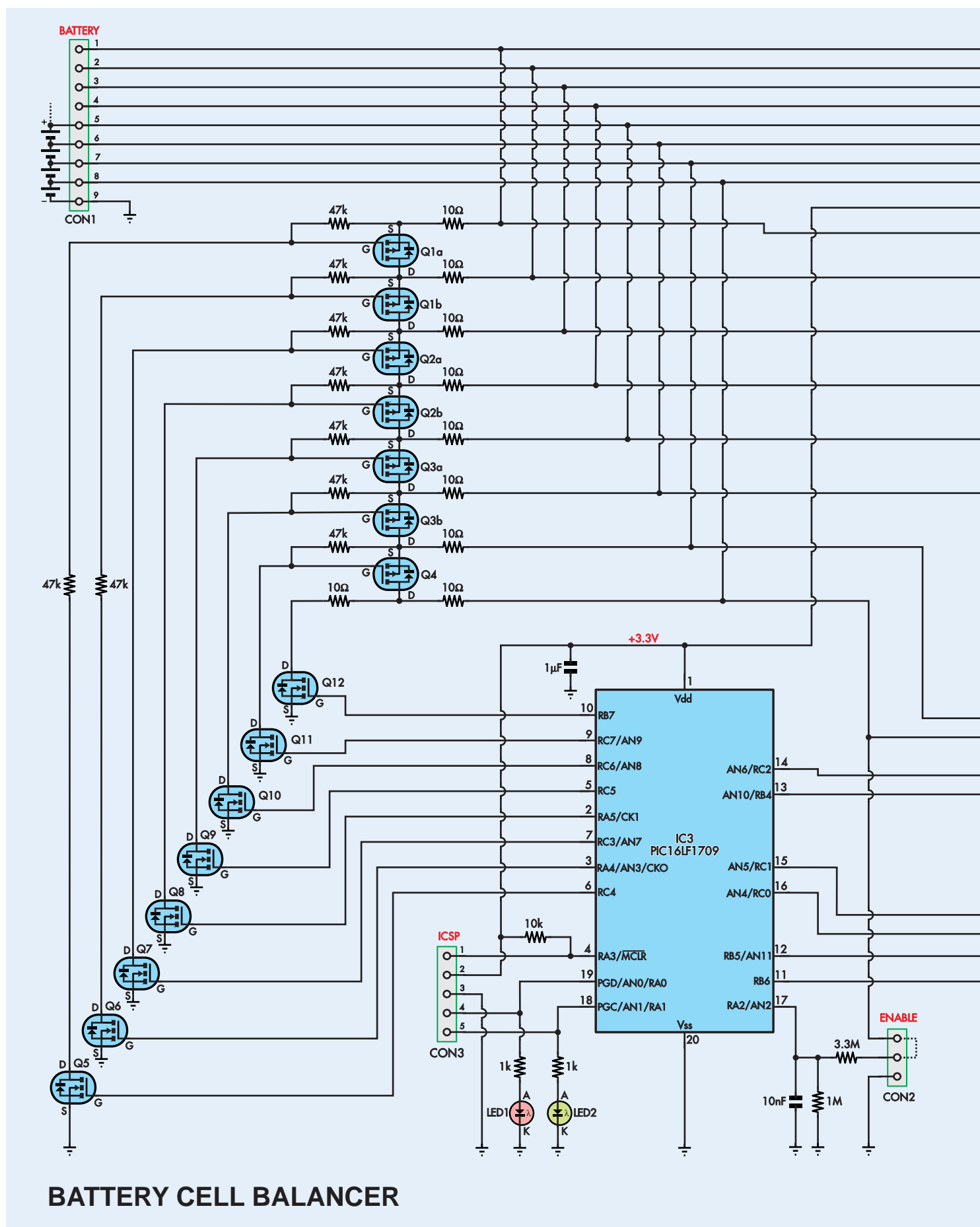
Independent cell measurement

Instead, we are using analogue switches to connect one cell at a time to an instrumentation amplifier. This is effectively a differential op amp with a very high input impedance and a very high CMRR. These both contribute to providing very good differential voltage sensing accuracy. Its output is the voltage of the selected cell and this is then fed to the ADC input of a microcontroller.

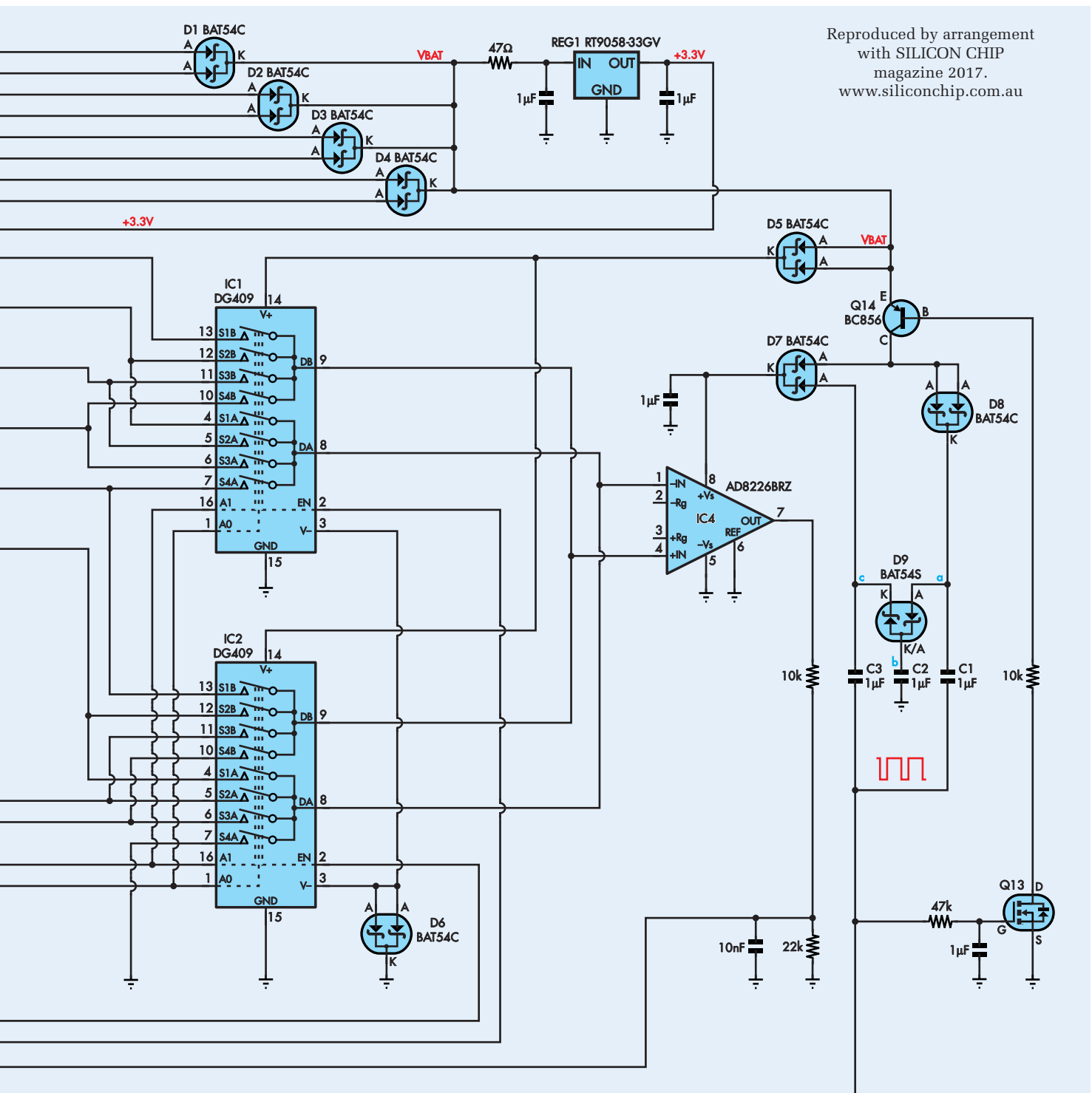
The micro we have chosen is a PIC16LF1709, running at 3.3V. This has a 10-bit ADC which is sufficient to sense cell voltages with a resolution of less than 5mV, or even better with averaging. It's also capable of an ultra-low-power sleep mode, to minimise current drain when balancing is not occurring. To this end, it has been teamed up with an ultra-low quiescent current regulator and it can switch off power to the instrumentation amplifier when it isn't being used.

Current is shunted around a cell during charging, or the cell is partially discharged, by switching on a MOSFET connected across the cell with a pair of current-limiting resistors. These MOSFETs are controlled by individual output pins on the microcontroller.

Constructional Project



BATTERY CELL BALANCER



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Fig. 2: the complete Cell Balancer circuit. Cell voltages at CON1 are connected to instrumentation amplifier IC4 by high-voltage analogue switches IC1 and IC2, then to microcontroller IC3's AN11 analogue input. IC3 can then switch on one of MOSFETs Q5-Q11, which in turn activate MOSFETs Q1a-Q3b or Q4 to shunt current around or discharge the cell with the highest voltage. The bottom-most cell is shunted directly by MOSFET Q12. IC3's pin 11 output drives a charge pump to boost IC4's supply so it can operate over the entire battery voltage range.

Parts List

- 1 double-sided PCB, available from the *EPE PCB Service*, coded 11111151, 69 × 35.5mm
- 1 3-way to 9-way pin header, 2.54mm pitch, straight or right angle to suit battery pack (CON1)
- 1 3-way pin header, 2.54mm pitch, with optional jumper shunt (CON2)
- 1 5-way pin header, 2.54mm pitch, straight or right angle (CON3, optional, for ICSP)
- 1 100mm length of heatshrink tubing, 50mm diameter (optional)

Semiconductors

- 2 DG409DY quad high-voltage CMOS switches, SOIC-16 (IC1, IC2)
- 1 PIC16LF1709-I/SO 8-bit microcontroller programmed with 1111115A.hex, SOIC-20 (IC3)
- 1 AD8226BRZ single supply instrumentation amplifier, SOIC-8 (IC4)
- 1 RT9058-33GV 3.3V (36V in) 100mA low-dropout, low-*I*_Q regulator, SOT-23 (REG1)

- 1 high-brightness red LED, SMD 3216/1206 (LED1)
- 1 high-brightness green LED, SMD 3216/1206 (LED2)
- 3 DMP3085 dual 30V P-channel MOSFETs, SOIC-8 (Q1-Q3)
- 1 DMP2215 20V P-channel MOSFET, SOT-23 (Q4)
- 9 BSS138 logic level N-channel MOSFETs, SOT-23 (Q5-Q13)
- 1 BC856 PNP transistor, SOT-23 (Q14)
- 8 BAT54CFILM dual 40V Schottky diodes, SOT-23 (D1-D8)
- 1 BAT54SFILM dual 40V Schottky diode, SOT-23 (D9)

Capacitors (SMD 3216/1206, X5R/X7R)

- 8 1µF 50V
- 2 10nF 50V

Resistors (SMD 3216/1206, 1%, ¼W)

- | | |
|----------|--------------|
| 1 3.3MΩ* | 3 10kΩ |
| 1 1MΩ | 2 1kΩ |
| 10 47kΩ | 1 47Ω |
| 1 22kΩ | 9 10Ω 0.5W** |

* change to set balance start voltage threshold

** 4.7Ω 0.5W preferred for use with NiMH/Nicad

Circuit description

The full circuit of the cell balancer is shown in Fig.2. The battery balance connector is usually a 2.54mm-pitch JST type, which plugs into CON1 with the negative-most terminal to pin 9, as shown. Between two and eight cells are connected and with fewer than eight cells, some pins will not be connected.

The terminals of CON1 are wired directly to the inputs of two dual 4-to-1 multiplexer ICs, IC1 and IC2. These DG409s will tolerate up to 44V and have a maximum on-resistance of 100Ω. They are wired so that, depending on the state of their control input pins (A0, A1 and EN), one cell at a time can be connected to the inverting and non-inverting inputs of instrumentation amplifier IC4 (pins 1 and 4).

For example, if A0 and A1 are low (0V) and the enable pin of IC1 is high, pin 1 of CON1 is connected to pin 4 of IC4 while pin 2 of CON1 is connected to pin 1 of IC4. Therefore, the voltage across the top-most cell of the battery (assuming it has eight) appears across

IC4's inputs. IC4 is configured for unity gain, with no resistor between pins 2 and 3. Thus, the difference between the voltage at either end of the selected cell appears at output pin 7.

This is fed to analogue input AN11 (pin 12) of the PIC16LF1709 microcontroller via a 10kΩ/22kΩ resistive divider, with a 10nF capacitor connected across the bottom leg to act as a noise filter. The divider ensures that even with a fully-charged lithium-ion or lithium polymer battery, with a cell voltage of up to say 4.3V, no more than 2.96V will be fed to IC3 and this is well below its 3.3V supply, which also acts as the ADC reference voltage.

So basically, the micro can measure the voltage across each cell by controlling the state of its output pins 13/RB4 (to A0), 14/RC2 (to A1), 15/RC1 (to IC2 EN) and 16/RC0 (to IC1 EN). Because it uses the same circuitry in each case, errors should be consistent, making for accurate cell voltage comparisons.

IC4 has a CMRR of at least 90dB with unity gain, so the error due to absolute

cell voltage variation is tiny – with 30V between the bottom and top cell voltages, the resulting error will be less than 1mV. Besides noise, the other source of error is variation in the on-resistance between the analogue switches in IC1 and IC2. However, since IC4 has an extremely high input impedance of around 400MΩ, this error will also be negligible; less than 10µV.

Cell balancing

During charging, microcontroller IC3 scans the cells about once per second, to determine if there is a significant difference in their voltages. If there is, it switches on one of Q1a-Q3b, Q4 or Q12 to shunt some current around it, reducing that cell's charge rate.

One of these MOSFETs is connected across each cell, with a 10Ω series resistor at either end (the bottom cell is slightly different). Many of these resistors are shared, to cut down on the component count, meaning normally only one MOSFET will switch on at a time, to keep dissipation within component limits.

The bottom-most cell is discharged by N-channel MOSFET Q12. Its gate is driven directly from output pin 10 (RB7) of micro IC3 and when that line goes high, it sinks current from the positive terminal of this cell through a pair of series-connected 10Ω resistors to ground. Assuming this is a fully-charged Li-Po cell at around 4.2V, the shunt current is $4.2V \div 20\Omega = 210mA$.

If the battery is being charged at, say 5A, this means that 4.2% of the charge current will be shunted around this cell, so it will charge more slowly than the others and eventually the voltages will re-balance. If charging is not occurring then this cell will simply discharge at a rate of 210mA, until its voltage has been reduced to be in line with the other cells.

The other seven cells (or however many are present) are discharged by one of P-channel MOSFETs Q1-Q4. Six of these are part of DMP3085 dual MOSFETs, while the seventh is a single DMP2215 MOSFET. Each is normally held off by a 47kΩ resistor between its gate and source terminal, and switched on when the gate is pulled to ground by one of Q5-Q11, which are small-signal N-channel MOSFETs.

Like Q12, these are driven directly from the outputs of micro IC3, from pins 2-9. These are logic-level MOSFETs and require less than 2V

at the gate to sink more than 100mA. Q5-Q11, in combination with the gate pull-up resistors, effectively form level shifters to provide the different voltage levels to drive the gates of Q1-Q4.

The DMP3085 MOSFETs used have a maximum gate-source voltage of 30V, so Q2 and Q3 require no gate voltage limiting. Q4 does not require gate voltage limiting either, as it's connected across the second-from-bottom cell and so its source will never be more than 9V above ground. However, for Q1a and Q1b, two extra 47kΩ resistors are connected between the drains of Q5/Q6 and their gates to reduce the gate drive voltage to a maximum of -20V.

The discharge MOSFETs do not need to be switched quickly, so the relatively high-value 47kΩ resistors do not interfere with their function.

Power supply

REG1 is fed the full battery voltage via one of dual Schottky diodes D1-D4. A 47Ω filter/dropper resistor reduces dissipation in REG1, an SMD 3.3V low-dropout linear regulator, while also filtering out any hash from the charger or spikes from discharge pulses.

The 3.3V rail supplies microcontroller IC3 and is also used as a reference voltage for its ADC, as stated earlier.

The V_{BAT} rail from the cathodes of D1-D4 also powers multiplexers IC1 and IC2 via series Schottky diodes D5 and D6. These diodes provide protection for IC1 and IC2 against over-voltage at their inputs, since their internal clamp diodes will automatically boost the supply if this happens (and D5/D6 would become reverse-biased). Normally this is not an issue, but when a battery is initially plugged in, not all of its pins may make contact at the same time, so we're protecting these ICs as per the suggested arrangement in the data sheet.

The power supply for IC4 is somewhat more complex. To avoid draining the battery when it isn't being charged or balanced, micro IC3 switches off IC4 using PNP transistor Q14. To switch Q14 on, IC3 drives its RB6 output high (pin 11), which charges N-channel MOSFET Q13's gate via an RC filter. Q13 then sinks current from Q14's base via a 10kΩ current-limiting resistor, turning it on and allowing current to flow to IC4's supply pin via D7.

But that isn't the end of the story because while IC4 can handle input

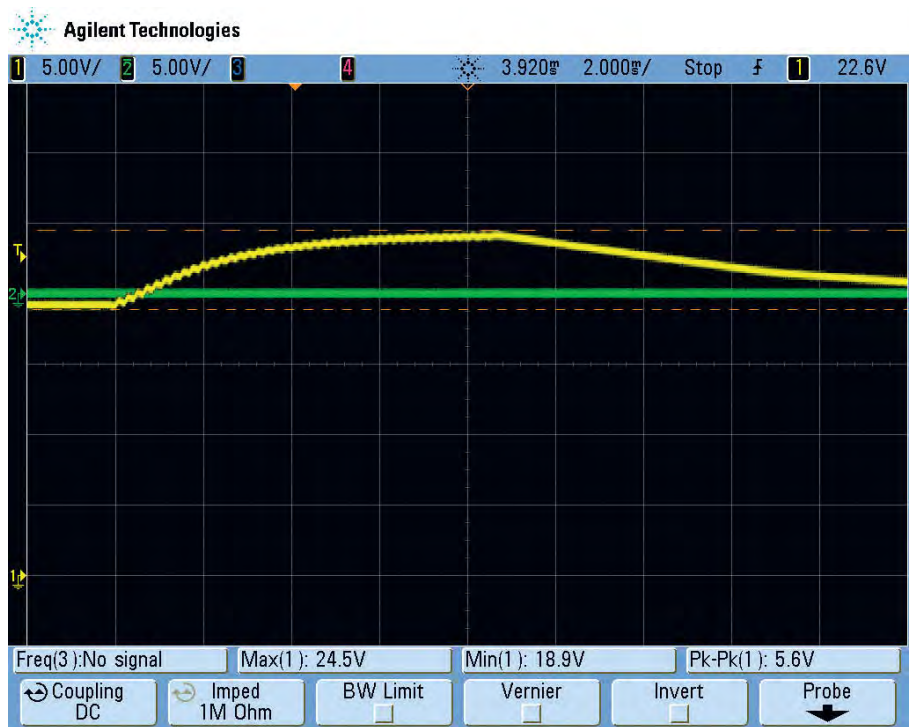


Fig.3: operation of the charge pump which supplies IC4. Initially, IC4's supply (yellow) is below the battery voltage (green) due to the two Schottky diodes and one PNP transistor its supply current must pass through. Once the charge pump begins operation, it quickly climbs above the battery voltage, eventually settling about 4V higher after 8ms or so. The micro then quickly takes the measurement using its ADC before the supply voltage drops.

voltages down to its negative rail (ie, GND), the inputs must remain below its positive rail for correct operation. The voltage between the positive-most input and the positive supply rail must be at least 1V plus half the output voltage to remain in the common-mode operating range, which in our case means we need a 'headroom' of around 3.1V ($1V + 4.2V \div 2$).

The forward voltage of D1-D4 and D7 means that normally IC4's supply will be around 0.6V below the positive-most battery terminal, so we need to boost its supply by $3.1V + 0.6V =$ at least 3.7V to correctly sense the top cell voltage.

So, before measuring the voltage of the top-most cell, after RB6 is brought high and the 1µF capacitor at Q13's gate is fully charged, IC3 pulses its RB6 output around 50 times before taking the first measurement, with a frequency of around 5kHz. This drives a charge pump which increases IC4's supply voltage to about 4V above the battery voltage, allowing it to properly measure the voltage of the top cell(s).

Fig.3 shows how the supply voltage to IC4 rises during this period, from a little below the 20V battery voltage in this example to around 24V.

It works as follows: when RB6 goes low, 1µF capacitor C1 charges from the battery supply via Q14 and D8, to around 0.75V less than the battery (point 'a', Fig.2). When RB6 goes high again, point 'a' increases by about 3.3V, to around 2.5V above the battery voltage. C2 is then charged to slightly less than this (at point 'b'), via one half of dual series Schottky diode D9.

When RB6 next goes low, C3 charges to around 2V above the battery voltage via the second half of D9 (point 'c'). When RB6 goes high again, point 'c' is boosted to around 4V above the battery voltage and current flows through the lower half of dual Schottky diode D7, forming IC4's supply. This drops a little during RB6's off-time, but remains sufficiently high to complete several ADC conversions.

By starting with Q13's gate at 3.3V and keeping the duty cycle relatively high, Q13 is prevented from switching off before the charge pump has done its work, despite the fact that RB6 is being modulated.

Balance current

The 10Ω resistors have been chosen to limit current to a safe level with lithium-based rechargeable cells. For

code printed on the top showing the value, eg, 223 for 22k Ω (22×10^3). The capacitors will be unmarked although you will probably be able to pick them apart as the 1 μ F types should be physically larger. If you're planning on using 4.7 Ω resistors rather than 10 Ω , keep that in mind.

That just leaves two SMDs, both LEDs. You will need to determine which end is the cathode. This is often marked on the package with a green dot; however, we've seen LEDs which mark the anode with a green dot too, so it's safest to check. Generally, this can be done with a DMM set on diode test mode. Probe each end of the LED with the leads. If it lights up, the red lead is connected to the anode and the black to the cathode. If not, try flipping the LED around.

Once you've worked out which end is the cathode (and also revealed the colour), solder it in place. Note that LED1 is red and LED2 is green and that the cathode (indicated with a K) goes towards the righthand edge of the PCB.

Battery connector CON1 can be soldered to either side of the PCB and you can use a straight or right-angle header. We used a right-angle header on the top of the board to minimise the overall thickness of the unit. You may wish to use a header with fewer than nine pins, to suit your battery connector, as this will make it easier to plug in. However, you could just solder in a 9-pin header to suit any battery pack with 2-8 cells.

CON3 can be omitted if your microcontroller is already programmed. We used a right-angle programming header, again to minimise thickness.

For CON2, we used a straight header as we simply fitted a jumper shunt so that balancing would begin automatically once the battery reached a sufficient cell voltage. However, you could simply fit a wire link between 'EN' and 'CELL1' if desired. Alternatively, connect a pair of wires between GND and EN, with or without the pin header.

Note that, while it would be possible to leave out some components if you do not need to handle batteries with more than six cells, we'll leave it to individual constructors to figure out which ones can be omitted.

Usage

If IC3 has not already been programmed, you need to download the hex file from the *EPE* website.

Program the chip using a PICkit 3 or a similar PIC programmer. You can use the PICkit 3 to power IC3, but be careful not to exceed its 3.6V maximum supply rating.

Ideally, it's a good idea to do some basic checks before connecting a battery. If you have a current-limited bench supply, set it to 12-24V at 10mA and connect it between pins 1 and 9 of CON1, with the negative terminal to pin 9. Once the on-board capacitors charge, the current drain should drop to just a few milliamps and the red LED should flash, indicating a battery is not detected.

If you don't have a bench supply, you can use any DC source with a series resistor of say 470 Ω 0.5W for ~12V or 1k Ω 0.5W for ~24V.

Assuming all is OK, connect the battery, taking care to orient the plug correctly as the header is not polarised. In theory, the unit should survive a reversed supply connection, at least in the short term, but the 10 Ω resistors could potentially overheat as the parasitic diodes in MOSFETs Q1-Q4 will conduct.

After a couple of seconds you should see the green LED flash once for each cell in the battery. If you have joined EN and CELL1 on CON2, depending on the battery voltage, the unit may then begin the balancing operation. Otherwise, it will go into sleep mode and both LEDs will remain off.


If driving the EN pin externally, wire this up to your charger so that it will be driven high during charging. You can then switch on the charger and check that the red and green LEDs illuminate together briefly, to indicate that the unit has 'woken up'. If the battery needs balancing, you will see further flashes.

When balancing occurs, green LED2 will flash rapidly and then switch off. The number of flashes indicates which cell is being shunted/discharged. Once the cells have been balanced, green LED2 will be switched on for around one second, then switch off.

Error indication

If an error condition is detected (eg, an unexpected low cell voltage), red LED1 will flash rapidly. If the EN pin drops below 0.95V while balancing is still active, red LED1 will switch on for around one second and then the unit will go back into sleep mode until the EN pin voltage rises again.

PoLabs

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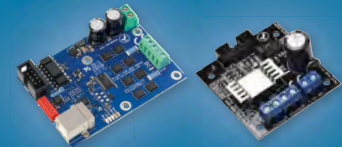
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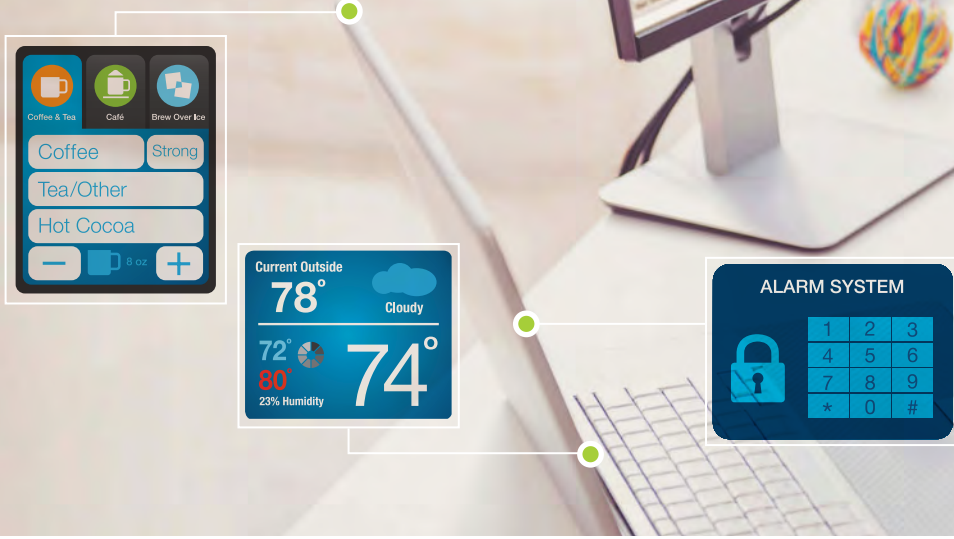
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Meet the mighty Micromite

Part 3: Programming the Micromite in MMBasic

by
**Geoff
Graham**



The Micromite is an amazing device. A low-cost microcontroller programmed in a Microsoft-compatible version of BASIC with floating point, arrays and extensive string handling. The Micromite can interface to a variety of devices including touch-sensitive LCD panels and a host of sensors for temperature,

humidity, GPS and more. Even better, the microcontroller only costs a couple of pounds and the BASIC interpreter is free. Available in a user-friendly 28-pin package, the Micromite makes a great controller for your heating system, lighting manager or whatever else your imagination can dream up.

Do you like the idea of the Micromite but don't know how to program in BASIC? This tutorial is the answer. It will guide you through the basics of programming in the BASIC language – leaving you ready to write your first program and make your special project a reality.

The Micromite is programmed using the BASIC programming language. The Micromite version of BASIC is called MMBasic (short for **MicroMite BASIC**) which is similar to the Microsoft BASIC interpreter that was popular years ago.

The BASIC language was originally developed in 1964 by Dartmouth College in the US as a computer language for teaching programming to beginners. For that reason, it is easy to use and learn. At the same time, it has proved to be a competent and powerful programming language and became very popular in the 70s and 80s. Even today, quite a few large commercial data systems are still written in the BASIC language.

For the Micromite, the greatest advantage of BASIC is its ease of use. Some more modern languages, such as C and C++ can be truly mind bending, but with BASIC you can start with a one-line program and get something sensible out of it. MMBasic is also powerful in that you can control the I/O pins on the Micromite, interface to things like an LCD display or IR remote control, and communicate with other chips using a range of built-in communications protocols.

About the only downside to using a BASIC interpreter is that it is not as fast as a fully compiled language like C or

C++. However, on a fast microcontroller such as the PIC32, MMBasic will execute each command in an average of 50µs or faster. This speed is suitable for most applications – for example, fast enough to respond to a high-revving engine and generate signals such as ignition triggers. And if that is not fast enough you can always embed compiled C functions in your BASIC program.

This tutorial will go through many aspects of the BASIC language, but it cannot cover everything. For example, many commands have additional features that are only used in special circumstances. So it would be worthwhile downloading the manual and having it handy as you read through the following pages. That way you can explore the full detail of a command that might interest you. The *Micromite User Manual* can be downloaded for free, along with the firmware from *EPE* or the author's website: <http://geoffg.net/micromite.html>

Getting started

On start up, the Micromite issues the command prompt (>) on the console and waits for some input. At this time you have a wide range of commands that you can execute. These include setting some options (the **OPTION** command) or perhaps listing the program held in Flash memory (**LIST**) or even editing it (**EDIT**). Most times, the command is just **RUN**, which instructs MMBasic to run the program already held in Flash memory.

However, almost any command can be run at the command prompt, and this is

often used to test a command and see how it works. A simple example is the **PRINT** command (more on this command later) – you can test it by entering the following at the command prompt:

```
PRINT 2 + 2
```

Not surprisingly, MMBasic will print out the number '4' before returning to the command prompt.

A BASIC program consists of a number of statements or commands, each of which causes the BASIC interpreter to do something. Normally, each statement is on its own line, but you can have multiple statements in the one line separated by the colon character (:).

The program starts running at the first line and continues until it runs off the end of the program or hits an **END** command – at which point MMBasic will display the command prompt (>) on the console and wait for something to be entered.

One very useful feature of MMBasic is the **CTRL-C** sequence (hold down the 'CTRL' key when pressing the 'C' key). This is called the break key or character. When you type this on the console's input it will interrupt whatever program is running and immediately return control to the command prompt. This can get you out of all sorts of difficult situations. For example, if you entered the following at the command prompt:

```
DO : LOOP
```


You would cause MMBasic to enter a continuous loop. If you try entering, CTRL-C you will see how this will immediately break out of the loop and return MMBasic to the prompt. Remember CTRL-C – it will prove useful at some time in the future.

Last month, I described a number of ways that you can get your program into the Micromite. You could write it on a desktop computer using a text editor like Notepad and then transfer it via the console connection using the MMBasic commands AUTOTEXT or XMODEM. However, the easiest way of getting started is to use the editor built into MMBasic. This enables you to enter programs, save them to the Micromite's memory and then change them later if needed.

All programs are saved into the Flash memory of the PIC32 chip. The command MEMORY reports how much memory was used by the program; for example:

```
Flash:
 21K (35%) Program (805 lines)
 39K (65%) Free
RAM:
 9K (16%) 5 Variables
18K (32%) General
26K (52%) Free
```

Flash memory is non-volatile, which means that it will retain its contents when the power is removed. This is important for an embedded controller where the power can be lost at any time.

PRINT command

Arguably the most useful command in MMBasic is the PRINT command. Its job is simple; to print something on the console. This is mostly used to tell you how your program is running and can consist of something simple such as 'Pump running' or 'Total Flow: 23 litres'.

In its simplest form the PRINT command will just print whatever is on its command line. So, for example PRINT 54 will display on the console the number 54 followed by a new line. The PRINT command can have multiple items to print, for example:

```
PRINT 12 55 99
```

This will print the numbers specified, each with a single space between each number. The data to be printed can be 'expressions', which mean something to be calculated. We will cover expressions in more detail later, but as an example, consider PRINT 5*(9+2), which prints the number '55'.

There is one extra point to note about the PRINT command; it automatically adds a new line (the ASCII characters 'CR' and 'LF') after printing the result. This is handy for normal use, but sometimes you do not want this, so you can suppress it by adding a semicolon (;) to the end of the command line, for example: PRINT 55 ;

Variables

Before we go much further we need to define what a 'variable' is because they are

fundamental to the operation of the BASIC language. A variable is simply a place to store an item of data (ie, its 'value').

Variables can be any one of three types. The most common is floating point and this is automatically assumed if the type of the variable is not specified. A 'floating-point' number is an ordinary number, which can contain a decimal point. For example 3.45, 99 or 100.01 are all floating-point numbers.

The other two types are integer and string, and we will cover them later.

A variable can be used to store a number and it can then be used in the same manner as the number itself, in which case it will represent the value of the last number assigned to it. As a simple example:

```
A = 3
B = 4
PRINT A + B
```

This displays the number '7'. In this case both A and B are variables and MMBasic used their current values in the PRINT statement.

BASIC will automatically create a variable when it first encounters it, so the statement A = 3 both created a floating point variable (the default type) with the name A and then assigned it the value of 3.

The name of a variable must start with a letter, but the remainder of the name can use letters, numbers, the underscore or the full stop. The name can be up to 32 characters long and the case of the letters used is not important. Here are some examples:

```
Total_Count
ForeColour
temp3
count
```

You can change the value of a variable anywhere in your program by using the assignment command, for example:

```
variable = expression
CTemp = (FTemp - 32) * 0.5556
```

In this example both CTemp and FTemp are variables and this line converts the value of FTemp (in degrees Fahrenheit) to degrees Celsius and stores the result in the variable CTemp.

IF statement

Making decisions is at the core of most computer programs, and in BASIC that is usually done with the IF statement. This is written almost like an English sentence:

```
IF condition THEN action
```

The condition is usually a comparison such as equals, less than or more than; for example:

```
IF Temp < 20 THEN HeaterOn
```

Temp would be a variable holding the current temperature and HeaterOn the

action to be done. There is a wide range of conditions that you can use:

```
= equals
< less than
> greater than
<= less than or equals
>= greater than or equals
```

You can also add an ELSE clause, which will be true if the initial condition tested false. For example, this will execute different actions when the temperature is under or over 20:

```
IF Temp < 20 THEN HeaterOn ELSE
CoolingOn
```

The previous examples all used single-line IF statements, but you can also have multi-line IF statements, which look like this:

```
IF condition THEN
  TrueActions
ELSE
  FalseActions
ENDIF
```

Unlike the single-line IF statement, you can have many true actions with each on their own line and similarly many false actions. Generally, the single-line IF statement is handy if you have a simple action that needs to be taken, while the multi-line version is much easier to understand if the actions are numerous and more complicated.

An example of a multiline IF statement with more than one action is:

```
IF Temp < 20 THEN
  HeaterOn
  RedLightOn
ELSE
  CoolingOn
  BlueLightOn
ENDIF
```

Note that in the above example we indented each action to show what part of the IF structure it belongs to. This is not mandatory, but it makes a program much easier to understand for someone who is not familiar with it and is highly recommended. You will find that we use indentations in all our examples for this reason.

FOR loop

Another common function in programming is looping around through a set of actions. For example, you might want to step through all seven days in the week and perform some function. BASIC provides the FOR loop for this type of job, and it works like this:

```
FOR day = 1 to 7
  Do something based on 'day'
NEXT
```

This starts by creating the variable day and assigning the value of 1 to it. The program then executes the following statements until it comes to

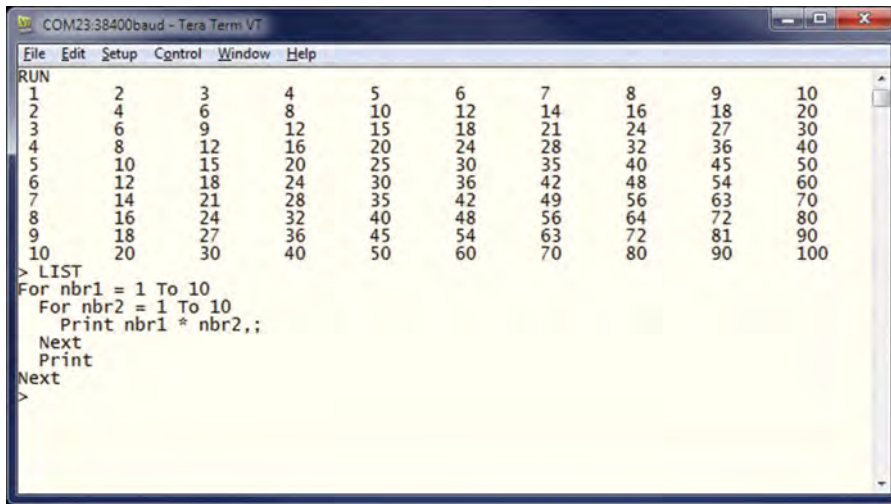


Fig.1. Program and generated output for a multiplication table

the NEXT statement. This tells the BASIC interpreter to increment the value of *day*, go back to the previous FOR statement and re-execute the following statements a second time. This will continue looping around until the value of *day* exceeds 7 and the program will then continue with the statements following the NEXT.

As a simple example, you can use the FOR loop to print out the multiplication table that we all learnt at school. The program for this is not complicated:

```
FOR nbr1 = 1 to 10
  FOR nbr2 = 1 to 10
    PRINT nbr1 * nbr2, ;
  NEXT
  PRINT
NEXT
```

The output will look like that shown in Fig.1, which also shows the listing of the program. You need to work through the logic of this example line by line to understand what it is doing. Essentially, it consists of one loop inside another. The inner loop, which increments the variable *nbr2*, prints one horizontal line of the table. Note that the PRINT statement is terminated with a comma and a semicolon. The comma instructs MMBasic to tab to the next column and the semicolon will suppress the automatic carriage return/line feed characters that are normally added to the end of the output.

When the inner loop has finished it will execute the following PRINT command, which has nothing to print – so it will simply output a new line (ie, terminate the line printed by the inner loop). The program then executes another iteration of the outer loop by incrementing *nbr1* and re-executes the inner loop again. Finally, when the outer loop is exhausted (when *nbr1* exceeds 10) the program will reach the end and terminate.

DO loop

Another method of looping is the DO LOOP structure, which looks like this:

```
DO WHILE condition
  statement
  statement
LOOP
```

This will start by testing the condition, and if it is true the statements will be executed until the LOOP command is reached, at which point the condition will be tested again and if it is still true the loop will execute again. The 'condition' is the same as in the IF command (ie, $X < Y$). For example, the following will keep printing the word 'Hello' on the console for the first four seconds after being run:

```
DO WHILE Timer < 4000
  PRINT "Hello"
LOOP
```

Note that Timer is a function within MMBasic that returns the total time that the program has been running in milliseconds.

A variation on the DO LOOP structure is the following:

```
DO
  statement
  statement
LOOP UNTIL condition
```

In this arrangement the loop is first executed once, the condition is then tested and if the condition is false, the loop will be repeatedly executed until the condition becomes true. For example, similar to the previous example, the following will also print 'Hello' for the first four seconds:

```
DO
  PRINT "Hello"
LOOP UNTIL Timer >= 4000
```

Both forms of the DO LOOP do the same thing – use whatever structure fits with the logic that you want to implement.

Expressions

We used the term 'expression' before and in BASIC it has a specific meaning. It is a mathematical formula that can be resolved by the BASIC interpreter to a single number or value. MMBasic will evaluate an expression using the same rules that we all learnt at school. For example, multiplication and division are performed first, followed by addition and subtraction.

This means that $2 + 3 * 6$ will resolve to 20, so will $5 * 4$ and also $10 + 4 * 3 - 2$. If you want to force the interpreter to evaluate parts of the expression first you can surround that part of the expression with brackets. For example, $(10 + 4) * (3 - 2)$ will resolve to 14 *not* 20, as would have been the case if the brackets were not used. Using brackets does not appreciably slow down the program, so you should use them liberally if there is a chance that MMBasic will misinterpret your expression.

As you would expect, you can use variables in an expression exactly the same as straight numbers. You can also use functions in expressions. These are special operations provided by MMBasic, for example to calculate trigonometric values. As an example, the following will print the length of the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle using the SQR() function, which returns the square root of a number (a and b are variables holding the lengths of the other sides):

```
PRINT SQR(a * a + b * b)
```

Some other mathematical functions provided by MMBasic include:

- SIN(r) sine of r
- COS(r) cosine of r
- TAN(r) tangent of r
- ATAN(r) arctangent of r

Note that in the above functions the value passed to the functions (ie, r) is the angle in radians. In MMBasic you can use the function RAD(d) to convert an angle from degrees to radians (d is the angle in degrees).

Another feature of BASIC is that you can nest function calls within each other. For example, given the angle in degrees (ie, d) the sine of that angle can be found with this expression: $SIN(RAD(d))$. In this case, MMBasic will first take the value of d and convert it to radians using the RAD() function. The output of this function then becomes the input to the SIN() function.

Console input

There are times when you would like to use the Micromite as a straight computer with all of its input coming from the console and its output going to the same place. For this you need to capture keystrokes from the console. This is done with the INPUT command. In its simplest form the command is:

```
INPUT var
```

This command will print a question mark on the console and wait for a number to be entered, followed by the Enter key. That number will then be assigned to the variable var. For example, the following program extends the expression for finding the hypotenuse of a triangle by allowing the user to enter the lengths of the other sides from the console.

```
PRINT "Length of side 1"
```



```

INPUT a
PRINT "Length of side 2"
INPUT b
PRINT "Length of the hypotenuse
is" SQR(a * a + b * b)

```

The screen capture of a typical session running this program is shown in Fig.2.

GOTO and labels

One method of controlling the flow of the program is the GOTO command. This essentially tells MMBasic to jump to another part of the program and start executing from there. The target of the GOTO is a label and we will explain them first.

A label is an identifier that marks part of the program. It must be the first thing on the line and it must be terminated with the colon (:) character. The name that you use can be up to 32-characters long and must follow the same rules for a variable's name. For example, in the following program line LoopBack is a label:

```
LoopBack: a = a + 1
```

When you use the GOTO command to jump to that particular part of the program you would use the command like this GOTO LoopBack

To put all this into context, the following program will print out all the numbers from 1 to 10:

```

z = 0
LoopBack: z = z + 1
PRINT z
IF z < 10 THEN GOTO LoopBack

```

The program starts by setting the variable z to zero then incrementing it to 1 in the next line. The value of z is printed and then tested to see if it is less than 10. If it is less than 10 the program execution will jump back to the label LoopBack

Listing 1. Prime number test

A short program that asks for a number and tests it to see if it is a prime number. It demonstrates many of the standard constructs within MMBasic including IF statements, loops and printing.

```

DO
  InpErr:
  PRINT
  PRINT "Enter a number: ";
  INPUT a
  IF a < 2 THEN
    PRINT "Number must be equal or greater than 2"
    GOTO InpErr
  ENDIF

  Divs = 0
  FOR x = 2 TO a/2
    r = a/x
    IF r = FIX(r) THEN Divs = Divs + 1
  NEXT x

  PRINT a " is ";
  IF Divs > 0 THEN PRINT "not ";
  PRINT "a prime number."
LOOP

```

where the process will repeat. Eventually, the value of z will be more than 10 and the program will run off the end and terminate.

Note that a FOR loop can do the same thing (and is simpler) so this example was purely designed to illustrate what the GOTO command can do.

In the past, the GOTO command acquired a bad reputation. This is because when using the GOTO command it is possible to create a program that continuously jumps from one point to another (often referred to as 'spaghetti code') and that type of program is almost impossible for another programmer to understand. With constructs like the multiline IF statements the need for the GOTO statement has been reduced and it should be used only when there is no other way of changing the program's flow.

Testing for prime numbers

Listing 1 shows a simple program which brings together many of the programming features we have discussed. The program will first prompt (on the console) for a number and when it has been entered it will test if that number is a prime number or not and display a suitable message.

It starts with a DO LOOP that does not have a condition – so it will continue looping forever. This is what we want, it means that when the user has entered a number, it will report if it is a prime number or not and then loop around and ask for another number.

The way that the user can exit the program (if they wanted to) is by typing the break character (normally CTRL-C).

The program then prints a prompt for the user, which is terminated with a semicolon character. This means that the

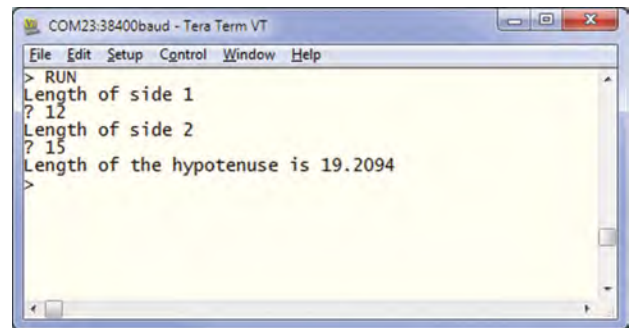


Fig.2. Running a program to calculate the hypotenuse of a triangle

cursor is left at the end of the prompt for the INPUT command, which will get the number and store it in variable a.

Next, the number is tested. If it is less than 2 an error message will be printed and the program will jump backwards and ask for the number again.

We are now ready to test if the number is a prime number. The program uses a FOR loop to step through the possible divisors, testing if each one can divide evenly into the entered number. Each time it does, the program will increment the variable Divs. Note that the test is done with the function FIX(r) that simply strips off any digits after the decimal point. So, the condition r = FIX(r) will be true if r is an integer (ie, has no digits after the decimal point).

Finally, the program will construct the message for the user. The key part is that if the variable Divs is greater than zero it means that one or more numbers were found that could divide evenly into the test number. In that case the IF statement inserts the word 'not' into the output message. For example, if the entered number was 21 the user will see this response:

21 is not a prime number.

Fig.3 shows the result of running the program and some of the output. You can test this program by using the editor (the EDIT command) to enter it. Using your newly learnt skills you could then have a shot at making it more efficient. For example, because the program counts how many times a number can be divided into the test number it takes a lot longer than it should to detect a non-prime number. The program would run much more efficiently if it jumped out of the FOR loop at the first number that divided evenly.

You could use the GOTO command to do this or you could use the command EXIT FOR – that would cause the FOR loop to terminate immediately (this command was introduced in MMBasic version 5.2).

Arrays

An array is something that you will probably not think of as useful at first glance, but when you do need to use them you will find them very handy indeed.

An array is best thought of as a large number of variables that are created at the same time with each variable being pointed to by a number, which is called

the index. An array is created by the DIM command, for example: DIM n(300)

This created an array of 301 elements. Note that an array starts from zero, so this is why there is an extra element making the total 301. If you want to set element number 100 in this array to (say) the number 876, you would do it this way:

```
n(100) = 876
```

Normally, the index to an array is not a constant number as shown above, but a variable which can be changed to access different array elements.

As an example of how you might use an array consider the case where you would like to record the temperature for each day of the year and, at the end of the year, calculate the overall average. You could use ordinary variables to record the temperature for each day, but you would need 365 of them and that would make your program very unwieldy indeed. Instead, you could define an array to hold the values like this:

```
DIM days(365)
```

Every day you would need to save the temperature in the correct location in the array. If the number of the day in the year was held in the variable `doy` and the maximum temperature was held in the variable `maxtemp` you would save the reading like this:

```
Days(doy) = maxtemp
```

At the end of the year it would be simple to calculate the average for the year:

```
ave = 0
FOR i = 1 to 365
  ave = ave + days(i)
NEXT i
PRINT "Average is:" ave/365
```

This is much easier than adding up and averaging 365 individual variables.

The above arrays are single dimensioned, but you can have multiple dimensions if you wish. For example, if you wished to record the temperature over five years you could dimension the array like this:

```
DIM days(365, 5)
```

The first index is the day in the year and the second is a number representing the year. If you wanted to set day 100 in year 3 to 24 degrees you would do it like this:

```
days(100, 3) = 24
```

In MMBasic you can have up to eight dimensions and the maximum size of an array is only limited by the amount of free RAM that you have.

Integers

So far, all the numbers and variables that we have been using have been floating point. As explained before, floating point is handy because it will track digits after the decimal point and when you use

division it will return a sensible result.

However, the limitation of floating point is that it stores numbers as an approximation with an accuracy of only six or seven digits. For example, if you stored the number 1234.56789 in a floating-point variable and then

printed it out you will find that the value stored in the variable is actually 1234.57. Most times this is not a problem, but there are some cases when you want to accurately store large numbers. Examples include tracking a GPS location on the planet's surface and interfacing with digital frequency synthesisers.

As another example, let us say that you want to track time accurately so that you can compare two different date/times to work out which one is earlier. The easy way to do this is convert the date/time to the number of seconds since some date (say 1 Jan 2000) then finding the earliest of the two is just a matter of using an arithmetic compare in an IF statement. The problem is that the number of seconds since that date would far exceed the accuracy range of normal floating-point variables and this is where integer variables come in. An integer variable in MMBasic can accurately hold numbers up to nine million million million (or ±9223372036854775807 to be precise), which is a very large number indeed.

The downside of an integer is that it cannot store fractions (ie, numbers after the decimal point). Any calculation that produces a fractional result will be rounded up or down to the nearest whole number when assigned to an integer.

It is easy to create integer variables, just add the percent symbol (%) as a suffix to a variable name. For example, `sec%` is an integer variable. Within a program you can mix integers and floating point and MMBasic will make the necessary conversions, but if you want to maintain the full accuracy of integers you should avoid mixing the two.

Just like floating-point arrays, you can have arrays of integers with up to eight dimensions, all you need to do is add the percent character as a suffix to the array name. For example: `days%(365, 5)`.

Strings

Strings are another variable type (like floating point and integers). Strings are used to hold a sequence of characters. For example, in the command `PRINT "Hello"`, the string `Hello` is a string constant. Note that in code, string constants are always surrounded by double quotes – `"Hello"`.

String variables names use the dollar symbol (\$) as a suffix to identify them

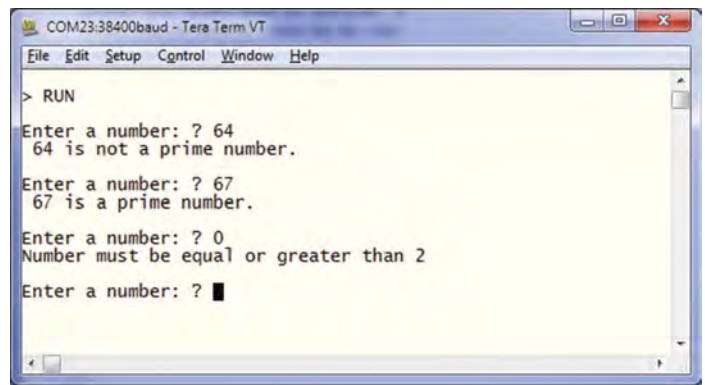


Fig.3. Running the prime number test program

as a string instead of a normal floating-point variable and you can use ordinary assignment to set their value. The following are examples (note that the second example uses an array of strings):

```
Greeting$ = "Hello"
Car$(12) = "Volvo"
```

You can also join strings using the plus operator:

```
Word1$ = "Hello"
Word2$ = "World"
Greeting$ = Word1$ + " " + Word2$
```

In which case the value of `Greeting$` will be `"Hello World"`.

Strings can also be compared using operators such as `=` (equals), `<>` (not equals) or `<` (less than); for example:

```
IF Car$(12) = "Audi" THEN PRINT
"German"
```

String handling is one of MMBasic's strengths and there are many ways to join, pull apart and generally manipulate strings using specialised string functions. For example, `INSTR()` will search a string for one or more characters, `MID$()` will extract one part of a string from another and `VAL()` will convert a string of numbers into a value that can be stored in a numeric variable. For the details, refer to the Functions section of the *Micromite User Manual*.

DIM command

We have mentioned the DIM command before when defining arrays, but it can also be used to create ordinary variables. For example, you can create a number of string variables like this:

```
DIM STRING Car, Name, Street,
City
```

Note that because we defined these variables as strings using DIM we do not need the \$ suffix, the definition alone is enough for MMBasic to identify their type. When you use these variables in an expression you also do not need the type suffix; for example: `City = "Paris"`

You can also use the keyword `INTEGER` to define a number of integer variables and `FLOAT` to do the same for floating

point variables. This type of notation can also be used to define arrays; for example:

```
DIM INTEGER seconds(200)
```

The advantage of defining variables in this way is that they are clearly defined (generally at the start of the program) and their type (float, integer or string) is not subject to misinterpretation. You can strengthen this by using the following commands at the very top of your program:

```
OPTION EXPLICIT  
OPTION DEFAULT NONE
```

The first tells MMBasic that *all* variables *must* be defined using the DIM command before they can be used. The second specifies that the type of all variables must be specified when they are created.

Why are these commands important? They avoid a common programming error that can happen if you accidentally misspell a variable's name. For example, your program might have the current temperature saved in a variable called Temp, but at one point you accidentally misspell it as Tmp. This will cause MMBasic to automatically create a variable called Tmp and set its value to zero.

This is obviously not what you want and it will introduce a subtle error that could be hard to find – even if you were aware that something was not right. On the other hand, if you used the OPTION EXPLICIT command at the start of your program MMBasic would refuse to automatically create the variable and instead would throw an error, thereby saving you from a probable headache.

For small, quick and dirty programs, it is fine to allow MMBasic to automatically create variables, but in larger programs you should always disable this feature with OPTION EXPLICIT and OPTION DEFAULT NONE.

When a variable is created it is set to zero for float and integers and an empty string (ie, contains no characters) for a string variable. You can set its initial value to something else when it is created using DIM. For example:

```
DIM FLOAT nbr = 12.56  
DIM STRING Car = "Ford", City  
= "Manchester"
```

Subroutines

A subroutine is a block of programming code that is contained within a module and can be called from anywhere within your program. It looks like a built-in command within MMBasic and can be used the same.

For example, assume that you need a command that would signal an error by printing a message on the console and then terminate the program. You could define the subroutine like this:

```
SUB ERRMSG  
    PRINT "Error detected"  
END  
END SUB
```

Then, in your program you use ERRMSG to display the message; for example:

```
IF A < B THEN ERRMSG
```

The definition of the ERRMSG subroutine can be anywhere in the program, but typically it is at the start or end. If MMBasic runs into the definition while running your program it will simply skip over it.

This is fine enough, but it would be better if a more useful message could be printed, one that would be customised every time the subroutine was called. This can be done by passing a string to the subroutine as an 'argument' (sometimes called a 'parameter'). In this case, the definition of the subroutine would look like this:

```
SUB ERRMSG Msg$  
    PRINT "Error: " + Msg$  
END  
END SUB
```

Then, when you call the subroutine, you can supply the string to be printed on the command line of the subroutine; for example:

```
ERRMSG "Number too small"
```

When the subroutine is called like this the message Error: Number too small will be printed on the console and the program terminated.

Inside the subroutine Msg\$ will have the value of Number too small, and it will be concatenated in the PRINT statement to make the full error message.

A subroutine can have any number of arguments that can be float, integer or string, with each argument separated by a comma. Within the subroutine the arguments act like ordinary variables but they exist only within the subroutine and will vanish when the subroutine ends. You can have variables with the same name in the main program and they will be hidden within the subroutine and be different from arguments defined for the subroutine (at the risk of making debugging harder).

Local variables

Inside a subroutine you will need to use variables for various tasks. In portable code you do not want the name you chose for such a variable to clash with a variable of the same name in the main program. To this end you can define a variable using LOCAL within the subroutine. The syntax for LOCAL is identical to the DIM command, this means that the variable can be an array, you can set the type of the variable and you can initialise it to some value.

For example, this is our ERRMSG subroutine, but this time we have extended it to use a local variable for joining the error message strings.

```
SUB ERRMSG Msg$  
    LOCAL STRING tstr  
    tstr = "Error: " + Msg$  
    PRINT tstr
```

```
END  
END SUB
```

The variable tstr is declared within the subroutine, which means that (like the argument list) it only exists within the subroutine and will vanish when the subroutine exits. You can have a variable called tstr in your main program and it will be different from the variable tstr in the subroutine. You should always use local variables for operations within your subroutine because they help make the subroutine much more self-contained and portable.

Functions

Functions are similar to subroutines with the main difference being that a function is used to return a value in an expression. For example, if you wanted a function to select the maximum of two values you could define:

```
FUNCTION Max(a, b)  
    IF a > b  
        Max = a  
    ELSE  
        Max = b  
    ENDIF  
END FUNCTION
```

Then you could use it in an expression:

```
x = 21  
y = 25  
PRINT "The highest number is"  
Max(x, y)
```

The rules for the argument list in a function are similar to subroutines. The only difference is that brackets are required around the argument list when you are calling a function (they are optional when calling a subroutine).

To return a value from the function you assign a value to the function's name within the function. If the function's name is terminated with a type suffix (ie, \$, % or !) the function will return that type, otherwise it will return whatever the OPTION DEFAULT is set to. As you can see, the function name is used as an ordinary local variable inside the subroutine. It is only when the function returns that the value assigned to the function name is made available to the expression that called it.

Ready to go!

So there you are – you know the basics of how to program and use the Micromite, all you need do now is incorporate it into your next brilliant project.

Keep up to date!

For updates to the Micromite firmware you can visit the author's website at: <http://geoffg.net/micromite.html>.

Another resource is The Back Shed forum where there are many Micromite users who are happy to help newcomers, see: www.thebackshed.com/forum/Microcontrollers

NET WORK

by Alan Winstanley



Dell Downloads

WELCOME to this month's *Net Work*, the Internet column written for *EPE* readers. Last month, I described how I added a Dell FP-61001 fingerprint scanner to a Windows PC. It enabled Roboform, my favourite website login manager, to log in securely with just the swipe of a finger. I had struck lucky with the Dell device, bought cheaply on eBay, as it was claimed to be Windows-compatible up to version 10 and despite a struggle I did get it running on my home-brew Windows 7 PC. I gave links pointing to Dell's driver software that worked well with my Asus PC (all versions of the Dell fingerprint scanner software are listed at: <http://downloads.dell.com/Security/>). As a useful tip, Dell customers searching for obscure software or updates might like to try Dell's 'simplified interface' web page at: <http://downloads.dell.com/published/Pages/index.html>. It is a very lengthy list of Dell products, but if you know the product group or model then a way of drilling down to the file area is simply to type 'CTRL + F' to open a search box in your web browser, and try searching the page for keywords.

Biometric readers are readily available on eBay and I stumbled upon a job lot of Dell devices being sold off cheaply that, happily, proved compatible with Roboform. A few of them are still available at the time of writing, but readers should beware of other types being sold by Chinese gadget sites at an attractive price. Some claim to be Windows 2000-XP-Win 7 compatible (only) and there is often a question mark over whether legacy 32-bit drivers will work in a modern 64-bit machine because Windows compatibility mode does not always work. Prices vary wildly, so make sure beforehand that devices will work with your operating system and hardware before you buy.

As a final note on this topic, facial recognition technology is now starting to emerge, with Microsoft promising that Windows Hello will allow password-free secure logins on an expanding range of devices in the future.

Fighting Fitbit

For over half a decade there's been a groundswell of innovation in networkable gadgets and devices that work in harmony with online services, and many latest 'smart' devices and home appliances have network connectivity built in as standard. Even electric toothbrushes are being re-invented for this networking age. Procter & Gamble's Oral-B Genius 9000 toothbrush, for example, uses Bluetooth to connect to a smartphone where an app can be downloaded to give a visual summary of your teeth-cleaning regimen and 'provide focused care as you follow your dental care journey and receive guidance that can be adjusted by your dental professional,' as the Oral-B website gushes.

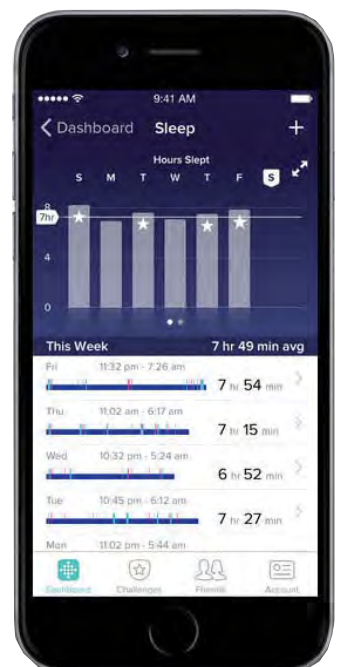
Next-generation 'wearables', such as smart watches and fitness bands are fast becoming useful and affordable after emerging from

some tough rounds of funding, as sensor technologies and software evolve but investors try not to get their fingers burnt. However, the very fickle millennial market is becoming saturated with such gadgetry, mirroring the way tablet and smartphone sales have plateaued. Manufacturers can churn them out far more quickly than consumers seek to buy them, and prestigious brands eventually struggle at the hands of cheaper competition.

The Pebble Smartwatch, a major Kickstarter project in 2012 that everyone willed to succeed, was an early effort to link a wristwatch to a smartphone. After two million unit sales, Pebble shuttered the business and sold its intellectual property to Fitbit last December. Fitbit's latest wearables are aimed at those seeking to enhance physical exercise using smart technologies; their sports and designer watches monitor pulse rates, calories burned and elapsed times. Automatic sleep tracking lets a Fitbit wearer check how restful or restless their sleep patterns are, and Fitbit's downloadable app offers a polyunsaturated plethora of data to help users reach their fitness goals.

It is all very on-trend, but selling technology like this in an overcrowded market is perilous, and Fitbit recently announced job cuts totalling 6% and its market valuation has halved in twelve months, according to Bloomberg. Fitbit's press gallery is populated by twenty- and thirty-year olds enjoying perfect health, busily jogging, sprinting, working out or tirelessly pumping iron – you know the sort of thing. Despite Fitbit's clear bias towards the millennial sector, it does offer anyone wanting to get fitter and stay in shape a seamless way of helping with weight loss or exercise. The Fitbit watch captures data (exercise, diet, calories burned, sleep patterns) for everyday activities, sports or hiking, which is passed to a smartphone or tablet to handle the app or get calorific and diet data, and maybe connect to a Wi-Fi weigh scale to log your weight routinely.

As far back as December 2011 I reported on a new generation of LCD bathroom scales from Withings that boasted Wi-Fi interconnectivity, with a blood pressure monitor available as well. Today, Fitbit's Aria bathroom Wi-Fi scale uploads personal readings, including BMI and body fat to the cloud, where it is integrated with the user's Fitbit data. The scales can handle up



Fitbit's sleep-tracking feature enables owners of wrist-worn Fitbits to log their sleep patterns



to eight users and Fitbit assure us of complete privacy. Available in black or white, the Aria scales retails at under £100.00, about the same price as Withings' scales.

Fitbit would be missing a trick if it failed to reach out (as they call it these days) to older generations of 'silver surfers', or greying ones anyway, who could benefit just as much from this latest smart technology. I asked Fitbit whether they intended to market their technology to appeal to older generations as well as 20-to-30-somethings. There's no answer yet, but in the meantime, the Aria website at www.fitbit.com/uk/aria is one I found dreadfully dizzying and clearly aimed at short-attention-span visitors who use a tablet, not a 23-inch PC monitor (the same, it must be said, is true of Withings' website at www.withings.com). Fitbit's Zip smart pedometer starts at £50 (\$60) while their watches extend to £160 (\$190) or so, with some products and prices in between. Fitbit products are available from the usual major UK stores, including Amazon, John Lewis, Very.co.uk and Argos. As early-adopting Pebble owners discovered to their cost, this product sector is far from risk free, and just as tablets and smartphones struggle in a fast-maturing market, more bloodshed will come as fresher, cheaper rivals come to market.

Fire power

Internet 'smartness' comes as standard with many modern TVs, but maintaining the backwards-compatibility of apps or keeping them up to date is an increasing problem for manufacturers. Barely a week goes by without my Samsung Smart TV updating itself, not that I'm complaining, but I recently tried its YouTube app one more time and re-discovered just how unusable it is. Trying to search for any content is a tortuous process of entering keywords letter by letter using the TV remote control because my Bluetooth keyboard would not work with this YouTube app. A better way is to use a smartphone for searching YouTube, and once found, you can play (cast) the videos onto a networked TV screen. However, I eventually gave up on that idea because, after scanning countless QR codes and typing pairing codes into a website numerous times, pairing no longer seemed to work.

I recently indulged in an Amazon Fire TV Stick, an HDMI dongle that converts an ordinary TV into an altogether smarter one. The Fire TV Stick is heavily biased towards pushing Amazon's paid-for Prime content, but after a decent amount of testing I found that the HDMI dongle and its simple wireless remote control work very well and were easy to live with. It was simple to download some apps, including all the UK catch-up TV channels and BBC iPlayer, followed by the YouTube app. How would this compare with Samsung's Smart TV? The answer became clear when browsing YouTube once again on my Android phone, where it was easy to find video content and queue it up, then cast it onto the Fire-equipped TV, which sprang into life after 30 seconds or so.

This plan almost went without a hitch as I settled back to enjoy a queue of videos and documentaries, until the Fire app locked up! To my disappointment the setup needed rebooting after a few minutes. Perhaps the glitch



(Photo: author)

Videos can be queued on a smartphone for seamless playing on a TV



(Photo: author)

Casting a YouTube video from a smartphone onto a TV fitted with an Amazon Fire TV Stick

was caused by a pesky update or a LAN problem, but it has happened once or twice since then, 'dropping the line' inconveniently. A Fire TV Stick can also play slideshows of favourite photos and there are some decent weather apps and screensavers with rainfall to help you nod off to sleep at night. Fire Stick is a useful way of 'going smart' with an HDMI screen or TV and costs £35; it does go on offer from time to time, so keep an eye on the price tag.

YouTube videos now have 'ad breaks' denoted by polite yellow dots along the timeline, so at least users get an advanced warning before an ad rudely bursts onto our screens. It is also a sign of how slick the advertising industry has become, when commercials shown across terrestrial TV also appear online in YouTube, Facebook and everywhere else at the same time.

That's all for this month's *Net Work*. If you have any comments or suggestions, you can email the author at alan@epemag.net or send letters for possible inclusion in *Readout* to editorial@wimborne.co.uk



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PICs and the PICKit 3: LED Binary Clock – Part 2

LAST MONTH, we designed and built the *LED Binary Clock*. Now we need to look at controlling the LEDs to display the time. Before continuing, I recommend looking back at last month's article on what was done and how it was done.

Project planning

First, do re-read the plan (project 'specification') in last month's column before moving onto the software.

We've already covered most of the 'specification'. We have the hardware built and it's ready for programming. From our plan, we now need to show the hours, minutes and seconds accurately. We also need to add the functionality of dimming the LEDs and changing the time.

Project flow

As with any software project, we need to know the flow of the software – from setting up the GPIOs to starting the Timers, the ADC and PWM modules.

In this project, there's a lot going on as we try and incorporate as much of the PICKit 3 Demo Board Tutorials as possible. As discussed last month, we're going to incorporate left/right shifting, analogue-to-digital conversion, debounce, pulse-width modulation and the Timer.

The flow chart is split into two pieces, the main setup and the main while loop. Fig.1 shows the main setup flow chart, which details the flow of setting up our variables, ports, PWM, ADC and Timer before entering the main while loop.

Fig.2 shows the main while loop flow chart. Fig.2 is clearly more involved and may seem unwieldy, but stick with it and try to understand the details.

Here's an overview of what's happening. The Timer0 runs in the background and once every second it toggles an interrupt flag (`INTCONbits.TMR0IF`). Before this interrupt flag is toggled, the code will only check for a button press (for changing hours and minutes). After the interrupt flag has been toggled, a second has passed and the system needs to change the display of seconds, minutes, tens of minutes and hours. The code toggles the `seconds` LED (D12), showing each second as it passes.

The code now determines what time it is. Just like any ordinary twelve-hour clock, if the number of seconds has

reached a full minute, then the minutes count will increment. If the minutes count has reached a full ten minutes, then the tens of minutes count will increment. If the tens of minutes count has reached the full hour, then the hours count will increment. Finally, to complete the circle, once the hours count has reached twelve hours, the hours variable will reset to zero.

Main setup code

There isn't space to examine each and every line in detail, but all the concepts have been covered in previous *PICs and the PICKit 3* articles. Have a re-read if you're unsure about anything. The full code for this project can be downloaded from *EPE's* website.

```
int maxseconds = 59;
int maxmins = 9;
int maxtenmins = 5;
int maxhours = 0xB0;
int seconds = 0;
int mins = 0;
int tenmins = 0;
int hours = 0;
int val = 0;
```

The first thing to set up is the variables used throughout the code. Variables are a handy way of using numbers that will be used often. This also means if we want to change a value, we only need to change it in one place. This method prevents 'hard coding' (using various values throughout the code without using variables, which is a sign of poorly designed, inflexible software). Each variable has a unique and descriptive name; for example, `maxseconds` represents the maximum number of seconds before needing to increment the minutes.

```
OSCCON = 0b00110000;
TRISA = 0;
TRISB = 0;
TRISC = 0;
LATA = 0;
LATB = 0;
LATC = 0;
```

The next thing we want to do is set the internal clock to 250kHz (`OSCCON`), followed by assigning all of PORT A, B and C to outputs (`TRIS`) and then setting them to zero (`LAT`).

```
OPTION_REG = 0b00000111;
```

Next, set the Timer0 register pre-scaler rate to 1:256.

```
CCP1CON = 0b00001100;
PR2 = 255;
CCPTMR5bits.C2TSEL = 0b00;
T2CONbits.T2CKPS = 0b00;
T2CONbits.TMR2ON = 1;
```

These few lines set up the PWM module inside the PIC. This controls transistor TR1, by regulating the connection to ground for the LEDs. The PWM is set to use Port C5 as its output. When the pin is low, the transistor's base is pulled low and so the transistor is turned off, effectively disconnecting the ground from the low side of the LEDs. The pull up (R14) keeps the low side high, thus providing no voltage drop for the LEDs to illuminate. When Port C5 is high, the transistor turns on, connecting ground to the low side of the LEDs and turning them all on. Remember, here we are using PWM, so changing the pulse width varies how long the LEDs are on and thus their average brightness. (Re-read the lesson on PWM for more information on how this works.)

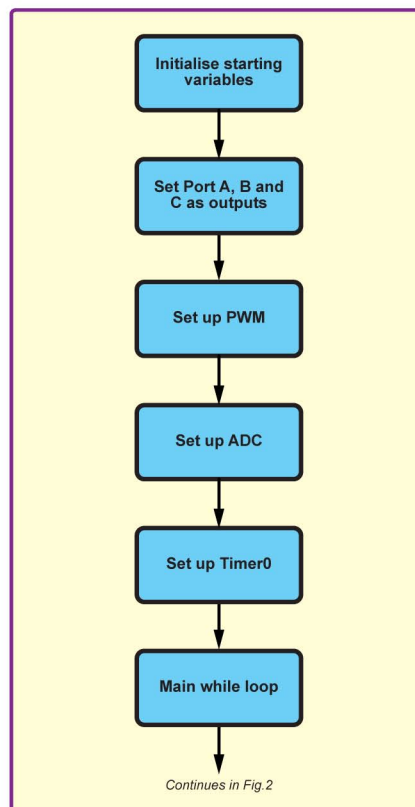


Fig. 1. Main setup flow chart

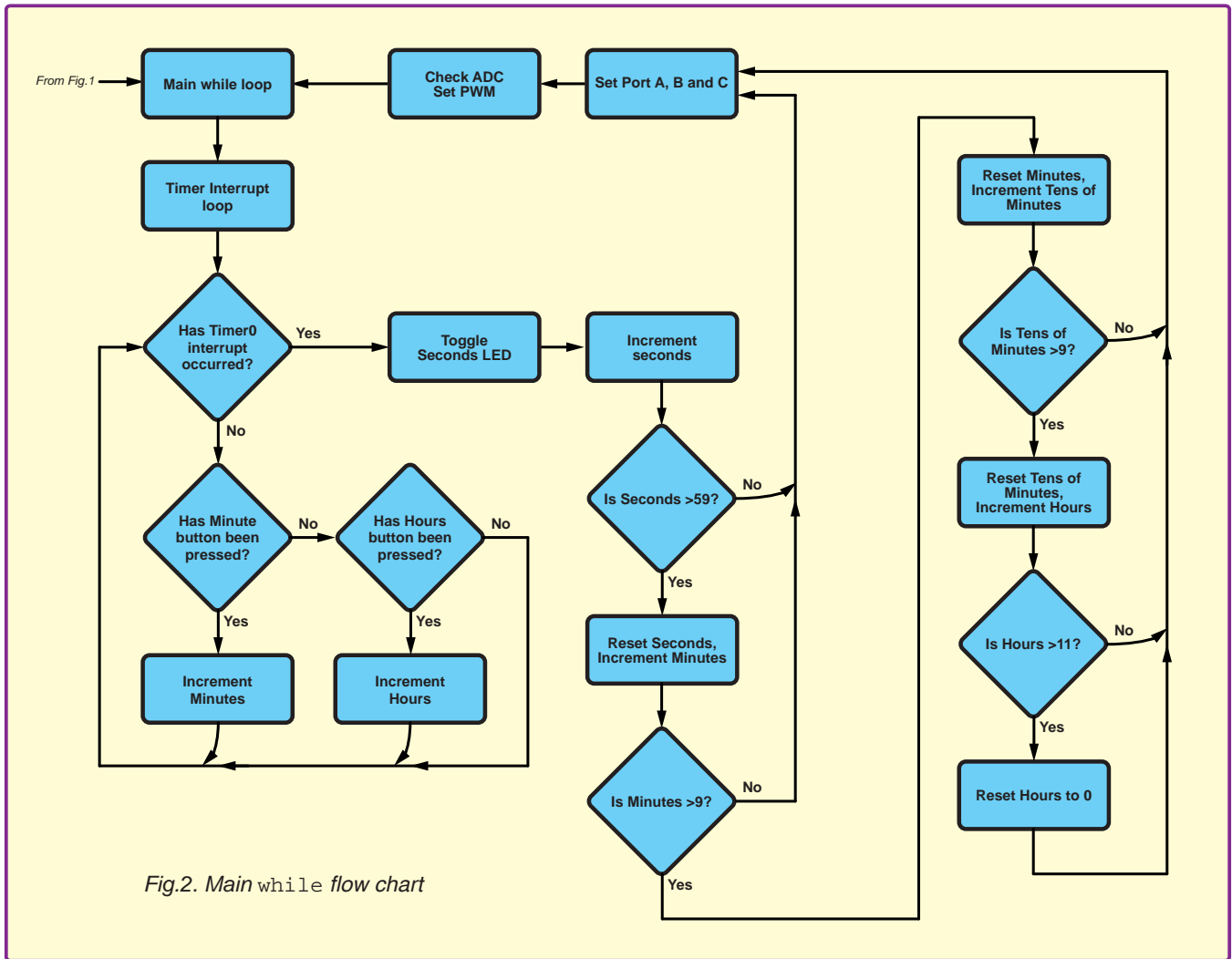


Fig.2. Main while flow chart

```
TRISAbits.TRISA4 = 1;
ANSELAbits.ANSA4 = 0;
TRISAbits.TRISA5 = 1;
```

Next, we need to know how to read the push buttons' status. Ports A, B and C have all been set up as outputs. So now the code sets A4 and A5 as inputs. This is straightforward, but do note that when using port A4, ANSELAbits.ANSA4 = 0; has to be used in order to change this pin from its default state as an analogue pin to a digital pin, otherwise the button function won't work.

```
TRISAbits.TRISA4 = 1;
ANSELAbits.ANSA4 = 0;
TRISAbits.TRISA5 = 1;
```

Last but not least, the ADC input. We use the output of this ADC to control the pulse width of the PWM module. Start by setting Port C7 as an input, change it to an analogue input (ANSELAbits.ANSA7) and then set AN9 (which is on Port C7) as the ADC input and enable the ADC using the ADCON0 register. To finish, ADCON1 sets the conversion clock select bits.

Main while loop code

Now that the set-up procedure is complete, let's take a look at the main while loop code (shown to the right).

First, the while loop checks for the Timer0 interrupt flag. The code enters into this while loop before performing any other tasks. This piece of code only checks for button presses and increments the mins, tenmins and hours variables if a button press is detected. It cannot exit this loop until the interrupt flag is set high, indicating that a second has passed.

```
while (!INTCONbits.TMR0IF) {
    if (!PORTAbits.RA4) {
        if (mins < maxmins) {
            mins++;
        } else {
            mins = 0;
            if (tenmins < maxtenmins) {
                tenmins++;
            } else {
                tenmins = 0;
            }
        }
        __delay_ms(250);
    }
    if (!PORTAbits.RA5) {
        if (hours < maxhours) {
            hours = hours + 0x10;
        } else {
            hours = 0;
        }
        __delay_ms(250);
    }
}
continue;
```

Ports A4 and A5 are the inputs for the minutes and hours buttons. They are normally high, we could write either if (PORTAbits.RA5 == 1) or if (!PORTAbits.RA5). Both are valid methods. To check if they are low, we use the ! sign, which indicates the opposite of the normal state. This can also be written as if (PORTAbits.RA5 == 0) or if (!PORTAbits.RA5).

```
INTCONbits.T0IF = 0;
```

Once the loop has been exited, it is necessary to reset the Timer0 interrupt flag:

```
LATCbits.LATC6 ^= 1;
```

The Timer0 interrupt flag has been set and reset, therefore a second has passed. This one line toggles the seconds LED (D12). This is not essential for the overall operation of the clock, but it is useful for a project like this because it lets us know the code is working.

After a second has passed and the seconds LED is toggled, it's time to alter the seconds, minutes, tens of minutes and hours variables. (See code at the top of the next page). First, the code increments the seconds value if it is less than the maxseconds

```

if(seconds < maxseconds) {
    seconds++;
} else {
    seconds = 0;
    if(mins < maxmins) {
        mins++;
    } else {
        mins = 0;
        if(tenmins < maxtenmins) {
            tenmins++;
        } else {
            tenmins = 0;
            if(hours < maxhours) {
                hours = hours + 0x10;
            } else {
                hours = 0;
            }
        }
    }
}
}

```

value (which is 59). Once the seconds value has reached 60, a minute has passed, so seconds is reset and minutes is incremented. Likewise, after 10 minutes: reset the mins and increment the tenmins variables. And again, when tenmins reaches 6: reset tenmins and increment hours. To finish, when the hours variable reaches 12, the clock resets back to zero to start again.

One thing to note here is that hours is incremented by 0x10 instead of by 1. This is because the hours LEDs are all on the upper four bits of Port B (B4, B5, B6 and B7) instead of the lower bits of Ports A and C (A0, A1, A2, C0, C1, C2, C3).

```

val = (LATC & 0xF0);
LATC = (val | mins);
val = (LATA & 0xF8);
LATA = (val | tenmins);
val = (LATB & 0x0F);
LATB = (val | hours);

```

This next piece of code is a little more complicated. Here, some Boolean algebra takes the values stored in the mins, tenmins and hours variables and places them straight into Ports A, B and C, which is where our LEDs are connected. The tricky part is that we want to write our values to these ports as easily as possible, without affecting any of the other ports we're using. For example, on Port C, we're using C7 as the ADC input and RC5 as the PWM output. In Port A, we're using A5 and A4 as the button inputs. Writing directly to these registers will disable all of these functions.

In order to perform these assignments correctly, we need to save the value stored in each Port and write only to the pins we're interested in. Looking at the first line (`val = (LATC & 0xF0);`), we use the Boolean operator AND (written as `&`) to AND the current contents of Port C with 0xF0. The AND function takes two binary digits and its output is a zero, unless *both* digits are 1. Fig.3 shows an example of this AND operation. Notice how everything in the last four digits becomes a zero,

LATC	01010101
0xF0	11110000
OUT	01010000

Fig.3. Example of Boolean AND operation

while the first four digits are copied. We take the output of this operation and store it in the re-useable variable val. This is known as 'bit-masking'; it defines which bits are to be kept and which bits are to be cleared. 0xF0 (11110000) represents the bit-mask for Port C. As only the lower three bits in Port A are used, the bit-mask is 0xF8 (11111000). Port B is different again, as the upper four bits are used, so the bit mask is 0x0F (00001111). The 1 in each case represents the bit we want to keep and a 0 represents the bit we want to clear.

Next, we want to store this value in Port C using `LATC = (val | mins);`. The symbol `|` (called 'pipe') is another Boolean operation – OR. Here we OR val and mins. Fig.4 shows an example of this OR operation. It takes two binary digits and the output is 1 if any of the digits is a 1.

The key thing to note here is the upper four bits of Port C do not change when they are written back. In Fig.3, the upper four bits are 0101 and in Fig.4, the upper four bits are the same again 0101. If we were to write the value in mins straight into Port C, these upper four bits would become 0000 and the ADC and PWM would stop working, turning off all of the LEDs.

```

GO = 1;
while (GO) continue;
CCPR1L = ADRESH;
CCP1CONbits.DC1B = (ADRESL>>6);

```

The ADC code here is exactly the same as the code we covered in the Analog to Digital Conversion article back in Part 5 of the *Beginner's Guide*. The code initiates the ADC conversion from port C7. Once it completes, it takes the value ADRESH, stores it in the CCPR1L register to set the pulse width of the PWM. Then we take the value in ADRESL, shift it by six and store the value in the duty cycle.

Download the code from *EPE's* website and use it to program your previously built board and you should now have a working *LED Binary Clock*. Fig.5 shows another version of the clock using blue LEDs instead of red. The veroboard size is wider, but the pinout is the same.

val	01010000
mins	00001001
OUT	01011001

Fig.4. Example of Boolean OR operation



Fig.5. Blue LED Binary Clock

Improvements

Now the project is built and everything hopefully works, so it's a good time to look at how to improve the clock. You may notice after leaving it on for a while that the clock time starts to drift. This is because we're using an internal clock, which is easy to implement, but not the most accurate in the long term. To improve accuracy, we need to add an external 32.768kHz quartz crystal clock to Ports A4 and A5. These are currently being used by the push buttons, so their implementation would need to be changed or removed. Alternatively, we could add a small piece of code to compensate for this time drift, which would act a little like adding a day every leap year to compensate for the fact that a solar year is 365.25 days long.

Mistake on last month's veroboard

One track cut was missing from last month's Fig.4 veroboard layout. The cut needs to be made at coordinate M11. You may notice the board acting strangely without this cut. Omitting it is not going to break anything, but it is necessary for correct operation.

Next month

We're nearing the end of the *Beginner's Guide* using the PICKit 3 Low Pin Count Demo Board. Next month, we'll look at interrupts and pull-ups, which we've touched on over the last two months.

Not all of Mike's technology tinkering and discussion makes it to print.

You can follow the rest of it on Twitter at @MikePOKeefe, up on EPE Chat Zone as mikepokeeffe and from his blog at mikepokeeffe.blogspot.com

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Inexpensive DC multi-voltage reference

MY DESIGN is a multilevel, dual polarity, DC variable-voltage reference source of good accuracy. It is based on R-2R networks that form current dividers producing currents that are divided successively by two – see Fig.1. An accurate 5V reference, two precision op amps, each with output transistors are required, along with accurate 20k Ω , 10k Ω and scaling resistors.

R-2R current divider

In the left-hand R-2R network, R4 and R5 are connected in parallel totalling 10k Ω . These are in series with R8 (10k Ω), so the total resistance of the three resistors is 20k Ω . This network is in parallel with R3 (20k Ω) so again we have a total of 10k Ω . Likewise, R7 returns the total to 20k Ω . It should be realised that the successive current flow down each 'vertical' resistor is half the value of the current flow

in the 'vertical' resistor to its left. In other words a binary ratio: 8-4-2-1.

Fig.1 shows that the current flowing down R1 from the 5V reference may be switched to ground or to the input of op amp IC1. The feedback resistor connected to this amplifier is calculated to cause the IC1/TR1 output voltage to be -8V for this single switched value of current. If now R3 is switched to feed the op amp, then its current will also flow into the summing point of the op amp. The output voltage will now be -10V. The state of the four switches (S1-4) in this section can be chosen to give a range of -1V to -15V in 1V steps.

Multiple stages

I have designed the circuit to be set up as a two or three-stage BCD (binary-coded decimal) system. My design will

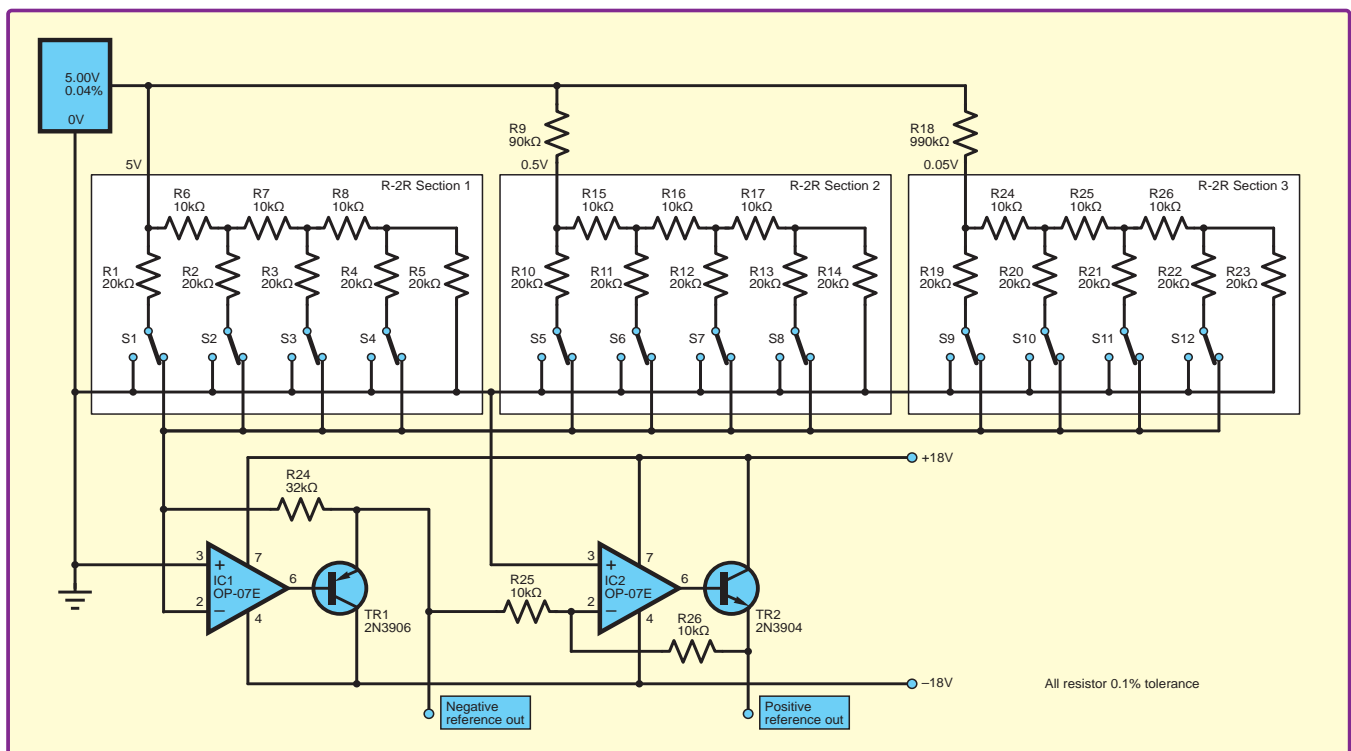


Fig.1. An inexpensive and flexible, switch-selectable DC voltage reference. Builders can choose the resolution they want

give voltages between $\pm 15V$ down to $\pm 0.1V$ for a two stage, or $\pm 0.01V$ for a three-stage circuit. These stages are supplied via their own series resistor: R9 is $90k\Omega$ and R18 is $990k\Omega$.

The second R-2R section, identical to the first, is fed from the 5V reference as described, such that the voltage at its input is $0.5V$. Subsequent action of its switches will then produce steps of $0.1V$ per minor step, adding to the voltage from the first stage. A third identical R-2R

section, with series resistor R18, will then supply $0.01V$ per minor step.

The negative voltages set up by IC1/TR1 are inverted by op amp IC2/TR2, to give the equivalent positive reference voltages. These supplies are capable of supplying up to $20mA$ each.

Ivan Eamus, Ashwell, Rutland

Steam train sound simulator

PRACTICAL applications for this circuit are most likely to be found among members of the model railway community, but the design should also be of interest to general electronics enthusiasts.

This circuit simulates the sound of a steam train, a sound that should be very familiar to the older section of *EPE's* readership. So, if you would like to enhance your model railway layout with some sound effects than building this design could be for you.

The circuit will simulate both slow and fast-moving steam trains, with an option to turn the sound effect off if required. In addition, at the push of a button, a constant steam sound can be generated, simulating the constant venting of steam which can occur while a train is standing in a station.

Noisy diodes

The noise-generating property of zener diodes is put to good use in this circuit – one is used as a white-noise generator for the very realistic steam sound simulation. Some zener diodes of the specified type (BZX85C-12V0) produce a louder circuit output than others of the same type. I bought and tested several of these devices in-circuit, and then selected the particular diode that gave the best results.

Zener diode D1, the noise generator is biased just into conduction by R1, a $100k\Omega$ resistor. The noisy output of the zener is applied to the input of a two-stage amplifier, which is based around IC1 and dual operational amplifier NE5532. The voltage supply for the circuit is $24V$ DC and the particular zener diode used is a $12V$ variant, the non-

inverting input to IC1a is conveniently biased to about mid-supply.

IC1a is configured as a non-inverting AC amplifier. (The inclusion of DC-blocking capacitor C3 converts the amplifier based around IC1a from a DC amplifier into an AC one.) The gain of this amplifier is 48 (calculated from $1+R3/R2$).

IC1a's output is fed to volume control potentiometer VR1 and then to the following inverting amplifier based around IC1b. The necessary AC coupling is implemented either side of VR1 by the action of C2 and C9. IC1b's non-inverting input is biased to mid-supply by R5 and R6. The amplifier has a gain of -20 (calculated from $-R7/R4$).

These two cascaded gains result in a combined gain of -960 . The output signal from IC1b is applied to the push-pull current-boosting stage comprised of TR1 and TR2, which are required to drive the low-impedance load of the loudspeaker.

This push-pull output stage has a voltage gain of a little under unity. The amplified white-noise signal is coupled to the loudspeaker by AC-coupling capacitor C4, which is required because the circuit operates from a single voltage supply. Without C4 there would be a standing DC voltage across the loudspeaker, which some loudspeaker types can't tolerate.

Chuff-chuff!

So far, I have described the amplification of the continuous output from a white-noise source and the resulting signal's application to a loudspeaker. In order to turn the signal on and off to simulate the 'chuff-chuff' sound of a steam train,

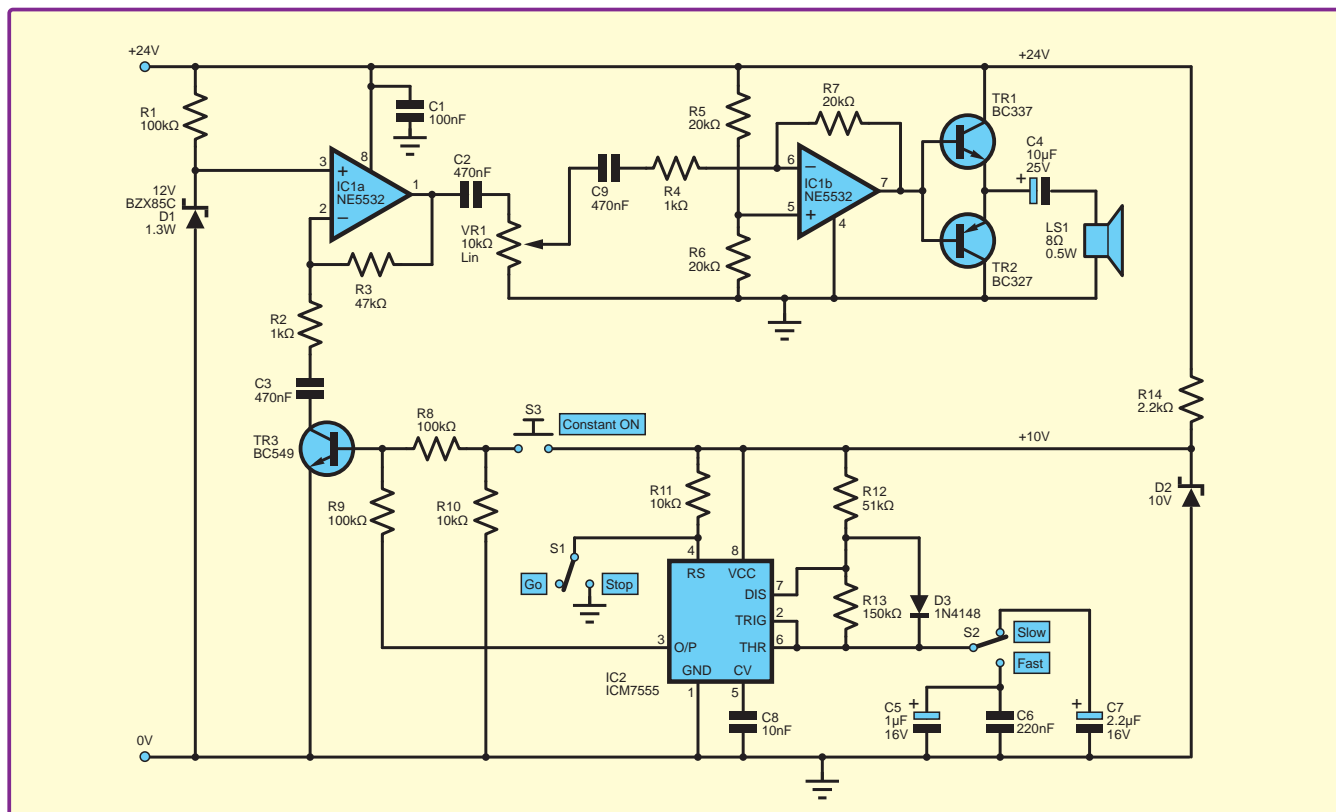


Fig.2. Add some audio realism to your model train layout with this steam train simulator

I have included a 7555 timer operating in astable mode. Its output switches transistor TR3 on and off. (A 7555 timer is a low-power CMOS version of the standard 555 timer.)

When the 7555's output goes low, it turns TR3 off, which has the effect of reducing the gain of IC1a to unity thereby vastly decreasing the amplitude of the white-noise signal and silencing the loudspeaker. When the 7555's output goes high, TR3 is turned on and the full gain of IC1a is restored. This particular method, used for turning the signal on and off, works very well and avoids rapidly charging/discharging any of the AC coupling capacitors, which would cause clicks to be emitted from the loudspeaker. TR3 can be turned on constantly by pressing momentary-action push-to-make switch S3, thus simulating a train venting steam while it is stationary in the station. The sound output can also be turned off if required with the aid of S1, which, when operated, pulls the re-set pin of the 7555 to ground resulting in its output (pin 3) being held at 0V.

Adjustments

Diode D3 is included in the design to enable the independent adjustment of the mark or space times of the 7555's output signal by varying the value of resistors R12 or R13 respectively. This keeps things simple when making adjustments to component values and also enables a waveform with a duty cycle of 50% or less to be generated, something that isn't possible without the diode in place. Varying R12 or R13 therefore adjusts both the duty cycle and the frequency of the 7555's output.

To vary just the frequency of the 7555's output waveform (keeping the duty cycle constant) adjust the value(s) of C5 and C6 or C7. What this means is that if the duty cycle of the output sound is to remain as set, a circuit builder can adjust the simulated speed of a train by varying just the size of the timing capacitors C5 and C6 and/or C7 to his or her own requirements. A facility has been included in the design to switch between fast-train and slow-train simulations by operating S2.

The 24V power supply is too high a voltage to power a 7555 timer and so a lower 10V rail (no pun intended!) is generated by the combination of R14 and D2. This circuit can be conveniently powered by a 24V DC output, mains-driven plug pack.

Chris Hinchcliffe, Dorset

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<table style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td>LAMBDA GENESYS</td><td>PSU GEN100-15 100V 15A Boxed As New</td><td>£325</td></tr> <tr><td>LAMBDA GENESYS</td><td>PSU GEN50-30 50V 30A</td><td>£325</td></tr> <tr><td>HP34401A</td><td>Digital Multimeter 6.5 digit</td><td>£275-£325</td></tr> <tr><td>HP33120A</td><td>Function Generator 100 microHZ-15MHZ</td><td>£260-£300</td></tr> <tr><td>HP53131A</td><td>Universal Counter 3GHZ Boxed unused</td><td>£500</td></tr> <tr><td>HP53131A</td><td>Universal Counter 225MHZ</td><td>£350</td></tr> <tr><td>HP54600B</td><td>Digital Oscilloscope 100MHZ 20MS/S</td><td>from £75</td></tr> <tr><td>IFR 2025</td><td>Signal Generator 9kHz - 2.51GHZ Opt 04/11</td><td>£900</td></tr> <tr><td>Marconi 2955B</td><td>Radio Communications Test Set</td><td>£800</td></tr> <tr><td>R&S APN62</td><td>Syn Function Generator 1HZ-260KHZ</td><td>£195</td></tr> <tr><td>Fluke/Philips PM3092</td><td>Oscilloscope 2+2 Channel 200MHZ Delay etc</td><td>£250</td></tr> <tr><td>HP3325A</td><td>Synthesised Function Generator</td><td>£195</td></tr> <tr><td>HP3561A</td><td>Dynamic Signal Analyser</td><td>£650</td></tr> <tr><td>HP6032A</td><td>PSU 0-60V 0-50A 1000W</td><td>£750</td></tr> <tr><td>HP6622A</td><td>PSU 0-20V 4A Twice or 0-50V 2A Twice</td><td>£350</td></tr> <tr><td>HP6624A</td><td>PSU 4 Outputs</td><td>£350</td></tr> <tr><td>HP6632B</td><td>PSU 0-20V 0-5A</td><td>£195</td></tr> <tr><td>HP6644A</td><td>PSU 0-60V 3.5A</td><td>£400</td></tr> <tr><td>HP6654A</td><td>PSU 0-60V 0-9A</td><td>£500</td></tr> <tr><td>HP8341A</td><td>Synthesised Sweep Generator 10MHZ-20GHZ</td><td>£2,000</td></tr> <tr><td>HP83731A</td><td>Synthesised Signal Generator 1-20GHZ</td><td>£1,800</td></tr> <tr><td>HP8484A</td><td>Power Sensor 0.01-18GHZ 3nW-10uW</td><td>£75</td></tr> <tr><td>HP8560A</td><td>Spectrum Analyser Synthesised 50HZ - 2.9GHZ</td><td>£1,250</td></tr> <tr><td>HP8560E</td><td>Spectrum Analyser Synthesised 30HZ - 2.9GHZ</td><td>£1,750</td></tr> 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<p>STEWART OF READING</p> <p>17A King Street, Mortimer, near Reading, RG7 3RS</p> <p>Telephone: 0118 933 1111 Fax: 0118 9331275</p> <p>USED ELECTRONIC TEST EQUIPMENT</p> <p>Check website www.stewart-of-reading.co.uk</p>																																																																																																																																																																																																																			

Variable voltage PWM

FREQUENT *EPE Chat Zone* contributor **noel** asked about achieving a variable-voltage pulse width modulation (PWM) control for a load, with the PWM switching signal originating from a microcontroller. This is a little unusual, typically the voltage applied when using PWM to control a load is fixed; the whole point being that it is easier to control the power to the load by digital switching than by analogue voltage or current control. We do not know **noel's** exact application or load requirements, but we can imagine a system which might need to handle a variety of loads at different voltages (maybe for test, evaluation or experimentation), so it is a legitimate design problem. **noel** describes his circuit as follows.

'I have a circuit where I am controlling a PWM current through a load using a PWM signal (0-5V) generated by a PIC16F84A. I need to add some bias to the PIC output so that the PWM signal amplitude can be varied between 0 and 5V.'

There was an issue with **noel's** original circuit, in that the PIC output could become shorted to the supply when the voltage-control potentiometer was at one end of its scale. A solution was posted by *Chat Zone* user **dave_g** (see Fig.1), which is very close to **noel's** original approach but avoided the short-circuit issue. The circuit varies the amplitude of the PWM signal from the microcontroller into the base of the load-switching transistor. The question is, 'how well does this circuit perform?' **dave_g** pointed out disadvantages of this approach in terms of potential power dissipation in the transistor and the possible effects of variable transistor gain.

In this article we look at the performance of the circuit in Fig.1 in detail using simulation. Before that, we will discuss PWM in general, particularly with respect to load power control. We discussed transistor switching in a recent issue (February 2017) so we will not repeat all the basics here. Readers unfamiliar with terms such as transistor saturation, forced beta and forward active operation may benefit from reading that article first. However, please note that there was an error in table 1 in that article, which was corrected in following issue.

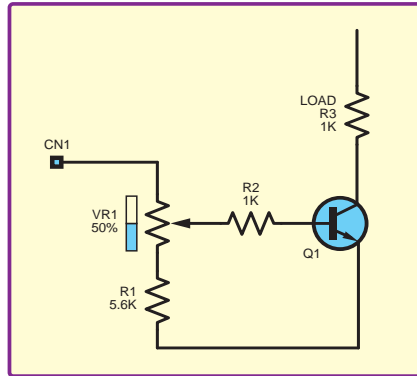


Fig.1. **dave_g's** version of **noel's** variable-voltage PWM circuit (from *EPE Chat Zone*)

PWM basics

PWM is used in a wide variety of applications including switch-mode power supplies, the control signals sent to radio-control servos, class D amplifiers and power delivery control. It is the latter which we assume is the purpose of **noel's** circuit, so we will focus on this application of PWM. The basic idea in PWM power delivery control is that a continuous sequence of pulses of fixed voltage (or current) is delivered to the load. The width of the pulses can be varied, as indicated by the name, 'pulse width modulation'.

The pulses are typically arranged to switch sufficiently fast so that it is best not to think of the load as switching on and off with each pulse, but instead as receiving an amount of energy (with each pulse) which is proportional to the width of the pulse (assuming fixed voltage). The load power is determined by the average rate at which energy is delivered by the pulses. Typically, the load itself low-pass filters the pulses to provide the averaging function. An example of this is applying power to a heating element where the element and/or the item being heated has a thermal time constant much longer than the pulse duration. If the self-averaging of the load is insufficient then electronic filters can be used, as in switch-mode power supplies.

PWM is commonly used to control LED brightness. This can be for straightforward dimming of LED lights but can also be used to manipulate perceived colour by controlling the relative intensity of closely spaced red, green and blue LEDs in the same package or housing. The LEDs

are actually able to switch on and off with the PWM pulses and the averaging processing occurs within the observer due to persistence of vision. More specifically, the PWM pulses to the LED must be faster than the flicker fusion frequency, which is the frequency at which a modulated light source appears to have constant intensity to a human observer.

The waveforms in Fig.2 illustrate the process of averaging a PWM signal. The constant frequency (1kHz) and voltage (1V) pulse waveform (red trace) starts with a 25% duty cycle (the pulse is 1V for 25% of the time and 0V for 75% of the time). After 30ms the duty cycle increases to 50% (equal on and off times) and at 60ms it increases to 75%. The other trace (blue) shows an average value obtained by low-pass filtering the pulse waveform. This represents the power delivered to the load in a PWM power control system.

Averaging

As can be seen in Fig.2, when the PWM duty cycle changes the averaging process means that it takes a while for the power level to settle to the new value. There is also a very small amount of ripple in the power level with each pulse (in Fig.2). The exact waveforms in a real system will depend on the properties of the filtering process, whether this is inherent in the load or is provided by filter circuitry. Fig.2 is for illustrative purposes only and does not aim to represent a specific system.

PWM has the potential to provide very efficient power control, that is, the vast majority of power used is delivered to the load rather than being dissipated in the controlling circuit. In Fig.1, power to the load is controlled by a bipolar transistor acting as an on/off switch driven by the PWM pulses on the CN1 input. If the transistor had zero on resistance, infinite off resistance (no leakage current) and did not require any base current to switch on the circuit then it would be extremely efficient. Real transistors do not achieve this perfection, but high efficiencies are possible. Power losses also occur during the switching process.

The base current is an issue; to achieve saturation when the transistor is on, a reasonably high base current will be needed. Saturation ensures that the voltage drop across the

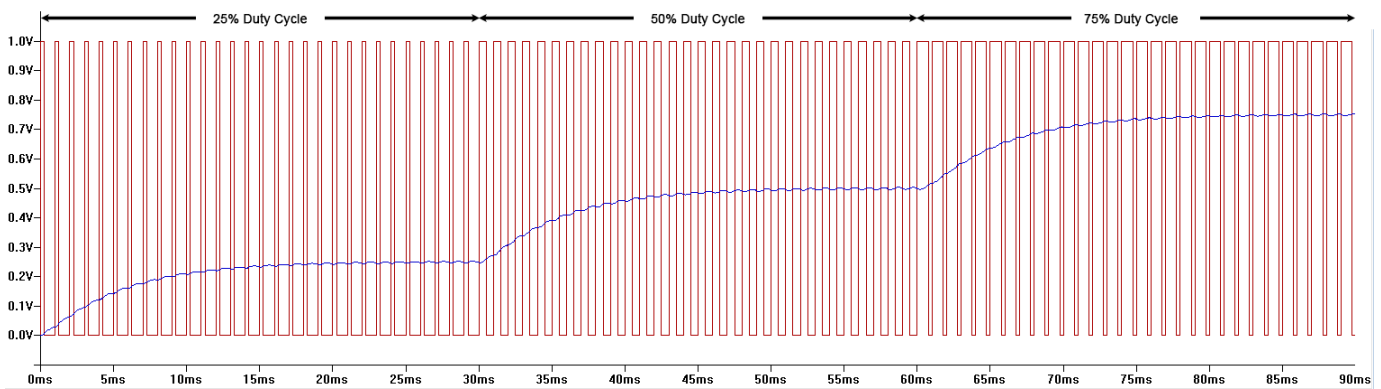


Fig.2. Example PWM waveform

transistor is low when it is conducting, keeping dissipation in the transistor low. MOSFETs are often used instead of bipolar transistors in applications such as this because they do not need a continuous gate input current when they are on. However, large currents may be required to rapidly charge/discharge a MOSFET's gate capacitance when switching. Another option, if the base current demand for a single transistor is too high, is to use a Darlington configuration, which was the subject of the February 2017 article mentioned above.

Generating PWM with a digital circuit

It is relatively straightforward to generate a PWM with a basic digital circuit. We require a time base, which will set the frequency of the PWM waveform. Typically, we need a pulse of one-clock-cycle duration at the PWM frequency to trigger each PWM pulse. This can be obtained using a binary counter configured to count continuously on the clock. Detecting when the counter is at a particular value (typically all 1s or all 0s in the count value) produces a regular one-clock-cycle-wide pulse to trigger the PWM pulse. The relationship between the clock and PWM frequencies will determine the resolution with which the PWM pulse width can be controlled.

To create the actual PWM pulses we can use the time-base signal to control loading of a presentable binary down counter, as shown in Fig.3. This counter is clocked from the same source as the free-running binary counter, which produced the time-

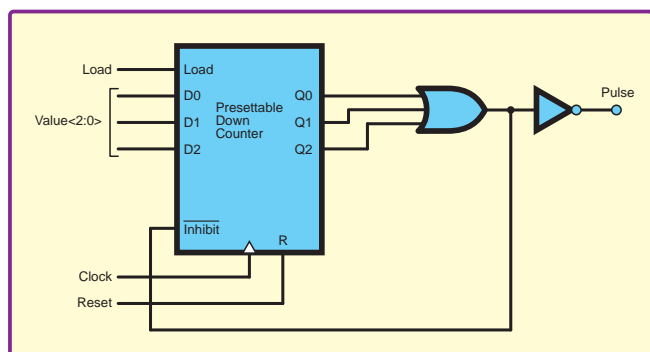


Fig.3. Presettable counter used to generate a PWM waveform

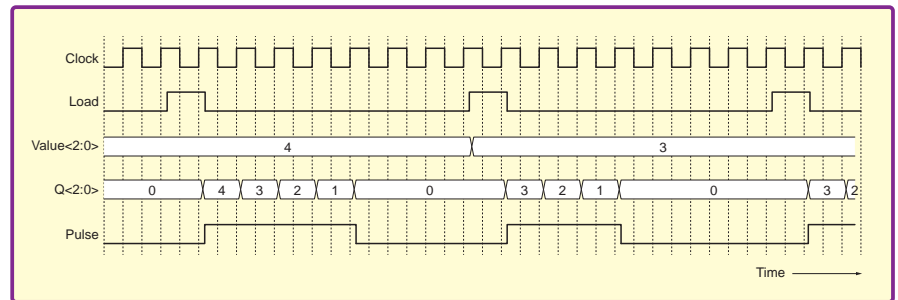


Fig.4. Waveforms for the circuit in Fig.3

base. A timing diagram illustrating operation is shown in Fig.4, which depicts the system changing the PWM pulse length from four to three clock cycles. The counter only has three bits in this example – sufficient for illustration, but a real PWM system would probably use many more bits.

The PWM pulse width is input to the counter as its preset value. When the time base/load pulse occurs the counter will load the pulse width value. On subsequent clock cycles it will count down. When it reaches zero this is detected by the OR gate and used to inhibit further counting. The counter will therefore stick at zero until it is loaded again. A presettable counter wired in this way is sometimes called a count-zero timer. The PWM signal is obtained by outputting a logic 1 when the count value is not zero.

Generating PWM with a microcontroller

Microcontrollers often have on-chip hardware to facilitate the production of PWM signals. For example, in the popular PIC microcontrollers from Microchip the on-chip hardware used to produce PWM is typically called the

Output Compare Module, which has a variety of uses, including PWM. The time period of the PWM is set by one of the chip's timers; these can be configured to produce pulses at regular time intervals by setting appropriate control registers and the relevant timer's

Period Register (PR). The timer is basically a counter that counts up (at a defined rate) until the PR value is reached and is then reset to start again from zero. In the Output Compare Module two registers are used to control the PWM pulse length (waveform duty cycle) – the output compare data register (OCR) and the secondary output compare data register (OCRCS). The OCRCS register holds the pulse length value set by the user. When the timer reaches its maximum value and is reset the value of the OCRCS register is transferred to the OCR register. Thus the OCRCS acts a buffer for the OCR – which actually controls the timing. This means that the user code can set a new value of pulse width at any time without disrupting PWM operation.

PWM wave production occurs as follows. During each timer cycle the PWM output starts at logic 1. When the timer's count value reaches the value held in the OCR register the PWM output is driven low and stays low until the start of the next timer cycle. Thus, the Output Compare Module produces a PWM pulse train with a pulse width set by the value written to the OCRS register and pulse frequency set by the PR register.

Variable voltage circuit simulation

We can investigate the properties of the circuit in Fig.1 using SPICE analogue circuit simulation. The popular free simulator LTSpice is suitable for this task. We do not have many details of noel's circuit apart from the 0 to 5V voltage range requirement, but this does not matter, we can explore the general behaviour of the circuit rather than trying to find specific numerical values.

The circuit in Fig.1 varies the PWM voltage using a potentiometer, but for the simulation it is more convenient to use a variable voltage source directly. Doing so will mean that the properties of the potentiometer will not be included, allowing us to concentrate more directly on the switching behaviour of the transistor. On the other hand, the potentiometer should not be ignored, so we address this first (with some ‘hand waving’ calculations).

Ideally, the potentiometer should provide a ‘strong’ voltage source that is not loaded by the transistor’s base current. If we assume a load of 100Ω (smaller than in Fig.1), then the load current is 50mA, and if we assume the transistor is in saturation with a forced beta in the order of 10-20 then that works fine with a 1kΩ resistor to limit base current to around 4mA from a 5V base drive. Using the rule of thumb that a potentiometer should be at least ten-times smaller than the load resistance connected to its wiper indicates a 100Ω potentiometer, which is a rather low resistance, and which may be difficult for the microcontroller to drive.

We would probably get away with a larger potentiometer resistance if we ignored the loading problem, but if its resistance is too large the base current may be limited too much. A loading-affected potentiometer may prevent us from calibrating the scale with the load voltage, but other issues with this circuit are likely to cause the same problem. If the power required by the load is much lower, all currents will be lower and this problem will be less severe.

Simulation set up

The schematic used for the LTspice simulation is shown in Fig.5. There are three copies of the transistor and load circuit (based on Fig.1) so that we can simultaneously compare three different scenarios, specifically to vary the load resistance and transistor gain. The 2N2222 is not used for any special reason – it is first on the list and is suitable to represent a generic transistor in this simulation. The Q1 circuit has a 100Ω load and a forward current gain (β_F or BF in SPICE) of 200, as set by the 2N2222 transistor model in LTspice. The Q2 circuit also has a default 2N2222 model, but the load is 150Ω. The Q3 circuit has a load of 100Ω, like Q1, but the transistor has a gain of 100.

The gain of 100 for Q3 is achieved using a custom model for that transistor, named 2N2222a. To do this on LTspice the original .model directive code is copied from the supplied bipolar transistors model text file, which typically installs (on Windows) at location:

```
C:\Program Files (x86)\LTC\
LTspiceIV\lib\cmp\standard.
bjt
```

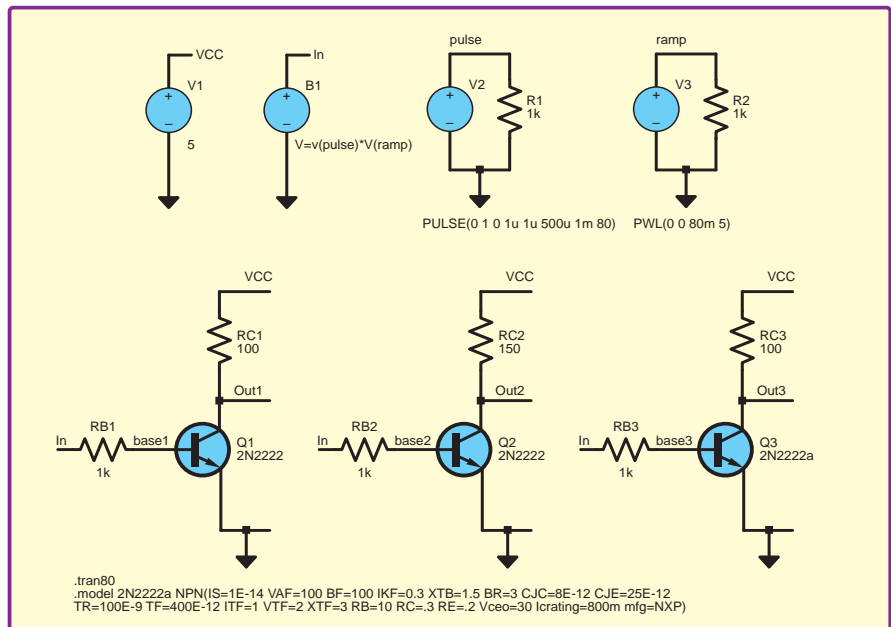


Fig.5. LTSpice schematic used for simulating the variable voltage PWM circuit

This is pasted into a SPICE directive on the schematic using the .op button. The pasted text is edited to change the model name and BF parameter value as shown below. The text must be all on one line.

```
.model 2N2222a NPN(IS=1E-14 VAF=100 BF=100 IKF=0.3 XTB=1.5 BR=3 CJC=8E-12 CJE=25E-12
TR=100E-9 TF=400E-12 ITF=1 VTF=2 XTF=3 RB=10 RC=.3 RE=.2 Vceo=30 Icrating=800m mfg=NXP)
```

Behavioural source

A varying voltage PWM signal, which aims to replicate the signal at the wiper of the potentiometer in Fig.1 (ignoring loading), is generated using the behavioural voltage source B1. In SPICE, behavioural voltage sources allow voltages to be defined using mathematical expressions related to other circuit voltages. In this simulation the B1 source is used to multiply together a constant amplitude 1V, 1kHz square wave with a linear ramp voltage that ramps from 0V to 5V over 80ms. The square wave and ramp voltage are produced using conventional SPICE voltage sources in pulse and piecewise linear modes respectively.

The B1 source will produce a ramping-amplitude square wave, which will represent moving the potentiometer over its full range. In the interests of a full investigation we ignore the purpose of resistor R1 in Fig.1 and allow the input voltage to cover the entire 5V range in an initial simulation. In a second simulation we will restrict the voltage range.

Results

The results of the first simulation are shown in Fig.6. This only refers to the Q1 circuit. The top trace is the input signal described above. The

second trace shows the base voltage; it increases more or less linearly with the input voltage until the transistor’s base-emitter junction switches on and the base then shows the near-constant voltage drop of a forward-biased PN junction.

The third trace shows the load voltage. This indicates that the circuit does allow the load voltage to vary between 0 and 5V, but this occurs over a small range of input voltages. This is to be expected because the transistor’s collector current, and hence load voltage drop, is highly sensitive to small base-voltage variations.

The fourth trace shows the transistor’s collector voltage. This is key to understanding how the circuit is operating. When the input voltage is very low the transistor is off, the load voltage is zero and the all of the 5V supply is dropped across the transistor (collector at 5V). When the input voltage increases to the point where the transistor just conducts it enters forward active mode. As the input voltage increases the current through the load and the voltage across it increase in proportion to the input voltage, and the collector voltage (during the ‘on’ pulse) decreases. Thus, we can manipulate the load voltage, but it is not normal to use a transistor in the forward active region of transistor operation for PWM load power control.

Once the load current is sufficient to result in a load voltage close to the supply voltage the transistor will enter saturation, with a small, nearly constant, collector voltage (during the ‘on’ pulse). This is the normal region of transistor operation for PWM load power control. Further increases in input voltage will not decrease collector voltage or increase load voltage or current, but using a larger input voltage will ensure the transistor remains saturated if the load resistance



Fig.6. Simulation results for the circuit in Fig.5

varies. Base current will increase with increased input voltage.

In the region of varying load voltage – from about 10 to 17ms in the simulation – the transistor is in forward active mode and the collector current (I_C) is equal to β_F times the base current, which is in turn set by the input voltage. The collector current flows through the load, R_{C1} , giving a voltage drop across the load of $I_C R_{C1}$. This highlights one of the problems with this circuit – in this region of operation we are really controlling the load current, not the load voltage. The load voltage therefore depends on the load resistance and transistor gain, so the circuit does not provide proper control of voltage for loads with variable resistance. Again, we cannot calibrate the voltage input control.

The fifth trace in Fig.6 shows power dissipation in the transistor. This curve comprises the power dissipation when the load is on and the power spikes that occur during switching. Here we are mainly interested in the former. When the transistor is off (before about 10ms in the simulation) and when it

is in saturation (after about 17ms) the transistor dissipation when the load is on is small. In the region where the transistor is in forward active mode, and has a significant collector voltage while it is on, there is much higher dissipation in the transistor. This is the region where we have ‘voltage control’, thus it comes at the expense of inefficient switching. This limits the circuit to being used for load powers much smaller than can be controlled using the normal saturation-based switching.

Second simulation

Results from the second simulation are shown in Fig.7. This repeats the first simulation but with the input voltage range reduced to the range that provides varying load voltage (0.62 to 1.3V was used). The first trace shows the input as before. The next three traces show the load voltage for the three transistor circuits discussed above. It can be seen that varying load resistance and transistor gain varies load voltage as discussed above (the same input voltage variation produces different load voltage variations in

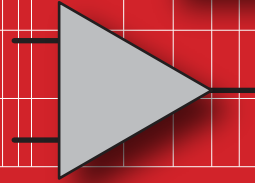
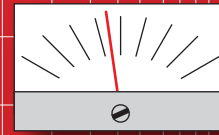
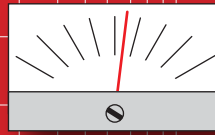
each case). The final trace again shows transistor power dissipation, although this time the switching spikes have been edited out to make the load-on power easier to see.

From the simulations we can see that this circuit is able to control the voltage of the PWM signal across the load, but there are several important problems. The transistor is not used in the standard way for load switching and has significantly higher power dissipation; the voltage varies with load resistances, so cannot be set for a variable load; and the load voltage depends strongly on transistor characteristics, which may vary between transistors and with temperature. The second two points and the possible loading of the potential divider (discussed earlier) mean that the voltage-setting control cannot be calibrated. The circuit could work for a rough-and-ready experiment, but a better solution would be to use a variable voltage regulator to set the PWM voltage and switch the load conventionally with the transistor fully on and off.

Fig.7. Simulation results for the circuit in Fig.5 with reduced input voltage range and showing the effect of varying load and transistor gain



AUDIO OUT



By Jake Rothman

Book reviews

I'm taking a break this month from hands-on audio to look at a couple of books. We don't do many book reviews in *EPE*, but there are some that really can't be ignored and I present here a couple of good reads with excellent practical material that I feel sure *EPE* readers will enjoy.

DIY Loudspeaker Building (2nd edition)
Julian Edgar
68 pages
CreateSpace Independent Publishing Platform
£19.75

This is the second edition of Julian Edgar's book – I confess I've not seen the first. It uses a unique practical style reminiscent of Wharfedale founder Gilbert Briggs' loudspeaker books from the 1960s. Briggs used to bolt bricks to speaker cabinet walls to control resonance problems, while Edgar glues fibre-based plant pots together to get an ideal spherical enclosure (a great idea that I have borrowed!). I couldn't get the Australian

glue he used, but good old British green Gripfill from the builder's merchants worked a treat. One of his recommendations I endorse is to use commodity materials, automotive parts and to 'rat' old boot fair and charity shop speakers. Channelling Julian's innovative spirit I have used manhole mastic for panel damping, piping for enclosures and even been known to slash old mattresses to get wool wadding. Julian is right when he says building a speaker with distributor parts costs more than buying them ready made, although I'm sure my friend Malcolm Jones, KEF driver designer and the founder of



You don't have to be a carpenter or cabinet maker – Julian Edgar encourages innovative cabinet construction techniques. For example, drainpipes can be used to make good sub-woofers.

Falcon Acoustics would disagree!

Julian does of course make use of modern computer techniques and that great Australian contribution to speaker design, Thiele Small parameters, for bass response optimisation. Bass response is what he regards as most important. His under-floor sub-woofer enclosures are another great idea I will use sometime. This leads onto my only doubt about his approach, in that he does not address UK design goals regarding

mid-range colouration, crossover integration and bass tightness. If accurate reproduction of vocals and acoustic music is your area, and you don't like dance music and automotive audio, then I would have to refer you to much more academic books, such as *High Performance Loudspeakers* by Martin Colloms. Julian's speakers are for fun, not studio monitoring, or as Anne Dudley from the Art of Noise said recently on Radio 4, 'there is nothing like listening to music out of a big pair of 1980s wooden speakers'.

Original and practical

I love his practical tips, such as using a moistened finger to detect air leaks from enclosures. The book is liberally illustrated with clear colourful photos, essential for practical work. He also points out spec sheets often lie and that there's no substitute for actually measuring a drive units parameters. There's no need to buy expensive flared bass reflex tubes, he just uses a heat gun and presses a



Julian Edgar's book is in the spirit of 1960s practical books like those of Gilbert Briggs. If you want to design studio monitors for the BBC, better buy Colloms's, but that costs three times more and is not nearly so much fun!



Watch out! – speaker building can become addictive and lead to divorce!

PVC pipe against a hard china bowl. However, I don't want to give too much away and the book only costs £19.95 from Amazon.

As well as the upcycling movement, which Julian was in on from the beginning, there has recently been a return to the pleasures gained from artisan craft skills, such as the Maker movement. I can see this book introducing many to the delights of home-brewed speakers. But beware, in my case I now have over 40 pairs!

Learning the Art of Electronics – A Hands-on Lab Course
Thomas Hayes, Paul Horowitz
1147 pages
Cambridge University Press
£35.99

This is the replacement for the *Art of Electronics Student Manual*, which was originally designed to accompany *The Art of Electronics (AoE)*. No longer a little ring binder notebook with beautiful hand-drawn diagrams, it is now a 1141-page 2kg behemoth. Some amusing diagrams are there; it is the first time I'd seen a circuit with emoticons describing decoupling (p.75). Hill's excellent hand drawn internal schematic of the LF411 op amp is still present (p.396) which shows you how to draw and annotate properly. No 'Euro boxes' here, just sensible clear US/Mil standard symbols. It is basically the course book for the renowned Harvard Physics department's electronics course, which is partly delivered by lecturer Tom Hayes. The book is dense because at least 30 years' experience is distilled into it.

I actually bought this book along with the accompanying *Art of Electronics* (third edition) before I was asked to review it. It cost £32.42 along with

AoE at £50.77 from speedyhen.com, cheaper than Amazon. Both were genuine items, not the counterfeit copies sometimes encountered online. Do note that you do not need to use this book with the *AoE*, it stands on its own.

Start at the beginning

The book starts electronics at the beginning and is practical and component centred, rather than taking a maths-based approach – unlike most university course books.

It only resorts to maths where it is essential. To paraphrase Lord Kelvin, 'if you can put a number to it you know what you are talking about'.

The *Lab Course* also takes components apart so one can see how they work. I always get my students to unwind an old Mullard polyester foil capacitor, cut up an electrolytic and prise a pot apart, but it seems like the guys at Harvard were doing this before me.

The section on reading components – which causes so many problems for beginners – was the best I've read. It brought back memories of a Racal 9835 counter I tried to fix. Confusion reigned because all the 74xxx series TTL chips were date coded 74xx.

The section on stability was illuminating, even for experienced design engineers. I always like graphs with circles saying 'trouble!' where curves intersect (p382).

Digital clarity

The digital section is great for teaching and it showed me how much I've got to learn in the area of microcontrollers. It does not rely on assumed knowledge like most books. The sections on glue logic (gates) and ADC/DAC conversion and sampling, where I have some experience, had all the essential information.

My criticisms are few; a missed off H ($\pm 2.5\%$) from the tolerance listing, too heavy to be a paperback and the awful digital scope screen-shots. However, I do sympathise with the authors here – why do most digital scopes produce a print file akin to an Etch-a-Sketch viewed through a tea strainer? Better results are achieved with photos of an analogue scope screen. I was pleased to see that the book rightly advises in the no-compromise section on equipping the lab and component stock, that beginners should get a second-hand analogue 'scope while they are still cheap.

More than a 'Lab Course'

Finally, as any good educational resource should, some interesting student projects are included and systems employing rotating mirrors and lasers are always a winner. The book also has a concise index, often missing from many books today. It has lots of part numbers in it, great for analogue fans like me.

It is not just a student's manual now, it is also an essential reference for university lecturers and I'll be using its material in my audio electronics courses for years to come.

Next month

In my next column, I'll return to soldering and design with a look at an excellent amplifier kit that shows you 'how to make a posh power amp for peanuts'.



Weighing in at over 2kg, my already-well-thumbed issue will take me over a year to fully digest.



Max's Cool Beans

By Max The Magnificent

The nth sense

In my previous column, I described how I am embarking on a new project to create something I call my *Bodacious Brain*. The first incarnation of this little beauty is going to be presented in a domed glass cylinder approximately 600mm tall and 250mm in diameter. (If it ends up being as awesome as I anticipate, a much larger incarnation could be in my future).

I'm planning on mounting this glass cylinder on an ornately carved wooden base, which will be loaded with sensors. At the time of writing, I haven't made a final decision as to which senses my brain will boast, except that I know I want it to respond to sound.

I also know that I don't want my brain to be limited to a single microphone – I want its auditory senses to be omnidirectional so that it can determine the direction from which a sound originates. Fig.1 shows a setup my chum Sree Harsha Angara threw together one weekend. It boasts a 60-pixel ring of tri-colored LEDs and six microphones. Sree is an applications engineer (AE) at Cypress Semiconductor, so he powered his creation with one of their PSoC (Programmable System-on-Chip) devices. When you make a sound, like clicking your fingers, the PSoC works out which microphone heard that sound first and lights the corresponding segment of LEDs.

In addition to sound, I think the *Bodacious Brain* should also respond to light in some way, such as sudden changes in ambient lighting conditions. I'm also thinking of using multiple ultrasonic sensors to detect when things are moving near the brain: approaching it, receding from it, or walking around it.

Whatever sensors we do provide, we will use them to feed stimulus into the main body (no pun intended) of the *Bodacious Brain*.

Flexing the old gray matter

And so we come to the brain itself. The idea is for this to be formed from a three-dimensional matrix of artificial neurons. Each of these simple neurons will have some

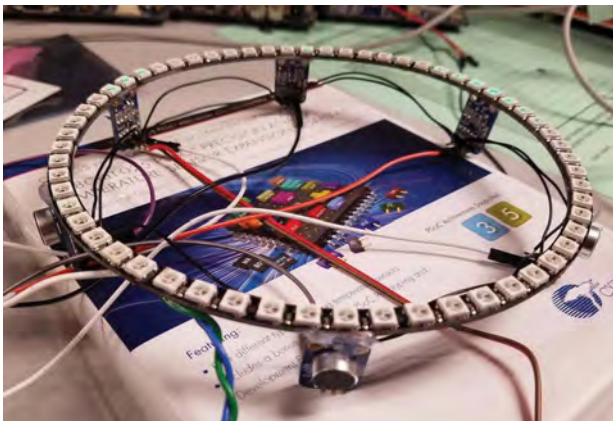


Fig.1. Omnidirectional auditory test bench, created by Sree Harsha Angara

sort of processing element and some number of connections to surrounding neurons. Also, each neuron will have an associated tri-colored LED to indicate its current state-of-play.

The idea is that each neuron will act independently. It will monitor any input signals originating from surrounding neurons (or from the brain's primary senses/sensors) and – based on the stimulus it receives – it will manipulate its LED and feed output signals back into the matrix for use by other neurons.

The actual implementation details are still up in the air. Should the neural matrix be nice and neat, for example, or should it be higgledy-piggledy (random). Personally, I'm tending toward the latter option, but I'm still open to persuasion the other way.

Originally, I was toying with the idea of each neuron having knowledge of its relative X-Y-Z location in the 3D matrix. My thought was that, ideally, the neurons would determine their locations as part of a self-discovery process when the brain was initially powered up, thereby making it easier to keep on adding more-and-more neurons over time.

However, I'm now moving away from this idea. The main reason for considering it was that I was also thinking of using the brain as a sort of spectrum analyzer display for music, but I already have my *Bodacious Acoustic Diagnostic Astoundingly Superior Spectromatic (BADASS)* display for that (see my video at: <http://bit.ly/115ncTc>, and June to October 2014, *EPE*). The whole thing about the *Bodacious Brain* is that it should respond to stimulus in a random manner; also, not implementing spatial awareness will make our lives much easier.

The answer's 42 – what's the question?

The big question at the moment is what we're going to use as the processing element at the center of each neuron. My initial thought was to use Arduino Nanos (Fig.2) because they are cheap (you can pick them up for \$3 a piece if you look around) and I have a lot of experience with them.

One big advantage with Arduino Nanos is that their 0.1-inch pin pitch means you can use them on breadboards. I have about 25 of these little scamps here in the office, so these are what I was planning on using as the basis of my prototype, until... but let's not get ahead of ourselves.

Another big advantage is that they have 20 pins I can use as digital inputs and outputs. One point I should probably mention at this stage is that, whatever I decide to use as the processing element, once I've finished experimenting, the final implementation will use pre-programmed processors mounted on custom breakout boards. I'm visualising ~35mm circular boards with the processor mounted on one side, the tri-colored LED mounted on the other, and a ring of vias for power, ground, and input/outputs around the periphery.

An alternative processing element would be one of Cypress Semiconductor's PSoC devices. These little rascals

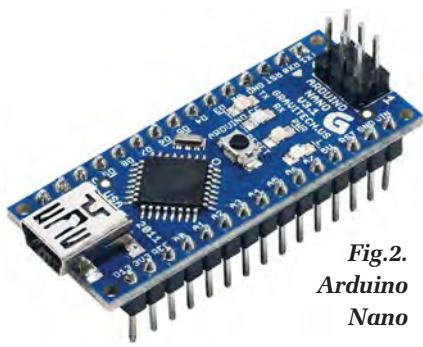


Fig.2.
Arduino
Nano

boast a block of programmable analogue fabric, a block of programmable digital fabric, and a processor core (an 8-bit 8051 or a 32-bit ARM Cortex), all on the same silicon chip. They also have a rather nice drag-and-

drop graphical interface you can use to configure the functionality of the programmable analogue and digital blocks using pre-defined functions.

However, a surprise contender has recently leaped to the fore – the GreenPAK5 (<http://bit.ly/2k54pkd>) from **Silego.com**. These teeny-tiny (2mm × 3mm) devices are jam-packed with functional goodness, including four analogue comparators, two voltage references, seventeen digital function blocks (flip-flops, latches, look-up-tables, delays, and counters), an 8-byte RAM, and – of particular interest here – an asynchronous state machine (ASM).

The ASM boasts eight states with 24 inputs (three per state), and it's equivalent to having a simple microcontroller (MCU) running approximately 100 lines of code. Although most engineers cover at the thought of asynchronous state machines, this little scamp has been implemented in such a way as to ensure no metastability issues, no race conditions, and full determinacy, even when multiple inputs transition simultaneously.

Silego has a really intuitive, easy-to-use graphical design environment called GreenPAK Designer that you can download for free. Although GreenPAK devices are really intended to be purchased and used in the hundreds of thousands as part of large production runs, they are also available individually for only \$1.25 on small, 20-pin breakout boards with 0.1-inch pitch headers suitable for use on breadboards. You also need a \$60 development/programmer board (<http://bit.ly/2l5lNpW>), but happily I already have one sitting on my desk (what are the odds?).

On the one hand, this isn't going to give my neurons as much processing power as I was originally expecting. On the other hand, it's nice to have something you can 100% wrap your brain around and, the more I think about it, the more an ASM-based neuron seems to be the right way to go. I'm going to have to noodle on this for a while and I will report further later. In the meantime, have a good one!

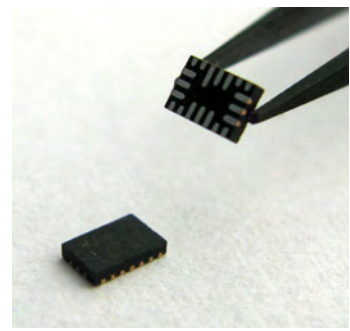


Fig.3. GreenPAK5 from Silego

Any comments or questions? – please feel free to send me an email at: max@CliveMaxfield.com

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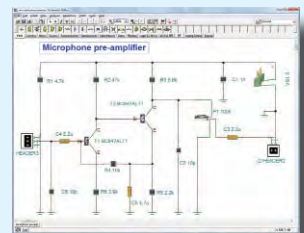
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The CD-ROM also contains all of the software for the Teach-In 2 series and PIC N' Mix articles, plus a range of items from Microchip – the manufacturers of the PIC microcontrollers. The material has been compiled by Wimborne Publishing Ltd. with the assistance of Microchip Technology Inc.

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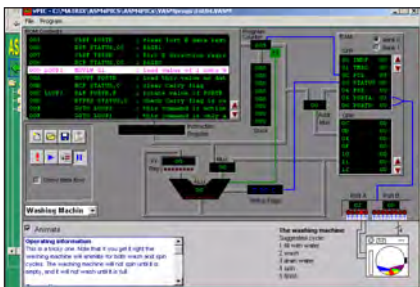
ASSEMBLY FOR PICmicro V6

(Formerly PICtutor)

Assembly for PICmicro microcontrollers V3.0 (previously known as PICtutor) by John Becker contains a complete course in programming the PIC16F84, 16F88 and 16F877a PICmicro microcontroller from Arizona Microchip. It starts with fundamental concepts and extends up to complex programs including watchdog timers, interrupts and sleep modes.

The CD makes use of the latest simulation techniques which provide a superb tool for learning: the Virtual PICmicro microcontroller, this is a simulation tool that allows users to write and execute MPASM assembler code for the PIC16F84 microcontroller on-screen. Using this you can actually see what happens inside the PICmicro MCU as each instruction is executed, which enhances understanding.

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- Shows data flow and fetch execute cycle and has challenges (washing machine, lift, crossroads etc.)
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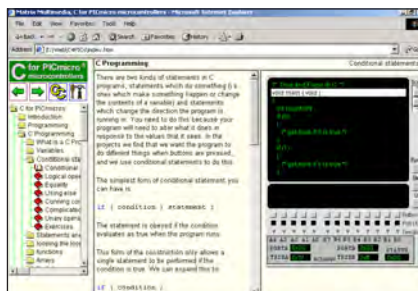


'C' FOR 16 Series PICmicro Version 5

The C for PICmicro microcontrollers CD-ROM is designed for students and professionals who need to learn how to program embedded microcontrollers in C. The CD-ROM contains a course as well as all the software tools needed to create Hex code for a wide range of PICmicro devices – including a full C compiler for a wide range of PICmicro devices.

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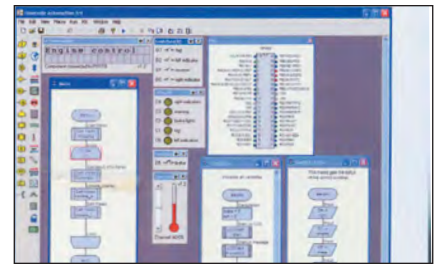
This software will run on Windows XP or later operating systems

FLOWCODE FOR PICmicro V7

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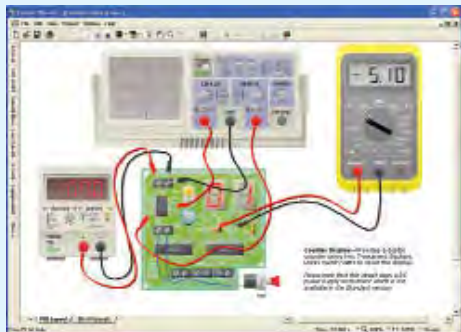
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This software can be used with the *Jump Start* and *Teach-In 2011* series (and the *Teach-In 4* book).

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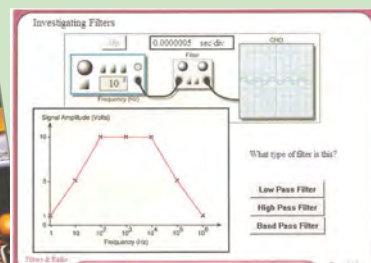
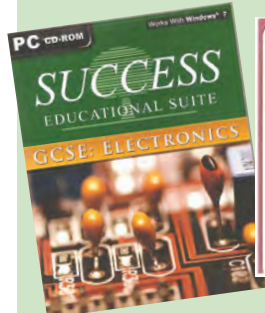
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Test current $I_B=4.981mA$ +	Test current $I_B=4.583mA$ +	Base-Emitter U $V_{BE}=1.321V$ +	RED GREEN BLUE Anod Cath +	Pinout for D2 +
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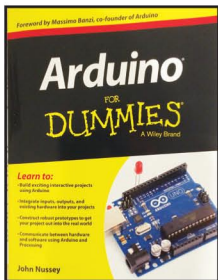
Teach-In 2016 Exploring the Arduino

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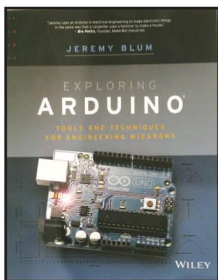
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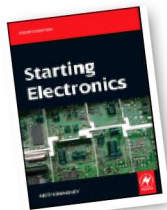
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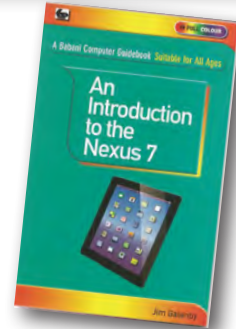
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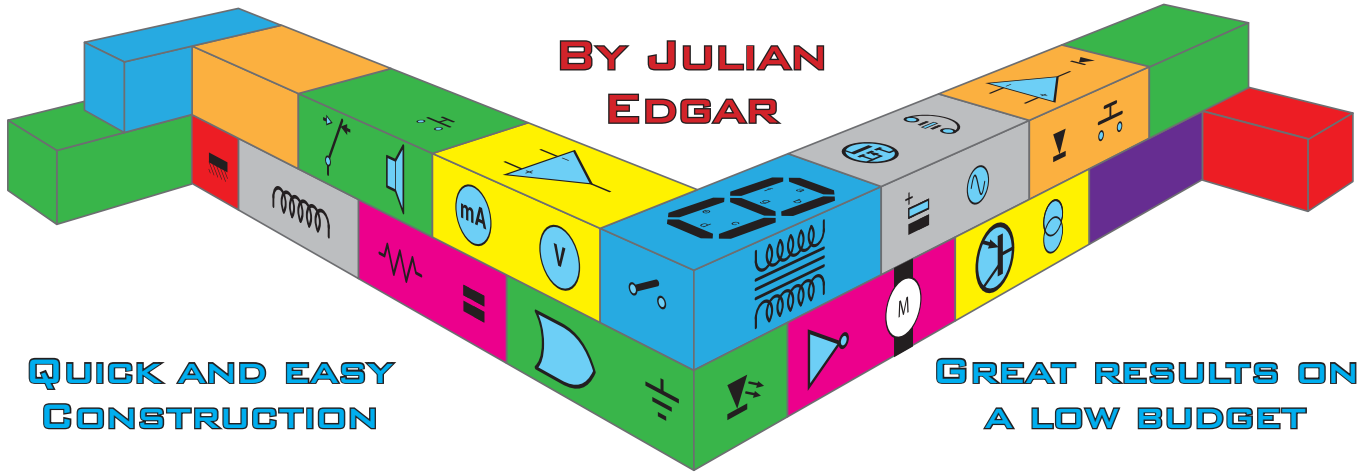
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ELECTRONIC BUILDING BLOCKS

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NEW CONTROL SYSTEM FOR A SPOT WELDER

Large complex projects are fun, but they take time and can be expensive. Sometimes you just want a quick result at low cost. That's where this series of *Electronic Building Blocks* fits in. We use 'cheap as chips' components bought online to get you where you want to be... FAST! They represent the best value we can find in today's electronics marketplace!

This month, I'd like to cover something a little different. Rather than look at individual products purchased on eBay (or other online sites), I'd like to cover a complete project built from parts sourced very cheaply to revolutionise the usefulness of an old workshop machine.

It's not a project that each of you will be rushing off to do for yourself, but it's still interesting for two reasons. First, it shows just what is possible with such

a vast range of electronic modules and components now available; and second, it shows that projects that would have once not been viable because of cost have now not only become viable, but cheap! Such is the change also in the economics of our hobby over the last few years.

The project

I have an extensive home workshop with a variety of metal- and wood-working tools. For example, I am lucky enough to own oxy-acetylene, MIG and TIG welders. However, I decided that additionally I wanted a spot welder, but found that these welders have not come down in price in the way that other welders have. (And what is a spot welder? See the accompanying box.)

I therefore decided to buy an old, second-hand spot welder. My machine probably dates back to the 1950s, and weighs a considerable 76kg when mounted on its stand – see Fig.1. Cost was £350, about half the price of a new welder with similar secondary current.

The old welder was designed so that when the foot pedal was pushed down, the electrodes clamped the workpiece.

Press further, and a switch was triggered that activated the current.



Fig.2. The finished welder with the new control panel, positioned above the welding electrodes. The panel incorporates a digital timer, digital mains voltage and current meters, a 'welding occurring' pilot light, and a manual weld over-ride switch.

Because the arms were closed by a foot pedal, the welding time was set only by movement of the operator's foot.

In spot welding, the duration of the weld time is very important. For example, when welding thin gauge metal, too short a weld time (eg, 0.2s) gives a weak weld. On the other hand, too long a weld time (eg, 0.5s) and the metal becomes overheated, with liquid metal expelled from the weld. I



Fig.1. This old spot welder has a high current capability and is built like a tank. However, as purchased, the welding duration was controlled by a mechanical switch operated by a foot pedal. This made setting the welding duration a bit hit and miss.



Fig.3. A fan was added to circulate air around the transformer. It's funny to think that when the welder was produced over 50 years ago, cooling fans such as these were unknown!

therefore decided to add an adjustable electronic timer that would allow the welding duration to be accurate and repeatable, as shown in Fig.2.

These welders draw a lot of current from the mains and develop secondary currents measured in thousands of amps. So what would happen if you went on a welding frenzy? The answer would be the welder's transformer would get hot. The fan shown in Fig.3 was therefore added to cool the transformer.

Finally, with these simple transformer-type spot welders, the amount of secondary current (the current that does the welding) depends on the mains voltage, as received by the welder. And because of the very high current draw, the voltage drop can be considerable. Throw in that the mains voltage where I live (rural Australia) can vary by 20V or more (and that's off-load!), and I decided to add a mains voltage display. When looking for one of those, I realised that I could also add a mains current display at little additional cost – so I bought a combined voltage/current meter, as shown in Fig.4.

In detail

The major electronic changes are:

- New solid-state relay used to control mains-power switching
- Length of weld time controlled by a user-adjustable digital timer
- Micro-switch automatically triggers the timer when full electrode clamping pressure has been reached
- Over-ride pushbutton can be used by the operator to give a manual weld time
- New control panel has main on/off switch, 'welding occurring' pilot light, manual weld over-ride pushbutton, adjustable digital timer, and combined mains voltage and mains current meters.

What is spot welding?

Spot welding, also known as resistance spot welding, is one of the oldest of electrical welding processes. Elihu Thompson, an English-born American engineer, invented spot welding, with his major patent in this area awarded in 1885.

The main element of most current spot welders is a large transformer. The transformer comprises a primary winding (connected to mains power) and a secondary winding, connected to the welding electrodes. The transformer reduces mains voltage (eg, 240V) to a much lower voltage (eg 2V). At the same time, the available current at the welding electrodes increases massively. For example, if the current drawn from the mains socket is 15A, and the voltage step-down ratio is 120 times, then the current available at the welding tongs is 120 times greater, or 1800A! (This assumes a perfectly efficient transformer, but you get the idea.)

When such high current is passed through the sandwich of sheet metals clamped between the welding electrodes, the higher resistance that is present at the join between the two metals causes heat to be generated. That heat is sufficient to create a 'nugget' of molten material that, when it cools, has joined the two sheets. No metal is added and the weld is actually within the join of the two sheets, rather than external to them.

Many steel consumer goods use spot welding. For example, cars manufactured from steel use numerous spot welds to hold together the body parts. In fact, a typical bare car body shell contains about 5000 spot welds, and some car factories produce more than 20 million spot welds per week.

- Small power supply generates 12V for solid-state relay control, digital timer and pilot light.

Let's take the major parts one at a time.

1. Solid-state relay

When set to its highest power, the welder can draw up to 28A, and it takes a 38A gulp when first starting a weld. These are very high currents at 240V, and would cause problems to most mechanical relays. So instead of a mechanical relay, a Crydon TD2425 solid-state relay was used to switch mains current (Fig.5). This relay is

rated at 25A continuous and has a maximum surge current rating of 250A. While the welder can draw more than 25A, it does not do so continuously, so this relay should be fine. Similar relays are available on eBay for under £10.

Given that welding occurs for such short periods, I wondered if a heat sink would even be necessary for the solid state relay, but some load-testing of the bare relay showed that it was getting warm. To address this, I decided to mount the relay on a thick aluminium plate that would act as a heat sink.

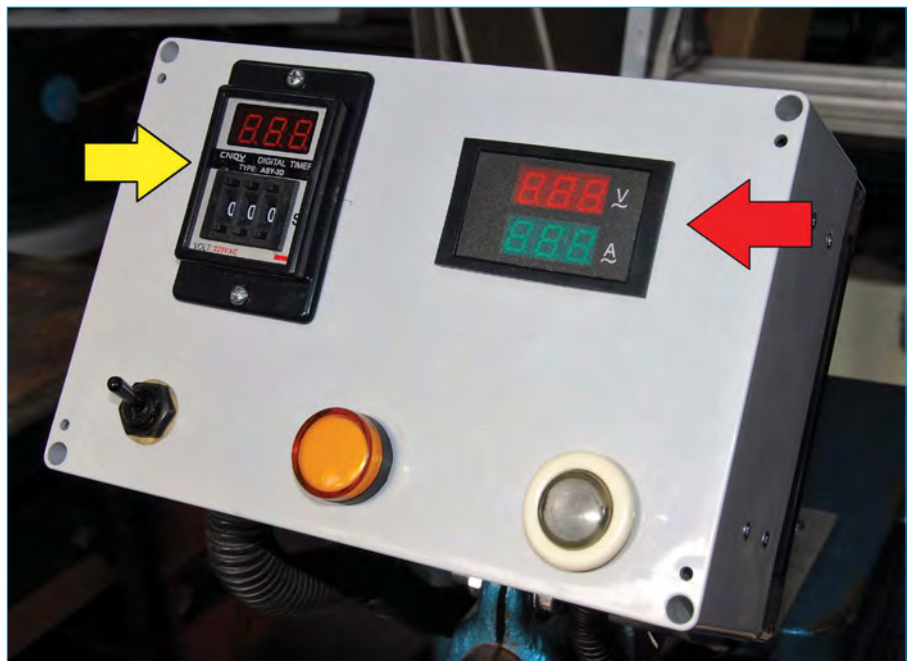


Fig.4. The new control panel for the welder. The yellow arrow points to the adjustable digital timer that sets the period during which welding current flows. The red arrow shows the mains voltage and current meters. Across the bottom are the on/off switch, the 'welding occurring' pilot lamps, and the manual over-ride welding pushbutton. Note that despite its 220V label, the timer is actually a 12V model.

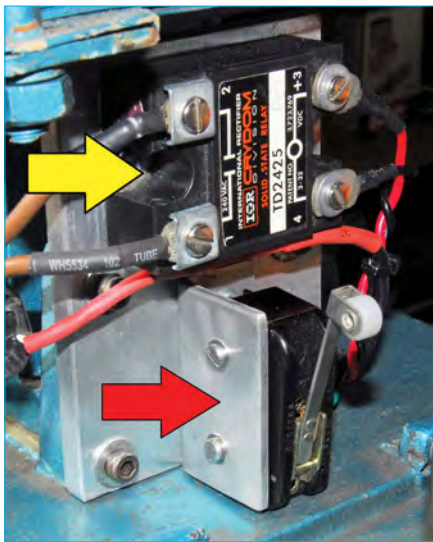


Fig.5. This photograph shows the welder with its rear cover removed. The new solid-state relay (yellow arrow) controls the primary current flow to the transformer. Note the heat sink for the relay provided by the thick aluminium plate. The red arrow points to the micro-switch that is triggered when the foot pedal achieves full electrode clamping pressure. This switch then activates the welding timer.

The solid state module is operated by a low-voltage, low-current source – 12V in this case.

2. Micro-switch

A micro-switch is the main trigger for the welding current to flow. In the original welder, the movement of the foot pedal operated a heavy-duty switch. This switch comprised big chunks of copper, and worked directly on the mains power supply to the transformer. To replace this, the original switch was removed and was replaced (working in much the same position) by the micro-switch, triggered by an adjustable cam plate that moves with the foot pedal. I had the micro-switch on the shelf, but similar ones cost about £2.

The micro-switch feeds power to the digital timer. Therefore, when the

switch is tripped, the digital timer's output is activated, so switching on the solid state relay (and therefore the welding current) and starting the timer countdown. When the timer reaches zero, the solid-state relay is turned off, ending the weld current period.

3. Digital timer

The heart of the new control system is a digital timer. Available very cheaply on eBay (search for 'AC/DC 12V 8 Pin DPDT 0.01-9.99 Second 9s Time Delay Relay Timer Black ASY-3D'). The timer uses thumbwheel adjustable switches to set the output time anywhere from 0.01s to 9.99s. At the time of writing, eBay item 121781422816, which costs just £7 including postage. (Note that an 8-pin socket is required for the timer – it's purchased separately.)

When the timer is powered-up by the micro-switch, the internal output relay is energised. The digital display then counts down the timed period and when this has ended, the output relay is turned off.

Well that was the theory! Unfortunately, the timer cannot be configured in this way. Instead, the nearest function is that the relay output of the timer is as follows: on when you'd like it to be on, and off when you'd like it to be off. To achieve the required reversal in function, an automotive 12V 'normally closed' relay (about £3) was added to the circuit.

With the timer and additional relay working, the internal output relay of the timer activates the external normally closed relay, that in turn triggers the solid-state relay, so feeding mains to the transformer (and finally a much larger secondary current to the welding electrodes). It does this for only the user-selectable timed period.

In addition, the output of the timer switches on the 'welding occurring' pilot light – this light is wired in parallel with the solid-state relay control input. A 12V LED pilot light is used for this function.

In parallel with the additional relay's output is the manual over-ride welding push-button. With the timer set to 0, this allows the operator to determine the welding time – when the micro-switch is activated by the foot pedal, welding time continues for as long as a finger is on the button.

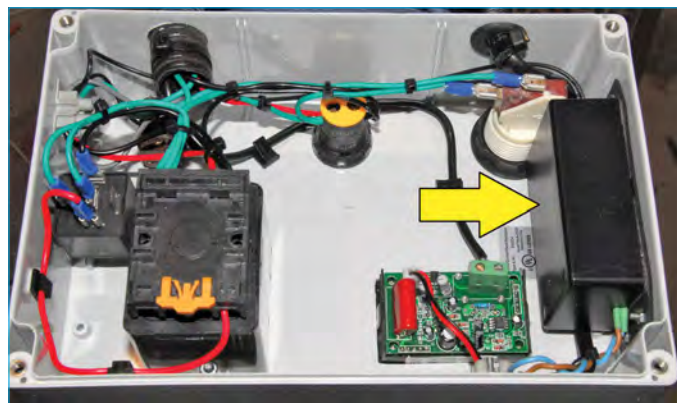


Fig.6. This view shows the inside of the new control panel. The arrow points to the rehoused 12V plugpack that supplies power for the electronics. At the far left is the additional relay required to reverse the timer's control logic.

4. 12V power supply

12V power for the solid-state relay control, digital timer, pilot light and cooling fan is provided by the guts of a 12V regulated switch-mode plugpack, mounted within a new insulated plastic box. The plug pack was one of the salvaged ones I have on the shelf.

5. Mains current and voltage display

The combined volt and amp meter is available on eBay – search under 'AC 80-300V 100A LED Panel Digital Ammeter Voltmeter Volt Amp Meter 110 220-240V'. At the time of writing, eBay item 322130836484, which costs just £7, including postage.

The same leads that power the meter monitor the voltage. The current is monitored by means of a Hall-effect sensor that comprises a ring through which one of the mains power conductors is passed. (Note that there is no electric connection between this monitoring device and the conductor.) The output of the Hall-effect sensor is then connected to the on-board socket of the display. I used shielded cable to make this connection.

Conclusion

The changes have revolutionised the welder. How? In some ways, not as I expected!

First, the use of the electronic timer means that, especially when weld times are short, excellent results can be obtained. My test for this is to weld two mild steel roofing nails together. This welding requires precise timing – because of their low thermal mass, too long a welding period and the nails completely melt – but too short and the weld is not strong. However, with the use of the timer, consistent welds can be made each time on tricky materials such as these.

Second, the voltage and current displays have proved to be more useful than expected. If the contact between the materials being welded is not effective (for example, there is residual paint, plating or corrosion) then the current flow shown on the meter is much lower than normal. This immediately alerts the operator that the weld is going to be poor.

Last, the cooling fan keeps the transformer temperature noticeably lower than occurred previously.

Not long ago, a project such as described here would have cost three or four times what I paid – making the whole welder modification a project not worth pursuing. But for an all-up project cost of around £40, the results are fantastic.

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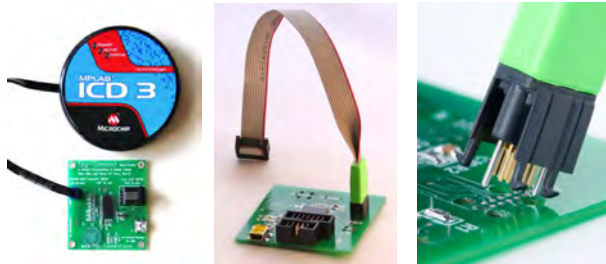


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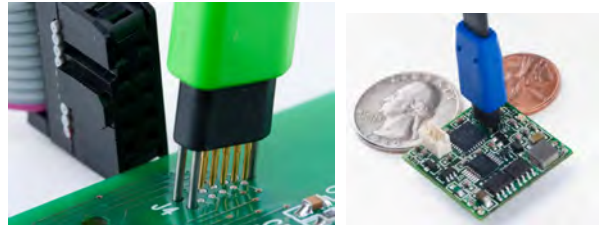


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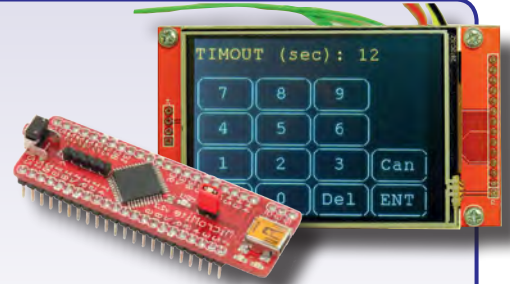
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Next Month

Content may be subject to change

The Micromite LCD Backpack

You've met the 'Mighty Micromite', now it's time for your first serious Micromite project – adding a touch-screen LCD. *The Micromite LCD Backpack* combines a full colour touch-sensitive LCD panel with a low-cost 32-bit microcontroller running a BASIC interpreter. It packs an incredible amount of power at an amazingly cheap price, and will leave you thinking up project after project where you could put it to good use.



Arduino Multifunction 24-Bit Measuring Shield – Part 2

The April issue introduced our new *Arduino-based Multifunction Meter* and gave the circuit details. Next month, we'll describe how to install the software and firmware that's needed to control it from a PC. Plus, we'll explain how to get it going, how to calibrate the various ranges (if you have the facilities) and how to use the finished unit.



Precision 230V/115V, 50/60Hz Turntable Driver

This *Precision Turntable Driver* will power belt-drive or idler-driven turntables with 230VAC at 50Hz or 115VAC at 60Hz. As a bonus, the turntable pitch is capable of being adjusted over a range of $\pm 12\%$, which is great for music-teaching applications. It also enables you to adjust the music speed to obtain the correct number of beats to the minute for dancing applications.



PLUS!

All your favourite regular columns from *Audio Out* and *Circuit Surgery* to *PIC n' Mix* and *Net Work*.

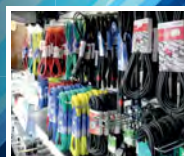
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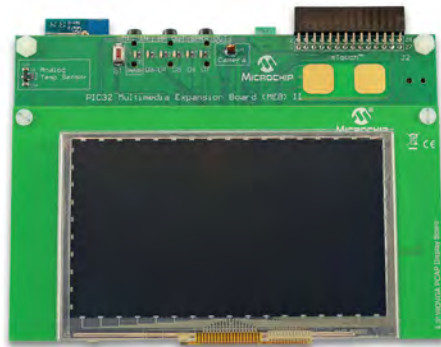
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MICROCHIP

Development Tool of the Month!

Multimedia Expansion Board II



Part Number
DM320005-2

Overview:

Multimedia Expansion Board II (MEB-II) is a highly integrated, compact and flexible development platform which works with PIC32MZ EF Starter Kit with Crypto Engine (DM320007-C), PIC32MZ EF Starter Kit (DM320007) and the MEB/MEB II UART-to-USB Adaptor Board (AC320101).

The MEB II supports detachable display boards allowing for a variety of resolutions and includes a 4.3" WQVGA PCAP touch display daughter board. The kit also has an onboard 24-bit stereo audio codec, VGA camera, 802.11 b/g wireless module, Bluetooth HCI transceiver, temperature sensor, microSD slot and analog accelerometer.

Key Features:

- ▶ 24-bit stereo audio codec
- ▶ Integrated 802.11 b/g wireless module
- ▶ Low-cost Bluetooth HCI transceiver
- ▶ Optional EBI SRAM memory
- ▶ 4.3" WQVGA PCAP touch display daughter board
- ▶ microSD slot
- ▶ mTouch® sensing solutions buttons
- ▶ Analog temperature sensor
- ▶ VGA camera
- ▶ PICtail™ connector

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