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Our July 2017 issue will be published on Thursday 1 June 2017, see page 72 for details. NEXT MONTH! - Highlights of next month's EPE

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7 1

70

71

72



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677



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What it says on the tin

Mark Nelson's *Techno Talk* column has a spooky way of tapping into a number of tech-related preoccupations of mine, and this month has been no exception. His comments about the shoddy – would 'dishonest' be too much of a stretch? – service that some ISPs provide really struck home the day I received his email.

Like most of you, I depend very heavily on a reliable, fast broadband service. I work from home and need to send and receive large files on a regular basis. If I can't do that then working life very quickly becomes very difficult. For that reason I tend to prioritise quality and reliability over price and I don't mind paying a little over the odds for what I expect to be a bullet-proof connection.

Hell is tech support

To be fair to my ISP, most of the time my connection is reliable and fast, but every six months or so I get a problem that the ever-patronising recorded message, asking if I have 'tried turning it off and on' fails to fix. I'm then forced to contact my ISP. French existentialist philosopher Jean-Paul Sartre, at his misanthropic best, famously said that 'Hell is other people'. I'm not sure he'd make that claim today – hell is very definitely navigating the nightmare that is telephone tech support. Its myriad of dead-end options and cheery promises to 'direct you to the best available help' regularly reduces me to screaming obscenities at a deaf automaton. I do try and be civil to the underpaid staff in Manila and Bangalore, who have to deal with grumpy, stressed customers for eight-plus hours a day, but my patience very nearly snapped this week.

Having 'solved' my problem and got my system back online I was asked to perform a speed test, and when the result showed that I was now getting approximately a quarter of what I pay for, I objected. After some fiddling with settings in ISP-land I was up to half speed and told that was as good as it gets today, but I was promised connection speed would rise as 'things settled'. This more or less happened, although it took a good five days to return to my paid-for speed.

On the day of my call I was so grateful to be able to return to relative normality that I settled for half speed. This really is isn't good enough and I will be complaining. I urge you to do the same. The only way ISPs will get their act together and provide what we pay for is if customers pressure them – either directly or through OFCOM and legislation.





Hardware round-up – report by Barry Fox

When your PC absolutely, definitely has to work

Panasonic has been making rugged laptop PCs since 1996. The latest, the Toughbook CF-33, is a 2-in-1 device with detachable 12.5-inch screen and keyboard, so it can be used either as a laptop or tablet.

The CF-33 is weatherproof, surviving 30 minutes of water dunking, or a trip, naked, into space, and some pretty brutal dropping. (Although an integrated handle makes it less likely to be dropped.) The touchpad is pressure-sensitive, rather than capacitive, which makes it more use when the weather is wet.

In addition to all the usual ports (HDMI, SD-XC, USB, VGA, headset and LAN) there's one that will appeal to telecoms engineers – a native Serial RS232 socket (rather than USB-to-Serial converter) with all the pins individually addressable.

Power comes from twin batteries, which are hot swappable – so one battery can be changed while the other runs the device.

The CF-33 comes with Windows 10 Pro but can be 'downgraded' to Windows 7 Pro for those who want, need or simply prefer the older system. The downgrade option will, however, be available only until the end of October 2017, when Microsoft stops registering new devices.

The physical strength of the CF-33 does not come cheap, at 3552 euros plus VAT; and the Windows 7 downgrade costs another \$100 for the additional royalty payment Panasonic must make to Microsoft.

A potentially very significant trademark application...

Registered trademarks can be a very powerful and valuable commercial weapon. They last for ever, if renewal fees are paid; Bass for Beer was the first UK trademark registered in January 1876 and is still in force. They give very strong protection – just try selling a drink labelled Coke or Pepsi and you will soon find out how strong.



Panasonic's latest 'Toughbook' - the CF-33

It's a basic principle of trademark law that you can't register an everyday dictionary word, but – if there are no objections – companies can sometimes monopolise surprising words. Bose succeeded in registering the word Lifestyle for audio equipment in the 1990s, which means other companies, which failed to object at the time, now have to steer clear of the label.

History is now repeating in the TV industry. Samsung recently applied to register the word 'HDR10',

which is already being used to describe the 'Open' high dynamic range system built into most new 4K TV sets and BD players. The industry seems to have been taken unawares and is now wondering what to do or say.

John Higgins, director general of Digital Europe, the European body in Brussels which 'represents the digital technology industry in Europe', first said thanks 'for the alert' and then referred the hot potato to Digital Europe's communications and marketing director who said 'we have no comment on this subject'.

A spokeswoman for LG, traditionally Samsung's main rival, first said 'LG do not comment on rumours or speculation.'

When pointed to the official documents that detail Samsung's formal application, the spokeswoman said 'LG does not wish to comment.'

Ironically, LG has just issued a press release (20 March) which boasts that LG's 'entire 2017 line-up of premium TVs support the full palette of HDR formats... including... HDR10' – which is the very word for which Samsung wants exclusive rights. (See: http://bit.ly/2p4lXlT and http:// bit.ly/2pNQoNT)

Hands-free brolly

And finally... news comes (and not on 1 April) of an 'Umbrella Drone to protect against wet weather'. Anyone with £1299 to spare can now pay drone e-tailer DronesDirect for the 'the perfect companion for this season's outings' and protection from 'the unpredictable British weather'

The 'exclusive and limited edition DJI Phantom 4 allows users to walk freely knowing they are shielded from overhead rainclouds by the drone-operated umbrella.'

Hardware round-up continued

The device 'boasts advanced tracking technology which links to the GPS signal of a mobile phone', so that 'the flying umbrella will expertly navigate itself and track its owner's steps, sheltering them from each and every spring shower, so there is no need to operate it as you move.'

The Umbrella Drone has a 4K camera, for picturing the rain, and in-built intelligent collision avoidance technology.

Says Tim Morley, business unit manager at **DronesDirect.co.uk**:

'For those who don't want to be confined to staying indoors, who want to drone in changeable weather, and those who don't want to juggle managing an umbrella while carrying out their everyday tasks, then the innovative Umbrella Drone is a gadget not to be without. This is a truly clever and unique companion, which DronesDirect.co.uk is delighted to offer to consumers.'

Battery life is 'up to 30 minutes' – after which their proud owner presumably gets wet carrying a handsfree brolly home.

Single-atom magnetic storage breakthrough



The grandfather of all hard drives from 1956 - IBM's 350 RAMAC with 3.75MB of storage

n 1956, IBM announced the 350 RAMAC, the world's first magnetic hard drive. It had 50 24-inch platters and stored 3.75MB of data. It was complicated, sensitive and very expensive. It was also a breakthrough technology that more than sixty years later is still used in many computers the world over. Yes, Flash memory is steadily eating into its one-time monopoly, but as a technology it has proved to be incredibly resilient. Size and cost have shrunk dramatically and, of course, storage has rocketed by the million compared to IBM's wardrobe-sized original design.

The secret of the hard drive's success has been the extraordinary scalability of the medium. Engineers and physicists have done a remarkable job of squeezing evermore bits into a smaller and smaller area – and finding ways to read and write those bits reliably.

The core technology is defining minute areas of the drive's platter as bits that can be magnetised with one of two polarities, representing a logical 1 or 0. Currently, this basic real-estate storage unit is made up of roughly a million atoms, but researchers are much more ambitious and have now set their eyes on the ultimate in miniaturisation.

A recent report in the journal *Na*ture explains how physicists created a stable magnetisable area from a single atom. Fabian Natterer, from the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology (EPFL) in Lausanne, who wrote the paper, described how 'singleatom magnets' were used to make an atomic hard drive. A rewritable device, made from two atoms was able to store a modest two bits of data. The Swiss team used holmium atoms at a temperature of less than 5K above absolute zero.

They wrote data with a pulse of current from the tip of a scanning tunnelling microscope, which flips the orientation of the atom's field between a 0 or 1. The atomic magnets proved stable, each retaining their data for several hours, with the team never seeing one flip unintentionally. They used the same microscope to read the bit – with different flows of current revealing the atom's magnetic state.

The technology is nowhere near commercialisation, but neatly shows just how far engineers are prepared to go to keep the hard drive show on the road.

Old bottles, new batteries

Researchers at the University of California, using waste glass bottles and a low-cost chemical process, have demonstrated lithiumion batteries with nanosilicon anodes.

Silicon anodes can store ten-times more energy than graphite ones, but expansion/shrinkage during charge/ discharge cycles make them unstable.

However, applying nanotechnology techniques to the silicon has reduced this problem. Using processed silicon dioxide and a cheap chemical reaction, the researchers created lithium-ion half-cell batteries that store almost four times more energy than conventional graphite anodes.

To create the anodes, the team crushed and ground bottles into a fine white power, then transformed the silicon dioxide into nanostructured silicon, and finally coated the silicon nanoparticles with carbon to improve stability and energy storage.

One glass bottle can provide enough nanosilicon for hundreds of coin cell batteries.

New PicoScope software

Pico Technology has added CAN FD decoding to its PicoScope 6 software. 'Our software could already decode a wide variety of serial protocols such as I²C, SPI and UART, as well as automotive standards such as CAN, LIN and FlexRay,' said Trevor Smith, business development manager at Pico Technology. 'Now it can also decode CAN FD, which is the latest and fastest version of CAN Bus used in automotive and industrial applications.' More details at: **picotech.com**

King coal's day off

f you used mains electricity on Friday, 21 April 2017 then you helped make a little bit of power history – in the UK at least.

The industrial revolution started in Britain, and from the get go coal was the energy source that lifted industry from animal to machine power.

Coal first delivered mechanical power and then became the fuel of choice for generating electrical power. After the Second World War, coal's dominance was challenged by nuclear energy, gas and more recently renewable sources, especially offshore wind. However, coal continues to be used when other sources are unavailable or more expensive – but, according to the National Grid, 21 April was the first-ever 24-hour period when no coal at all was used to generate electricity in the UK.

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TechnoTalk

When tech goes bad

Mark Nelson

Do you get the feeling that too many high-tech products and series reach the market long before they are ready for prime time, or without due regard to – or assured certainty of – whether they will deliver what they 'say on the tin'? If not, maybe this article will convince you!

N THE PAST, NEW PRODUCTS were 'field tested' for several

years before being unleashed on the public. Take the Trimphone, a telephone considered revolutionary back in the Swinging Sixties, with its trendy looks, modern colour options. glow-in-the-dark illuminated dial and electronic warbler that replaced a jangly bell. It was half the weight of the traditional type of telephone and came with a long lead and carry handle for extra mobility and convenience. Five years passed between its conception in 1961 and national launch in 1966, a delay considered entirely normal back in those risk-averse days. A trial of 1,000 prototypes in north-west London led to various design modifications and circuit improvements before Office Telecommunications Post considered the Trimphone fit and ready for national launch.

Fast forward to the present day

These days, product testing is left to customers - after the products have already been launched. Last October, Samsung took the decision to stop worldwide sales and shipments of its Galaxy Note 7 smartphone just weeks after launch, following reports that its lithium-ion batteries could explode while charging. In February of this year, news agencies reported how a woman flying to Australia from Beijing received a rude awakening when her music player batteries exploded, leaving her face and hands burned. The conflagration was so severe that the battery and its cover became stuck to the floor of the aircraft; passengers and crew endured the smell of melted plastic and singed hair for the remainder of the flight.

Not that this should come as a surprise of course. HP and Toshiba are among other manufacturers that have recalled products containing lithium-ion batteries during the past 12 months, despite widespread knowledge since 2006 that these power cells pose fire and explosion hazards that put people's lives in danger and have already claimed the life of a young child. On that basis, it's surprising that consumer protection organisations have not yet begun legal actions to prevent further sales of these potentially risky batteries.

Dodgy deals

In March, Sharon White, chief executive of communications regulator OFCOM, proclaimed 'a significant day for phone and broadband users,' after forcing BT's Openreach organisation to serve all customers equally. She continued: 'We will carefully monitor how the new Openreach performs, while continuing our work to improve the quality of service offered by all telecoms companies.'

This sounds laudable, but if OFCOM really wants to serve all users equally and fairly, then its next step should be to force all ISPs (Internet service providers) to deliver what they claim to. In other words, they should make the line speed quoted in their tariffs a condition of the contract with users. After that, OFCOM should enforce the contract legally and make providers reduce their charges on a per-individual-customer basis if they fail to deliver the quoted line speed.

I cannot think of any other consumer purchase where it is pot luck whether you get what you were told you'd be getting. Amazon cannot get away with selling you a 5TB hard drive that turns out to be only 2TB. A filling station cannot charge you for 20 litres of petrol and then supply you only 12 litres of diesel – so why should broadband providers be allowed to short-change their customers?

Fast radio from outer space

It appears that aliens from far-off galaxies can do a far better job at delivering wideband information than any Earthbound service provider – and they are managing this by radio means rather than optical fibres, coaxial cable or telephone wires. The only problem is that the signal from these 'fast radio bursts' last no longer than a millisecond, making it hard to decode the information content.

'Fast radio bursts are exceedingly bright given their short duration and origin at great distances, and we haven't identified a possible natural source with any confidence,' says Prof Avi Loeb of the Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics in the US. 'An artificial origin is worth contemplating and checking,' he adds. Newly published research carried out by his team suggests that these mysterious phenomena could be evidence of advanced alien technology. Specifically, these bursts might be leakage from planet-sized transmitters powering interstellar probes in distant galaxies. Other scientists have detected mathematical patterns in the signals.

Loeb argues that the most plausible use of such power is driving interstellar light sails. The amount of power involved would be sufficient to push a payload of a million tons, or about 20 times the largest cruise ships on Earth. This is big enough to carry living passengers across interstellar or even intergalactic distances. Observers on Earth would see a brief flash because the sail and its host planet, star and galaxy are all moving relative to us. As a result, the beam sweeps across the sky and only points in our direction for a moment. Repeated appearances of the beam, which were observed but cannot be explained by cataclysmic astrophysical events, might provide important clues about its artificial origin. Using admirable understatement, Loeb admits that this work is 'speculative'.

Try this at home?

You too can monitor radio transmissions from outer space at home if you build your own antenna and receiver. The SETI League has fifteen hundred members in 60 countries on all seven continents who are devoted to the 'Search for Extraterrestrial Intelligence' by 'keeping alive the quest for our cosmic companions'. You can read how to build your own miniature version of Jodrell Bank at www.setileague.org/ articles/backyard.htm, and you'll find plenty more about DIY radio astronomy by entering 'backyard radio astronomy' into Google. Better still, check out the September 2010 issue of this magazine, which included an excellent project for constructing a low-cost, easy-to-build receiver for signals from the planet Jupiter, no larger than a TV set-top box. And remember, if combining SETI and electronics appeals then you are in good company. Paul Horowitz, the famous Harvard-based co-author of the Art of Electronics is a long-time active supporter of SETI.



This *Garage Parking Assistant* will display the distance from the back wall of your garage or carport to your car's bumper bar, in large digits and with a colour-coded background: green for go, yellow for slow down and red for stop. It makes positioning the car a breeze as you will always know just how many centimetres you are from the wall or an ideal stopping point.

THIS PROJECT is based on the *Micromite LCD BackPack* described in last month's *EPE*. The *BackPack* is a low-cost, touch-sensitive LCD panel coupled with an even lower-cost microcontroller programmed in BASIC. Turning this into our *Digital Garage Parking Assistant* only requires the addition of an ultrasonic distance sensor and a suitable BASIC program.

As you drive the car into the garage the display will light up, with



Fig 1: this block diagram shows the main components in the *Garage Parking Assistant*. The Micromite is in control: using the trigger line, it signals the ultrasonic distance sensor to transmit an ultrasonic sound pulse then measures the round trip time on the echo line. The result is converted to centimetres and displayed on the touch-screen LCD panel.

the distance in centimetres displayed on a green background. As you come closer, the background changes to yellow and then finally to red. During this time, the display will tell you the exact distance to the wall or an ideal stopping point in large 25mm-high digits. Finally, after the vehicle has been stationary for a little while, the display blanks, ready for the next time you park the car.

By making some small changes to the software program, you could use the same design for other applications where you need to know the distance to an object. For example, with a simple modification, the unit could display the water level in a rainwater tank. Based on the dimensions of the tank, it could also calculate and display the content in litres, with the background

Everyday Practical Electronics, June 2017



GARAGE PARKING ASSISTANT

Fig.2: the circuit is based on a *Micromite LCD Backpack*, a touch-screen LCD and an ultrasonic distance sensor. IC1 does most of the work, while REG1 is a 3.3V voltage regulator. The ultrasonic distance sensor is triggered by pin 21 of the Micromite and the subsequent echo signal is then fed to pin 22. A 5V USB charger powers the circuit.

colours serving as a warning when the water has dropped to a low level.

The program running on the *Digital Garage Parking Assistant* is written in BASIC. This is an easy-to-learn programming language and the program is stored in plain text. And because the Micromite has its own program editor, you can connect it to a laptop and easily change the program to suit your preferences, even when it is attached to the garage wall.

You might, for example, prefer the distance to be displayed in old-fashioned inches. That would require the modification of just one line in the program and could be done in minutes.

How it works

Fig.1 shows the block diagram of the *Garage Parking Assistant*, while Fig.2

shows the full circuit (including the LCD BackPack). The key components are an ultrasonic distance sensor, Micromite microcontroller IC1 and the LCD panel. The Micromite is completely in control; it uses the ultrasonic transducer to measure the distance and then displays the result on the LCD panel.

OUT

GND

The distance sensor emits an ultrasonic pulse and listens for the return



Everyday Practical Electronics, June 2017



The background colours on the LCD provide a simple visual warning to the driver – green to continue, yellow to slow down and red to stop. In addition, the LCD shows the distance readout in centimetres. You can change the thresholds used for the three colours via the touch-screen and the various options menus.

echo, under the control of the Micromite. The microcontroller starts the measurement cycle by triggering the ultrasonic signal with a short positive pulse on the trigger line of the sensor. The sensor then raises the echo line to a logic-high level to acknowledge that it has sent the ultrasonic pulse and then drops it low again when the echo is received.

The time that the echo pin is held high by the sensor represents the round-trip time for the ultrasonic pulse to leave the sensor, reach the distant object and bounce back to the sensor. The microcontroller must accurately measure this time and then calculate the distance to the target.

In a normal microcontroller, this operation can be complex, but on the Micromite it's easy. The BASIC program just needs to use the DISTANCE()



The ultrasonic distance sensor used in the *Garage Parking Assistant*. The righthand transducer is used to transmit the sound pulse and the lefthand transducer receives the reflected signal. The sensor will work with targets ranging from 30mm to 3m and is generally accurate to within a centimetre. function, which will automatically generate the trigger pulse and calculate the distance to the target. The result is returned as a floating-point number representing the distance in centimetres to one decimal place.

For example, if you had an ultrasonic transducer connected to pins 21 (trigger) and 22 (echo), the following command would display the distance (in centimetres) to the target:

PRINT DISTANCE(21, 22)

The output from running the above command would be a number. For example, 26.1 would mean that the distance is 26.1 centimetres.

The sensor will work with a target that ranges from 30mm to 3m. The precision will vary depending on several factors, such as the reflectivity of the object and the air temperature, but is generally accurate to within 10mm. This range and accuracy is more than adequate for our *Garage Parking Assistant*.

The ultrasonic sensor goes by the part number HC-SR04 and can be found on eBay. Compatible sensors are the SRF05, SRF06, Parallax PING and the DYP-ME007 (which is waterproof and therefore good for locations that are exposed to the weather). All of these work exactly the same as the HC-SR04.

The Micromite

The Micromite is a powerful but inexpensive controller. The IC used here is a 28-pin dual-in-line (DIL) package which can be plugged into an IC socket and is programmed using a version of BASIC called MMBasic.

BASIC stands for 'Beginner's Allpurpose Symbolic Instruction Code'. Originally designed as an interactive teaching language by Dartmouth College in the US in 1963, it subsequently became widely used on early personal computers. Because of its simplicity, BASIC is often used for teaching the fundamental concepts of programming.

The program for the *Garage Parking Assistant* is written in BASIC and because of this, it can be easily modified to suit your preferences. For example, if you do not like the colours you can change them to suit yourself.

The Micromite is coupled with a low-cost touch-screen LCD panel which can display 320 by 240 pixels in any one of 65,535 colours. We chose the larger 2.8-inch version for our prototype because the displayed digits are easier to see from the driver's seat; they are just over 25.4mm (1-inch) high. If you already have the 2.4-inch LCD, this could be used instead. Its mounting arrangement (on the lid of the case) will be slightly different, however.

The *Garage Parking Assistant* uses the touch input to set its various options. All you need do is tap the screen and the main options menu appears.

Touch support is another area where the BASIC language makes programming easy. The TOUCH() function will return the X and Y coordinates of the touched location in pixels. Using this and a selection of drawing commands, it is possible to create touch-sensitive buttons and other screen objects that make sense to the casual user.

Options

The photo at top-right on the facing page shows the main options menu that appears when the screen is touched. In particular, it shows the timeout, offset and thresholds for the background colours.

The timeout is simply the length of time after the car has stopped moving before the display is blanked. By contrast, the offset is the distance from the sensor at which the displayed distance will be shown as zero. It is useful if the sensor is mounted on a wall, but the car must stop before the wall

is reached, perhaps because of some other obstruction.

For example, if the offset is set at 10cm, the display will read zero when the distance between the car's bumper bar and the sensor has been reduced to 10cm.

Either of these two settings can be changed by touching the CHANGE button. In this case, a virtual on-screen keypad will be displayed which allows the required number to be keyed in. An example of this is shown in the photo below left. The keypad includes the ability to delete the previously entered digit (the DEL key) or cancel the entry and return to the menu (the CAN key). Pressing the ENT key will store the keyed-in number and return to the previous menu.

The third entry on the main options screen shows the thresholds for the colour changes. Pressing the change button for this entry will open up a new menu, as shown in the photo below right. By default, the threshold for green is 200cm, for yellow it is 50cm and for red it is 10cm.

Initially, as the vehicle approaches, the LCD will be blank, but when the vehicle's distance reaches the green threshold, the display will light and show the distance with a green background. Similarly, when the yellow threshold is reached, the background will change to yellow and so on.

These colour changes provide a simple visual warning for the driver – yellow means slow down and red means stop immediately.**You can easily change these thresholds by touching the CHANGE button and keying in the new number.**



Touching the screen on the *Garage Parking Assistant* displays the options settings. This photo shows the main menu, which displays the current settings for the timeout, the offset and the thresholds. Touching the CHANGE button for a particular parameter brings up a virtual keypad (see photo below) so that the setting can be changed.

The FINISHED button will save the options and return to the previous screen. All options are saved in nonvolatile memory, so they will be retained even if the power is removed.

Building the LCD Backpack

The first step in construction is building the *Micromite LCD BackPack* and testing it works correctly. This was described in last month's *EPE*, so we won't go into too much detail here. Besides, with the silk screening on the PCB, it's obvious where the parts go and it should take less than half an hour to build.

Loading the firmware and the BA-SIC program is a three-step process. First, the blank PIC32 microcontroller must be programmed with the Micromite firmware, which includes the BASIC interpreter (MMBasic). That done, the interpreter needs to be configured to suit the LCD panel. And finally, the BASIC program that drives the ultrasonic sensor and the display needs to be loaded. You do have a few choices when it comes to this process:

Option 1: the first option is to download the file **ParkingAssistFull.hex** from the *EPE* website and program the PIC32 yourself. This file has the Micromite firmware, the settings for the LCD panel and the BASIC program all combined into one 'package'. It must



This is a typical virtual keypad which allows the user to enter a new number. It includes the ability to delete the previously entered digit (the DEL key) or cancel the entry and return to the menu (the CAN key). Pressing ENT will store the number and return to the previous menu.



The thresholds for bringing up different background colours can be changed using this menu. The Finished button saves the options and returns to the previous screen. All options are saved in non-volatile memory so that they will be retained even if the power is removed.



be programmed into the PIC32 microcontroller using a programmer such as the PICkit 3.

Using this firmware is quite convenient because this single operation combines all three steps and sets up the chip so that it's ready to do the job.

Option 2: the second (and easiest) option is to purchase the PIC32 microcontroller pre-programmed with the combined firmware file from the SILICON CHIP Online Shop. Then, all you need to do is plug the chip into its socket and you are ready to go.

Option 3: the third option is to go through all three steps individually. Step 1 is to download the file Micromite_v5.1.hex from the EPE website and program it into the PIC32 microcontroller using a PICkit 3. Step 2 is to connect a USB-to-serial converter to the Micromite's console and configure the chip to work with the LCD and touch. And finally, step 3 involves loading the BASIC program **ParkingAssist.bas** (again available from the *EPE* website). This can be loaded using either the XMODEM protocol or using the AU-TOSAVE command.

The above process was described in detail in last month's article on the *Micromite LCD Backpack* and isn't hard to do. When you have run through all three steps, the result will be exactly the same as if you had loaded the combined firmware containing the interpreter, the settings and the BASIC program (or if you purchased a preprogrammed chip).

The only issue that you need to be aware of is that the touch calibration in the combined firmware was done with a reasonably standard LCD panel, but yours might require re-calibration if it is significantly different from the 'standard' that we used. If you discover that the touch calibration is inaccurate, this can be corrected by connecting a USB-to-serial converter to the console, halting the program with CTRL-C and re-running the calibration. The calibration procedure was also described in detail last month.

Note that if you already have a working *Micromite LCD BackPack*, then it will only be necessary to load **ParkingAssist.bas** into the PIC32 micro. Alternatively, you can choose to reprogram the chip with the combined software (ie, **ParkingAssist-Full.hex**).

Program operation

If you wish to modify the BASIC program, you need to have some idea of how it works. Fig.3 provides a highlevel flow diagram of its operation.

As shown, the program runs in a continuous loop. First, it checks if the LCD is being touched and if it is, branches to a subroutine which will display the menus and the options.

The program then retrieves the distance from the ultrasonic sensor, which is averaged over five successive readings to reduce noise. It then checks for forward movement, and if there is none it checks for a timeout. This is the time that the display remains on after the vehicle has stopped moving. If the vehicle is stationary, a counter will increment every second and the program will blank the display when the counter reaches the timeout setting.

The program next checks the vehicle's distance and compares it to the green threshold. If it is greater than this threshold, it blanks the display and returns to the start of the loop for another 'go around'. If the distance is less than the green threshold, the program checks the other thresholds to determine the colour to be used, ie, green, yellow or red.

Finally, the program displays the distance in centimetres with the specified coloured background. It then loops around to get another distance reading and repeats the process.

If you are going to modify the program there is one feature that you need to be aware of. In the main program loop, the watchdog timer is set to one second. This timer is used to automatically restart the program if an error occurs.

In operation, the timer must be constantly reset to one second to prevent

a restart under normal operation. This means that you must make sure that the program can execute the loop in less than one second to avoid an automatic restart of the Micromite.

The watchdog timer is also used when the program detects a touch on the screen and branches to the menus where the options are set. In this case, the timeout is set to 10 minutes every time a button is touched. This was included in the program so that the Micromite will automatically restart and return to normal operation after 10 minutes of inactivity within any menu – handy if you have been called away while fiddling with the settings and forget to return.

Building it

The first job in the assembly is to build and calibrate the *Micromite LCD Back-Pack*, as detailed in last month's *EPE*. It's then just a matter of mounting the *LCD BackPack* assembly and the ultrasonic sensor assembly in separate enclosures and connecting them together.

As shown in the photos, the *Micromite LCD Backpack* is mounted inside a UB3 ABS box, while the ultrasonic sensor goes in a smaller UB5 box. A 4-core cable joins the two units and allows the sensor to be mounted at bumper bar height, while the *Micromite LCD BackPack* can be mounted above it at eye height.

In each case, the lid supplied with the box is discarded and replaced with a laser-cut clear acrylic panel (available from the SILICON CHIP Online Shop; see parts list). The panel for the *BackPack* assembly comes with all the mounting holes plus a precision cut-out for the touch-screen LCD, while the panel (or lid) for the UB5 box comes with corner mounting holes plus neat circular cut-outs for the two ultrasonic transducers.

Fig.4 shows how the *LCD BackPack* assembly is mounted. First, the touch-screen LCD is attached to the acrylic lid at each corner using an M3 \times 10mm machine screw, two stacked M3 washers and an M3 \times 12mm tapped spacer. This arrangement ensures that the LCD sits flush with the clear acrylic lid.

Note that the LCD itself is offset to the left on its PCB, so be sure to fit the module the right way around, so that the viewing area is centred horizontally on the acrylic panel. Once it's in place, the *Micromite BackPack* PCB is then plugged into CON3 on the LCD





board and secured in place using M3 × 6mm machine screws.

The next step is to drill holes in the lefthand side of the case to accept a panel-mount DC power socket and a 4-pin microphone socket (used for the sensor connection). These holes can be centred vertically on the panel, with each hole about 20mm in from its adjacent outside edge. Drill small pilot holes and then carefully enlarge each hole to size using a tapered reamer, so the part just fits.

That done, the DC socket is wired to a 4-pin female header (see Fig.5) with the red wire going to the centre pin terminal. The DC socket is then secured to the case, after which the microphone socket can be fitted and wired to an 8-pin female header – see Fig.6.



Fig.5: the *Garage Parking Assistant* is powered from a standard USB plugpack charger. To make a suitable power cable, cut off one end of a USB cable (retaining the type A male connector on the other end) and solder the red wire to the centre terminal pin of a DC plug and the black wire to the outside pin. The matching DC socket is mounted on the side of the UB3 box and is connected to a 4-pin female header, which then plugs into CON1 on the Micromite PCB.



Fig.6: a cable with a 4-pin female header at one end and a 4-pin microphone plug at the other end connects the ultrasonic sensor to the display unit via a matching 4-pin socket. The microphone socket in turn is wired to an 8-pin female header which then connects to CON2 on the Micromite PCB. Note that the female headers shown in Figs.5 and 6 are not polarised, so make sure that they are oriented correctly when plugging them in.

The main unit can now be completed by plugging the headers into CON1 and CON2 on the *BackPack* PCB, then lowering the PCB assembly into the case and securing it at the corners using the supplied self-tapping screws.

Be careful when plugging in the two headers, as the connectors are not polarised. Basically, it's just a matter of making sure that ground (GND) from the DC socket (black wire) goes to GND on CON1 and that GND on the microphone socket goes to GND on CON2.

Note that CON2 on the *BackPack* PCB has 18 pins; the 8-pin female header must be plugged in at the end that has the GND pin.

Fitting the sensor PCB

The ultrasonic sensor unit comes preassembled. It's just a matter of pushing the two sensors through their front



panel holes as far as they will go to secure the unit in position. The sensors are a firm fit in the holes and that will usually be enough to hold the assembly in place.

Alternatively, a couple of small dabs of neutral-cure silicone can be used on the inside to ensure that the sensor unit can't be pushed back into the case.

The next step is to drill a 9.5mm hole through one side of the case (or through the top) and fit a rubber grommet. A 4-way cable (used to connect the sensor to the *Micromite BackPack* PCB) is then pushed through this grommet and wired to a 4-way female header, as shown in Fig.6.

Either 6mm-diameter 4-core audio cable (with the shield braid cut short) or 4-wire telephone cable can be used here. The audio cable is a tight fit into the grommet, so it won't be necessary to secure it with a cable clamp. Conversely, some sort of clamping arrangement will probably be required if telephone cable is used.

The other end of this 4-way cable is connected to a 4-pin microphone plug. Make sure that the wires go to the correct pins on this plug, so that they mate with the correct wires on the socket when the two are connected together. If you are using audio cable, the shield braid can either be cut short or connected to the plug's metal shell.

Firmware updates

For firmware updates for the Micromite and the Garage Parking Assistant, please check the author's website at: geoffg.net/micromite.html

Note that the ultrasonic sensor assembly derives its power (5V) via this cable from CON2 on the *Micromite BackPack PCB*.

Power supply

5V USB plugpack chargers are cheap and the *Garage Parking Assistant* works perfectly with one of these. Be sure to select one with a generous current rating (500mA or more), as the unit can draw up to 250mA.

Fig.5 shows the details for the USB supply cable for one of these supplies. It's just a matter of cutting off one end of a USB cable (retaining the male type A connector at the other end) and soldering the red and black wires to the DC plug (red wire to the centre-pin terminal).

The other two wires in the USB cable (generally green and white) can be cut short, as they are not needed.

Another option is to use a 5V DC plugpack with a captive lead fitted with a DC plug. If the plug is the incorrect size, cut it off and fit one that does match the socket.

Loading BASIC

If you are going to load the BASIC program yourself or edit it later, you also need to make up a cable with a USB-to-serial converter, as described last month. Then, after you have the program running, you can remove the converter and use the power cable instead.

This is because the program is designed to start running automatically whenever power is applied and after the program has been run once, you don't need to use the console again.

Mounting it in place

Having made the connections, the next step is to mount the two units in place. The LCD unit should be mounted on the garage wall at eye height, while the sensor should be mounted at bumper bar height.

Don't forget that you can easily adjust the green, yellow and red threshold values if necessary. Depending on how

Parts List

Micromite LCD BackPack Unit

- 1 PCB available from the *EPE PCB Service*, coded 07102122, 86 × 50mm (for 2.8-inch LCD)
- 1 ILI9341-based LCD, 320 × 240 pixels, 2.8-inch diagonal
- 1 UB3 ABS box, $130 \times 67 \times 43$ mm 1 pre-drilled clear acrylic lid to
- suit UB3 box
- 1 4-pin tactile switch, throughhole hole
- 1 100Ω vertical-mount side adjust trimpot
- 1 28-pin DIL low-profile IC socket
- 1 4-pin 0.1-inch male header
- (CON1)
- 1 18-pin 0.1-inch male header (CON2)
- 1 14-pin 0.1-inch female header socket (CON3)
- 1 6-pin 0.1-inch right-angle male header (CON4)
- 1 4-pin 0.1-inch female header
- 1 8-pin 0.1-inch female header
- 1 2.1mm or 2.5mm panel-mount DC socket
- 1 4-pin panel-mount microphone male socket
- 4 M3 \times 12mm tapped spacers
- 4 M3 \times 10mm machine screws
- 4 M3 \times 6mm machine screws
- 8 M3 flat washers

Semiconductors

- 1 PIC32MX170F256B-50I/SP microcontroller programmed with ParkingAssistFull.hex (IC1) – see text. Note: a PIC32-MX170F256B-I/SP can also be used but will be limited to 40MHz)
- 1 Microchip MCP1700-3302E/TO voltage regulator (REG1)

Capacitors

1 47μF 16V tantalum or SMD ceramic (3216/1206)

close you want to park to the wall, the default values should be fine in most cases. However, some people might want to increase the red threshold to (say) 15cm or even 20cm.

As stated earlier, all you have to do is touch the screen to bring up the main options menu and then touch the CHANGE button for the colour thresholds to bring up the relevant options

- 2 10μF 16V tantalum or SMD ceramic (3216/1206)
- 2 100nF monolithic ceramic

Resistors (0.25W 5%)

1 10k Ω

Sensor unit

- 1 ultrasonic distance sensor, HC-SR04, SRF05, SRF06, Parallax PING or DYP-ME007
- 1 UB5 ABS box, 82 \times 54 \times 30mm
- 1 pre-drilled clear acrylic lid to suit UB5 box
- 1 9.5mm rubber grommet to suit 6mm-dia. cable

Cable parts

- 1 USB cable with a male type A connector (length to suit)
- 1 2.1mm or 2.5mm DC plug to suit DC socket
- 1 4-pin female line microphone connector
- 1 4-pin 0.1-inch female header
- 1 length 4-core audio cable
- 1 200mm length of rainbow cable

Where To Buy Parts

A complete kit for the *Micromite LCD BackPack* is available from the SILICON CHIP Online Shop. The clear lid with cut-out, to suit a UB3 Jiffy box, is available separately. You can also buy the ultrasonic distance sensor with a custom-cut UB5 jiffy box lid. See the Online Shop for details: www.siliconchip. com.au/Shop/

The Micromite BackPack PCB and programmed microcontroller can also be purchased separately.

Note that the kit does not include the boxes, mounting hardware, plug-pack power supply, rubber grommet off-board headers and connectors or cable parts.

menu. You then hit the CHANGE button for the threshold you want to change, enter in the new number on the virtual keypad, touch ENT and then FINISHED, and that's it!

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cruise ships. This *Hotel Safe Alarm* tells you if the safe has been opened in your absence and will also give the offender a very bad feeling that he or she has been detected. Their natural reaction will be to close the safe and abscond immediately.

A NYONE WHO regularly travels on cruise ships or stays in hotels will be familiar with the ubiquitous room safe, which is usually inside the wardrobe. The safe has a 4-digit LED display and a numeric keyboard to let you enter a 4-digit code before closing it and again when you wish to open it.

They are very handy, but it would be naive to think that these safes offer a high degree of safety for your valuables. After all, if you forget the

Features

- Powered by a lithium button cell
- Armed indication (green LED2)
- Entry indicator (red LED1)
- Piezo alarm
- Low current drain
- Adjustable entry delay period
- Adjustable alarm period

code or the safe malfunctions, it is a straightforward exercise for the hotel staff to open them. That means that there could be people lurking about in hotel or ship corridors that don't have your best interests at heart. And since they will attempt their nefarious activity while you are absent, how can you discourage them? The answer is to use our *Hotel Safe Alarm*.

Of course, you could also use this alarm in a safe at home, or in a filing cabinet or desk drawer that you want to monitor. And you could use it to monitor a tool cupboard, pantry (against hungry teenagers marauding at night?) or whatever.

The *Hotel Safe Alarm* is a small plastic box with two LEDs (red and green) and two pushbutton switches. A light dependent resistor (LDR) detects when the safe has been opened and it will react to room lighting or a torch. An LED starts blinking immediately and if you don't enter a code via the two buttons within 15 seconds, the inbuilt piezo transducer will start screaming at you (or the offender).

The duration of the alarm is 60 seconds as the default setting, but this can be set to between 10 seconds and 120 seconds, in 10-second increments.

If your safe has been opened in your absence, the alarm will indicate that by alternately flashing the red and green LEDs. To clear this alarm condition, you just feed in the entry code by pushing the two buttons in the normal way.

We'll describe how you enter the code and various time settings later in this article.

Circuit details

The circuit is very simple; just an 8-pin PIC microcontroller, two LEDs, two pushbuttons and a few other components – see Fig.1. It is powered by a 3V lithium button cell and is switched on via jumper link, JP1. This can be



Fig.1: the circuit is based on PIC microcontroller IC1, light-dependent resistor LDR1, a couple of LEDs and a piezo transducer. If the safe is opened, LDR1's resistance goes low and pulls pin 4 of IC1 low to start the alarm entry timer. The correct code then has to be entered within 15 seconds via pushbutton switches S1 and S2 to stop the alarm from sounding.

Specifications

- Power
- 3V at typically 2.5µA 0.5mA
- Alarm current
- Alarm entry delay adjustable from 1-60s in 1s steps; initial value is 15s
- Alarm period
- Alarm signal
- Alarm disable code any code sequence from one to eight switch presses 280ms bursts of 4-6kHz with 220ms gap between bursts

10s to 120s, in10s steps. Default value is 60s

removed when you are not using the alarm, to save the battery.

IC1 is a PIC12F675-I/P microcontroller and it is programmed with a tricky bit of software that lets you enter the necessary settings with only two pushbuttons. Normally, IC1 is in sleep mode and its watch-dog timer wakes it about every 2.3 seconds and it briefly checks the ambient light via the LDR, as follows.

Normally, IC1's GP2 output at pin 5 is set high (at 3V), so there is no current flow through the $470k\Omega$ resistor and the LDR. This is done to minimise current drawn from the 3V cell. When IC1 wakes up, it sets GP2 low (0V) and then monitors the voltage at input GP3 (pin 4).

In darkness, the LDR resistance is high (well above $1M\Omega$) so the voltage at pin 4 will be high, at close to 3V, so IC1 (yawn) goes to sleep again. If it wakes and the LDR is exposed to ambient light, its resistance will be much lower, perhaps as little as $10k\Omega$ in bright light. So the voltage at pin 4 will be low and IC1 starts to get excited. Well, perhaps not, but it starts flashing green LED2 to indicate that the alarm is about to start sounding.

Provided the valid code is now entered with the two pushbuttons during the 15-second delay period, the alarm is disabled. If no code or an invalid code is entered, the piezo transducer sounds, as pins 6 and 3 (GP1 and GP4) alternately go high and low, to deliver bursts of 4kHz signal. In the confined space of a hotel safe and at close quarters, this can be quite loud.

Certainly, there is no mistaking that the miscreant has been 'pinged'. As already mentioned, the alarm will sound for the default period of 60 seconds (unless programmed to do otherwise).

The scope screen grabs of Fig.2 and Fig.3 show the complementary drive signals applied to the piezo transducer. In Fig.2, the two signals are at 3.99kHz

Parts List

- 1 double-sided PCB available from the EPE PCB Service. coded 03106161, 61 × 47mm 1 front-panel label, 74 × 47mm
- 1 UB5 translucent clear or blue case. 83 x 54 x 31mm
- 1 20mm button cell holder
- 1 CR2032 lithium cell (3V)
- 2 SPST PCB mount snap-action switches (S1,S2)
- 1 30mm-diameter piezo transducer
- 1 10k Ω light-dependent resistor (LDR1)
- 1 DIL8 IC socket
- 2 M3 tapped 12mm spacers
- 2 M3 tapped 6mm spacers
- 6 M3 × 6mm machine screws
- 2 M3 × 6mm machine screws
- 2 M3 × 6mm countersink screws
- 1 2-way pin header (2.54mm pin spacing) (JP1)
- 1 jumper shunt
- 2 PC stakes
- 1 25mm length of 2mm-diameter heatshrink tubing

Semiconductors

- 1 PIC12F675-I/P programmed with 0310616A.hex (IC1)
- 1 1N4004 diode (D1)
- 1 3mm red high brightness LED (LED1)
- 1 3mm green high brightness LED (LED2)

Capacitor

1 100nF 63V or 100V MKT polyester or ceramic

Resistors	(0.25W, 1%)
1 470kΩ	2 330Ω
2 1kΩ	1 100Ω
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and have an amplitude very close to 3V peak-to-peak, not allowing for the overshoot spikes. Therefore, the total signal applied to the transducer will be very close to 6V peak-to-peak or about 3V RMS, as shown in the red trace of Fig,2.

Fig.3 shows the same complementary drive signals but at a much slower sweep speed of 100ms/div. This shows the signal bursts which are about 280ms long and separated by gaps of approximately 220ms.



Fig.2: the yellow and green traces show the complementary drive signals applied to the piezo transducer. The two signals are at 3.99kHz and have an amplitude that's close to 3V peakto-peak, not allowing for the overshoot spikes. The total signal applied to the transducer is shown in the red trace and is 6V peak-to-peak

If the safe door is hastily closed s again, the alarm will continue to sound life for the remainder of the 60-second D period and then go back to sleep. When the safe door is re-opened, the red and in green LEDs will alternately flash for 15 w seconds, unless you enter the valid code.

ing again. And continues the cycle. . . So, as well as providing some deterrent by sounding the alarm if a valid code is not entered, it will also tell you that the safe has been opened in your absence, even if it has been closed after being detected.

If not, the piezo alarm will begin beep-

Button detection

As well as providing the drive signal for the piezo transducer, pins 6 and 3 (GP1 and GP4) monitor the state of the two momentary contact pushbutton switches, S1 and S2. To do this, GP1 and GP4 are set as inputs, which are normally high but they can be pulled low via the $1k\Omega$ resistors in series with the switches. So if S1 is closed, pin 6 (GP1) will be pulled low.

The $1k\Omega$ resistors are included so that pressing the switches when the alarm is sounding will not short out the alarm signal to the piezo transducer.

Battery power

As already noted, the circuit is powered by a 3V button cell, via link JP1. When IC1 is in sleep mode, the current is quite low, at about 2.5μ A.

The current drain when the piezo alarm is sounding is 0.5mA. And while LED2 is flashing, the current is 1.5mA (for a cell voltage of 3V).

Diode D1 is included as a safety measure to prevent damage to IC1 should the cell be connected incorrectly somehow. If the polarity is wrong, D1 will shunt the reverse current.

Reverse cell polarity could happen if the cell holder is installed the wrong way round. Alternatively, if the cell holder is installed correctly, then the diode protects the circuit if the cell is installed incorrectly. Note, for the particular cell holder we used, there is no way the cell can be inserted incorrectly and make a connection to the circuit.

IC1's power supply is bypassed with a 100nF capacitor and IC1 runs using its internal 4MHz oscillator, which is shut down during sleep mode.

LED2's brightness provides an indication of the cell voltage. At 3V supply, LED2 is quite bright, but will be dim when the cell voltage drops to 2V, indicating that it should be changed.

Programming trickery

Note that the GP3 input of the PIC12F675 is usually configured as the MCLR input (master clear), which allows the microcontroller to have an external power-on reset. However, for our circuit we need to use this as a general-purpose input for monitoring the LDR.

When MCLR is set up as an input, the MCLR operation is switched to an internal connection within the microcontroller so the master clear power-on reset function is not lost.

One disadvantage of using the MCLR pin as a general purpose input is that there can be a problem when programming the microcontroller. This occurs when the internal oscillator is also used to run the microcontroller (which we do). We solved this



Fig.3: this scope grab shows the same complementary drive signals but at a much slower sweep speed of 100ms/div. The signal bursts are about 280ms long and are separated by gaps of approximately 220ms. The red trace shows the total signal applied to the transducer and is 6V peak-to-peak.

problem in the software, as discussed in the programming panel.

PCB assembly

The parts are all installed on a small double-sided PCB available from the *EPE PCB Service*, coded 03106161 (61×47 mm). This fits inside a small (UB5) plastic case. Note that the LEDs, switches, LDR and the piezo transducer are mounted on one side of the PCB, while the remaining components are mounted on the other side.

Fig.4 shows the parts layouts for both sides of the PCB. Begin construction by installing the resistors, using a multimeter to check the value of each before inserting it into place.

Diode D1 can now be installed, taking care to orient it correctly, then fit the IC socket, orienting its pin notch as shown in Fig.4. The 100nF capacitor is soldered in next, and it can be positioned either way round. Then solder in the 2-way pin header for JP1 along with the cell holder. Make sure the plus terminal is oriented towards diode D1 on the PCB.

LED1 (red) and LED2 (green) are mounted so the top of the LED lens is 14mm above the top surface of the PCB. Make sure the longer lead of each LED (the anode) is inserted in the 'A' position on the PCB. The LDR is also mounted 14mm above the PCB surface.

Once the LEDs are in, install switches S1 and S2, again taking care to ensure that they are correctly oriented (flat side positioned as shown).

Piezo transducer mounting

The piezo transducer is mounted off the PCB, supported on M3 \times 6mm



Fig.4: the PCB layout diagram on the left shows how the parts are mounted on the rear of the board, while the layout at right shows how the parts are mounted on the top side. Take care to ensure that all polarised parts are correctly oriented and note that the piezo transducer is supported on 6mm spacers and secured with M3 screws – see text.



CGIOSIS ED2 SAFE ALARM

The PCB should only take about 30 minutes to assemble. Note that the LDR and the two LEDs must be mounted proud of the PCB – see text.

spacers and secured with M3 screws. The mounting holes in the lugs of the piezo transducer will need to be drilled out to 3mm for these screws. The wires are soldered to the PC stakes marked 'piezo' on the PCB. We used PC stakes for the piezo transducer wiring as this allows heatshrink tubing to be slid over the wires and PC stakes to help prevent the wires from breaking off. While the piezo transducer may have red and black wires, the polarity of the connections is immaterial; you can connect it either way around.

If you intend to program the PIC yourself, the file **0310616A.hex** can be downloaded from the *EPE* website. Check the programming panel on the next page for details on how to do this. Or, you can purchase a pre-programmed PIC from the SILICON CHIP Online Shop.

Be sure to insert IC1 into its socket with the correct orientation and make sure you don't bend the pins under the IC. Then install the CR2032 cell in its holder and place the jumper link onto the 2-way header (JPI). If all is well, LED2 will begin to flash on and off after about three seconds, indicating that the LDR is exposed to light. The piezo transducer will then sound the alarm after the entry delay





Programming the PIC micro

A programmed PIC for this project can be purchased from the *Silicon Chip* online shop (**www.siliconchip.com.au**) or you may program one yourself. The software is available from the *EPE* website.

If you are programming the microcontroller yourself, you may be presented with a warning by the programmer stating that programming is not supported when both the MCLR pin is set as a general purpose input and the internal oscillator is used. Do not worry! You will be able to program the microcontroller successfully, so ignore this warning. That's because any problems associated with this configuration is already solved by a software solution. Read on if you want more details.

As mentioned, we set MCLR as a general purpose input and use the internal oscillator within IC1. This can present problems for a programmer during the process of verifying the software code after programming.

The problem is due to the fact that as soon as you program the microcontroller,

programmed default period of around 15 seconds.

Plastic case

The PCB is installed inside a UB5 plastic case with the piezo transducer arranged to 'fire through' a hole in the lid. You need to drill holes in the lid for the two LEDs, LDR, two switches and the piezo sound exit hole. In addition, two mounting holes, one either side of the two switches, are needed to secure the PCB to the lid, using spacers and screws.

The holes for the two LEDs and two PCB mounting holes adjacent to S1 and S2 are 3mm, the switch holes and piezo sound exit hole are 10mm and the LDR hole is 5mm. The drilling template (Fig.5) can be downloaded from the *EPE* website.

Having drilled the holes, the label can be attached. This can be downloaded from the SILICON CHIP website, printed out (preferably onto photographic paper) and affixed to the lid using either glue or neutralcure silicone.

Another option is to print the panel onto either an A4-size 'Dataflex' sticky label (for ink-jet printers) or a 'Datapol' sticky label (for laser printers) it will begin executing its program. A typical program initially sets up the microcontroller with the general-purpose lines set as inputs or outputs (I/O). This conflicts with the programmer needing to use the clock and data programming I/O lines for program verification.

This problem does not happen if the MCLR pin is set as the external MCLR input because the programmer then has control over the microcontroller, stopping it from executing the programmed code.

Note also that in order to run the code, the microcontroller has to have the internal oscillator configured instead of an external crystal, RC or external clock oscillator.

The programming problem is solved in the software provided by including a 3-second delay at the start of the program. This delay is before the I/O lines are set as inputs or outputs. The I/O lines therefore remain as high-impedance inputs while the programmer verifies the internally programmed code using the clock and data programming lines.

and directly attach this to the case lid. These labels are available from **www. blanklabels.com.au** – see accompanying panel.

Once the label is in position, cut out the holes using a sharp hobby knife.

The PCB is stood off from the lid of the case using $M3 \times 12mm$ tapped spacers. M3 screws secure the PCB to these stand-offs, with countersink screws used to secure the spacers to the lid. Finally, attach the lid to the case using the four screws supplied with the case.

Note that you can keep tabs on the condition of the lithium battery condition by observing LED2. If it flashes brightly, the cell is OK. As the cell discharges, the LED will become quite dim.

Changing the settings

There are three settings that can be altered on your *Hotel Safe Alarm*: entry delay, alarm duration and the entry code. These can only be altered after switching the alarm off by removing link JP1 and then pressing one or both switches while JP1 is reinstalled to connect power.

Changing the entry delay and alarm period are optional and you can leave

A warning from the programmer will still be issued, but the microcontroller can be programmed successfully and correctly verified by the programmer.

Note that the PIC12F675 also needs special programming due to the fact that it has an oscillator calibration value (OSCAL) that is held within the PIC's memory. This calibration value is individually programmed into each PIC by the manufacturer and provides a value that sets the PIC to run at an accurate 4MHz rate using the internal oscillator.

This value must be read before erasure and programming so that it can be included with the rest of the code during programming. If this procedure is not done, then the oscillator could be off frequency and that will have an effect on the *Hotel Safe Alarm's* sound.

Most PIC programmers will automatically cater for this OSCAL value, but it is worth checking if your programmer correctly handles this, especially if you have difficulties. Finally, be aware that the PIC12F675 requires a 5V supply for programming, even though it happily runs from 3V in the circuit.

them at default settings of 15 and 60 seconds, respectively. However, you will need to set the entry code.

Entry delay

To set the entry delay, power the unit off by removing link JP1 and hold switch S1 down while JP1 is installed. Continue holding S1 down until you get a short beep from the piezo transducer (after about three seconds). Release S1 and another beep will sound.

The delay period is now entered by pressing switch S2. This starts from one second (plus the initial wake-up time of 2.3 seconds) and each time you press S2 there is a very brief double beep from the piezo to indicate the entry delay has been incremented by one second.

You can increase the delay to 60 seconds but we think that 15 seconds is quite adequate. You then store the entry delay setting by pressing S1 and this will be indicated by a short beep from the transducer.

Alarm period

The alarm period setting process is very similar to the entry delay, but now we do it with switch S2. So to set the entry delay, power the unit off by

The PCB is mounted on the case lid using two M3 × 12mm tapped spacers and M3 × 6mm screws.



removing link JP1 and hold switch S2 down while JP1 is installed. Continue holding S2 down until you get a short beep from the piezo transducer (after about three seconds). Release S2 and another beep will sound.

The alarm period is entered by pressing switch S1. The alarm period starts at 10 seconds and each time you press S1 there is a very brief beep from the piezo to indicate that the alarm period has been incremented by 10 seconds.

The alarm period can be adjusted from between 10 and 120 seconds in 10-second steps. When S2 is pressed, the entered alarm period will be stored and indicated by a short beep from the piezo transducer.

Entry code

The entry code comprises a sequence of presses of S1 and S2. It can be as simple as 1, 2 or 2, 1 or it could be up to eight presses, such as 1 2 2 2 1 2 1 2. Most people will want to keep it reasonably short so that it is easily remembered, such as 1221. But it can be programmed to be any sequence from 1-8 presses.

To set the entry code, power the unit off by removing link JP1 and hold both switches S1 and S2 down while JP1 is installed. Continue holding S1 and S1 down until you get a short beep from the piezo transducer (after about three seconds). Release S1 and S2 and another beep will sound.

The entry code is now entered in, with each switch press acknowledged by a brief piezo beep. The entered code will be stored after both switches are left open (ie, after none are pressed) for five seconds. An acknowledgement beep then sounds.

Using the alarm

The correct code needs to be entered during the entry delay period. Do not try to enter the code too quickly. Each time you push a button you need to wait for a short beep and then you press the next button. So, for example, if your code is 1221, you do it in this sequence: 1 beep, 2 beep, 2 beep,

Front-panel labels

The front-panel label can be made by downloading the relevant PDF file from the *EPE* website and then printing it out onto photographic paper. It can then be attached to the front panel using silicone adhesive.

Alternatively, you can print onto a synthetic Dataflex sticky label if using an inkjet printer, or onto a Datapol sticky label if using a laser printer.

(1) For Dataflex labels, go to: www.blanklabels.com.au/index. php?main_page=product_info& cPath=49_60&products_id=335

(2) For Datapol labels go to: www. blanklabels.com.au/index.php? main_page=product_info&cPath =49_55&products_id=326

1 beep. If the code is correct, the alarm will not sound (the green LED stops flashing as soon as a switch is pressed).

If you make a mistake while entering the code, or you enter it too rapidly, the alarm will sound and the safe can be closed to muffle the alarm sound.

Entering the valid code prevents the alarm sounding only if no more switches are pressed. Any further button pressing following the valid code will be greeted by an alarm.

If an intrusion is detected, both LEDs will be flashing. They will cease flashing once one of the switches is pressed to begin the entry code sequence. The LEDs turning off may even give an intruder a false hope that the code entered was correct.

The alarm is rearmed after it is placed in darkness (safe door shut). If light shines on the LDR, you must enter the code to stop the alarm from sounding.



PDF file from the *EPE* website.



Fig.6: this front panel artwork is also available as a PDF file on the *EPE* website (see panel).

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Win a Microchip Dual Mode PICtail Board

C(RN-4678-PICTAIL) from *EPE*. The RN4678 PICtail is a Bluetooth Dual Mode demonstration board using the Microchip RN4678 Bluetooth Dual Mode module. The RN4678 module is a Dual mode Bluetooth module that complies with Bluetooth Core Specification 4.2.

The RN4678 is interfaced using a simple command interface over the UART. Out of the box, this versatile development board utilises its built-in USB-to-serial capability (enabled by an on-board MCP2200) to communicate with the on-board RN4678. When plugged into a PC, the board will enumerate as a Communication Device Class (CDC) serial device. Through a terminal program, users can configure and control the module and transfer data using the easy-to-use command set provided.

The RN4678 module provides an easy-to-use solution for designers looking to leverage both Bluetooth low energy (BLE) and Bluetooth Basic Rate/Enhanced Data Rate (BR/EDR) to connect new, or existing designs to the cloud. The certified module uses Bluetooth v4.2, enabling increased transmission speeds while conserving power for longer battery life.

The RN4678 module features include: ● A full Bluetooth stack onboard providing the flexibility to use either ASCII commands to develop an application with the internal microcontroller (MCU) or to use an external MCU ● Support for the iAP2 protocol to enable communication from accessories to iOS devices ● Easily implemented security enhancements, such as white list and random address features, enabled through a single ASCII command interface ● A configurable beacon feature, compatible with Eddystone and iBeaconTM technology, to generate beacons for indoor location tracking and proximity applications ● Support for Microchip's BeaconThingsTM technology, which automates two-way data transfer between devices when a beacon is in range, eliminating the need for a user to unlock the mobile device and launch an app ● Complete FCC, IC, CE, NCC, KCC, SRRC and MIC certifications to accelerate global deployment.



HOW TO ENTER

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Vol 6

Vol7

Vol8

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Volg [

Vol 10

VOL 23:	BACK ISSUES -
VOL 24:	BACK ISSUES -
VOL 25:	BACK ISSUES -
VOL 26:	BACK ISSUES -
VOL 27:	BACK ISSUES -
VOL 28:	BACK ISSUES -
VOL 29:	BACK ISSUES -
VOL 30:	BACK ISSUES -
VOL 31:	BACK ISSUES -
VOL 32:	BACK ISSUES -
VOL 33:	BACK ISSUES -
	A

January 2010 to June 2010 July 2010 to December 2010 January 2011 to June 2011 July 2011 to December 2011 January 2012 to June 2012 July 2012 to December 2012 January 2013 to June 2013 July 2013 to December 2013 January 2014 to June 2014 July 2014 to December 2014 January 2015 to June 2015

Vol 11

Vol 13 [] Vol 14

Vol 15

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Vol 12 1

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Give your Hi-Fi system some WOW factor with this spectacular Stereo VU Meter. It uses 80 high-brightness SMD LEDs to give any stereo amplifier/mixer a highly colourful dual-bargraph display, which simultaneously shows the average audio signal level plus peak levels. And it can display signal ranges up to a whopping 100dB.

YEARS AGO, some big and expensive stereo power amplifiers sported large dual VU meters to indicate the power levels in both channels. But while they looked quite impressive, they were a bit of a gimmick since their analogue meter movements could only display signal averages. They certainly weren't fast enough to display the peak signal levels, which would have been a big advantage. And of course, professional audio mixing desks also typically had VU metering – but these days it is usually based on LED arrays, which show average and peak signal levels, just like this design!

This *LED VU Meter* uses 80 highbrightness SMD LEDs to give a dual bargraph display of the average audio signal level, with dots indicating the peak levels. It can be configured to display a dynamic range between 40dB and 100dB, depending on your application. It's suitable for monitoring line-level signals or power amplifier outputs.

Whether or not you actually need to add this meter to a piece of equipment,

once you see it in action, you'll want to fit it in anyway!

If you are a keen Hi-Fi enthusiast, this VU meter can show you how much headroom you have from your audio amplifier; ie, it can show how many more decibels it is capable of delivering before clipping and this is indicated with the peak dot display.

It can also be used when recording or mixing, to ensure that the incoming audio signal(s) are consistent with each other and none of them are going to overload and cause excessive distortion or loss of dynamic range.

One important feature of an audio level meter is that it should update relatively fast, so you can see the dynamic nature of the signal, but not so fast that your eye can't track it. Traditional 'VU meters' were designed with a response time of 300ms (to 99%), to give a reasonable impression of signal loudness and also because the needle could only move so fast.

Since this meter uses digital technology, it can show the peak and average level simultaneously and the peak level can have a fast rise time and a slow fall time. The fast rise-time allows the circuit to 'catch' those very fast and short peaks, while the slow fall time allows you to better see them when they occur.

For purists, we've implemented a VU-style meter mode so you can stick with the traditional 300ms rise/fall time averaging if that is what you want.

The two bargraphs, one for each stereo channel, consist of 40 individual LEDs. With a dynamic range of 40dB, that means each LED lights for a 1dB increase in signal level. If you select the 60dB range, that gives 1.5dB/LED; the 80dB range gives 2dB/LED; and the 100dB range, 2.5dB/LED. These are SMD LEDs with rectangular lenses roughly 2mm square – and they are incredibly bright pin-points. We've included an on-board pot to reduce the brightness for a darker room.

The meter has a green/yellow/amber/ red colour scheme. The colour shifts simply give a warning that you are approaching the clipping level.

A pushbutton can select one of four full-scale signal levels: –10dBV, 0dBV,



Fig.1: a simplified circuit showing how the *Stereo VU Meter* works. The audio signals (left and right channels) first pass through a high-pass filter/attenuator, followed by an active low-pass filter and two gain stages. The signals before and after the gain stages are then fed to microcontroller IC1, which does the peak and average calculations, then drives a multiplexed LED display using outputs RB2-RB9 to control eight cathode-driving MOSFETs (Q1-Q8) and outputs RC0-RC9 to drive the LED anodes directly.

+4dBu or +7dBV. Different equipment will have different line levels and one of these will suit most devices: -10dBV (316mV RMS) for some battery-powered consumer equipment such as iPods and mobile phones, 0dBV (1V RMS) for other consumer equipment, +4dBu (1.228V RMS) for some professional gear and +7dBV (2.24V RMS) for CD, DVD and Blu-ray players and some other equipment.

You can make fine or coarse adjustments to levels or set your own based on reference signals fed into the unit.

The unit runs from a 12-15V DC supply, so it can be powered from a small plugpack, 12V lead-acid battery or a low-voltage internal rail in an amplifier or similar equipment. It only draws about 50-150mA when operating, depending on the LED brightness setting.

The PCB includes RCA input sockets and a DC socket for power, so it can be used in its own case with a clear lid or incorporated into another piece of equipment and hard-wired in place.

The metering circuit's signal-to-noise ratio is good enough to allow you to use

the 100dB range with a +7dBV reference level and use the whole range of the device. The 100dB range can also be used with a lower reference level but you will need to use the noise-nulling feature to get a blank display with no signal. This feature is useful to subtract source noise (eg, from the driving equipment) from the display when operating in the higher dynamic range settings.

Other features include: software adjustments to cancel out variation in brightness between different colour LEDs; peak+average, peak-only and average-only modes; non-volatile mode and calibration settings; and mode indicator LEDs (see specifications panel for more details).

Principle of operation

Fig.1 is a simplified circuit diagram which gives an overview of the operation of the unit. It's based on 32-bit microcontroller IC1, which operates at 40MHz and incorporates a 10-bit analogue-to-digital converter (ADC) with an input multiplexer. Seven of the analogue inputs are used. The two 40-LED bar displays (80 LEDs in total) are multiplexed in eight groups, each group of 10 sharing a common cathode that is driven by one of eight N-channel MOSFETs Q1-Q8, which are in turn controlled by the microcontroller's outputs RB2-RB9. The LED anodes are driven directly by outputs RC0-RC9. Only a 4x4 portion of the 8x10 LED matrix is shown, but you can see the general arrangement.

The eight indicator LEDs (LEDs81-88, four shown in Fig.1) are driven directly at their cathodes from eight microcontroller outputs. The anodes connect to the 3.3V supply via currentlimiting resistors.

Actually, there are no current-limiting resistors for the matrixed LEDs, as such. Instead, their current is limited by the internal impedance of the transistors which drive the micro's output pins, in combination with a softwarelimited on-time/duty cycle.

This results in a current drive of around 1.2mA/LED at full brightness, for a total LED bar current of around 100mA. Since this is split between 10

Features and specifications

- Display: two rows of 40 SMD 3216 (1206 imperial) LEDs
- Input signal: up to 2.33V RMS (+7.36dBV) or higher with changed resistors (eg, to suit power amplifier outputs)
- Frequency response: 5Hz-20kHz, -3dB (see Fig.2)
- Input impedance: approximately 37kΩ
- Modes: peak+average (dot/bar), average only (bar), peak only (bar), VU-style (peak+average or average only)
- Meter range: selectable 40dB, 60dB, 80dB or 100dB (1dB/LED, 1.5dB/ LED, 2dB/LED or 2.5dB/LED)
- Reference level: selectable –10dBV (316mV RMS), 0dBV (1V RMS), 4dBu (1.228V RMS), 7dBV (2.24V RMS) or custom levels (per-channel)
- Power supply: 12-15V DC, ~50-150mA
- Brightness adjustment: 10-100% via potentiometer (onboard trimpot or chassis-mounted)
- Inputs: RCA sockets for signals, 2.1mm or 2.5mm ID DC socket for power
- Other features: LED brightness matching for different colour LEDs in display, external/internal noise nulling, peak/average calculation period adjustment, supply reverse-polarity protection

anode drive pins, that means around 10mA per pin. (IC1 has an 'Absolute Maximum' rating of 15mA/pin and an overall limit of 200mA).

The analogue signals are fed into CON1 and CON2 at left. The circuit is designed for line-level signals with a maximum level ranging from around 316mV RMS (-10dBV) up to 2.33V RMS (+7.35dBV), to suit most consumer equipment and also some professional audio gear. The input divider resistors can be changed to allow much higher signal amplitudes, eg, to suit the outputs of a power amplifier. Further adjustments in fullscale level can be made using the pushbutton interface.

The signals are AC-coupled and attenuated to no more than 1.16V RMS (3.3V peak-to-peak) using a resistive divider. This AC coupling serves as a high-pass filter (HPF) to remove DC and very-low-frequency signals (<5Hz). Note that there is another HPF at the ADC inputs of IC1.

There is also an active low-pass 3-pole filter inserted immediately after the resistive divider, built around a dual op amp (for both channels) with a -3dB point of 20kHz. It provides a fast roll-off, with around 20dB of attenuation by 40kHz and also incorporates RF filtering. The overall effect of the low-pass and high-pass filtering on the frequency response is shown in Fig.2.

Analogue-to-digital conversion

The signals from the output of the lowpass filters are fed directly to a pair of analogue inputs on IC1. These signals are amplified by 23 times and the amplified signal is fed to another pair of analogue inputs. This signal is further amplified by another 23 times (ie, 529 times total) and fed to a third pair of analogue inputs. The seventh analogue input is used to sense the position of the brightness pot.

The micro samples all seven inputs, with the six signal inputs sampled continuously at around 40kHz and the brightness pot sampled every millisecond or so. For each channel, the software uses whichever signal gives the most accurate reading, ie, the unamplified input for higher level signals and one of the amplified inputs for lower level signals. This greatly improves its dynamic range, given that it only has a 10-bit ADC.

A perfectly noiseless 10-bit ADC would give a dynamic range of around $20\log_{10}(2^{10}) = 60$ dB. CD-quality audio uses 16 bits and has a dynamic range of $20\log_{10}(2^{16}) = 96$ dB, so it is desirable for our VU meter to have a similar dynamic range.

We could have used an external ADC, however these mostly come in finepitch SMD packages and can be a little expensive. Instead, we have used the two gain stages described above, in combination with software input switching depending on signal level, to effectively provide the extra bits needed to achieve a 100dB dynamic range while only using the existing 10-bit ADC.

Two momentary pushbuttons, S1 and S2, are used to configured the unit. These can be used to change a variety of settings, such as the meter range, reference level, peak/averaging mode, level calibration, brightness calibration and so on. When pressed, S1 pulls input RB10 low, while S2 pulls RB11 low. These are held high by internal pullup resistors which are enabled by the firmware.

In essence, the circuit concept is relatively simple, but a lot of the work, including the peak and RMS calculations, averaging, display multiplexing and so on is done by IC1's firmware.

Full circuit description

The full circuit diagram for the *Stereo VUMeter* is shown in Fig.3. The left and right channel input circuitry is identical, so we will describe the left channel only, with part numbers for the right channel in brackets.

From CON1 (CON2), the signal is AC-coupled via a 2.2μ F ceramic capacitor and DC biased to +5.6V via a $22k\Omega$ resistor. The 5.6V rail is half the 11.2V op amp supply, allowing the signal to swing symmetrically between the op amp supply rails (ie, between 0V and 11.2V).

This $22k\Omega$ bias resistor forms a divider in combination with the input series resistor, attenuating the input signal by half, while keeping the input impedance relatively high at around $37k\Omega$. As explained later, these resistor values can be changed to allow the unit to handle higher signal levels.

The 2.2μ F capacitor and $22k\Omega$ series resistor form a high-pass filter for the input signal. Further high-pass filtering is also performed by the software.

Dual SMD Schottky diode D2 (D3) clips the input signal, should it go below ground or above the 11.2V op amp supply rail. The BAT54S has a low forward voltage of around 0.3V, so it will conduct before the junctions in the op amp's inputs.

Low-pass filter

The following active 3-pole low-pass filter is built around an NE5532D lownoise op amp IC2a (IC2b). The first section of this filter, consisting of a $3.9k\Omega$ series resistor and 680pF capacitor, also serves to attenuate much

higher frequency signals (eg, AM radio) which may have been picked up by the signal leads.

This filter is a special case of the Sallen-Key active low-pass filter (see **www.beis.de/Elektronik/Filter/Act3Po-leLP.html**) which gives a –18dB/octave roll-off using a single active device (in this case, an op amp). The values were chosen carefully, to give a near-flat bandpass response (ie, Butterworth characteristic) using E24-series resistors and E12-series capacitors (see Fig.2).

Note that the $3.9k\Omega$ resistor was chosen with the $11k\Omega$ impedance of the preceding divider being taken into account. In other words, the resistance between the input and the 680pF capacitor should be $14.9k\Omega$; the two $22k\Omega$ resistors are effectively in parallel when considering the impedance feeding the RC filter, hence we subtracted $11k\Omega$ from $14.9k\Omega$ to get $3.9k\Omega$.

The filtered output from pin 1 of IC2a (pin 7 of IC2b) is fed to analog input AN0 (AN1) of micro IC1 via a 2.2μ F capacitor and $1k\Omega$ resistor. This resistor, in combination with dual Schottky diode D4 (D7), prevents the voltage at the micro's input from going below -0.3V or above +3.6V. In addition, a $22k\Omega$ resistor provides a DC bias of 1.65V, ie, the halfway point of the micro's 3.3V supply. This keeps the signal within the ADC's input range of 0-3.3V for input signals of up to 2.33V RMS (keeping in mind the 2:1 input attenuation).

While the micro has internal clamp diodes to protect its inputs and it might seem like D4 and D7 are overkill, we discovered an interesting 'feature' of the PIC32 series – if you drive an analogue input pin beyond its supply rails, even within its input current rating, the chip may reset! Hence these clamp diodes are mandatory, and as before, Schottky diodes are used because they will conduct before the IC's internal semiconductor junctions.

Gain stages

IC3a (IC3b) and IC4a (IC4b) are both configured as non-inverting amplifiers with a gain of 23, set by the ratio of the 22k Ω and 1k Ω feedback resistors. A 100pF capacitor across the 22k Ω resistor rolls off its frequency response, reducing high-frequency noise gain and making the whole circuit quieter.

To achieve the 100dB dynamic range relative to 7dBV (2.24V RMS), we need less than 22.4 μ V RMS input-referred noise throughout the entire system.



Fig.2: frequency response for the analogue portion of the circuitry. The steep (-18dB/ octave) roll-off of the low-pass filter can be seen, with virtually no attenuation below 15kHz, -3dB at 20kHz, -10dB at 30kHz and around -20dB at 40kHz (not visible). The bass roll-off is from two passive high-pass RC filters and gives a -3dB point of 5Hz and -10dB at around 1.6Hz.

That is why we're using NE5532 low-noise op amps.

The total system gain from the input to analogue input AN9 (AN10) is $0.5 \times 23 \times 23 = 264.5$. A -100dB (2.24μ V) input signal will thus be amplified to 6mV RMS. The 10-bit ADC senses voltage steps of 3.3V/1024 = 3.2mV. So this level of signal can be (just) measured by IC1.

Driving the LEDs

Driving the 80 LEDs in the VU meter takes up a total of 18 output pins. Each bar of 40 LEDs is broken up into four groups of 10 and the cathodes of the LEDs in each group are tied together. These cathodes are driven by one of logic-level MOSFETs Q1-Q8, which are in turn driven from microcontroller outputs RB2-RB9 (pins 23, 24, 33, 41-44 and 1 of IC1 respectively). Because these MOSFETs have such a small gate charge, no extra circuitry is required. Each MOSFET is switched on in turn for around 1.6ms.

When Q1 is switched on (ie, pin 23 of IC1 [RB2] is high), LED1-LED10 can be lit when their respective anodes are driven high. The anodes are driven by outputs RC0-RC9 of micro IC1 (pins 25-27, 36-38 and 2-4 respectively).

The cathodes of LEDs 81-88 are driven by microcontroller outputs RA9, RB12, RA10, RA7, RA8, RA3, RA2 and RA4 respectively (pins 35, 10, 12, 13, 32, 31, 30 and 34). The $1k\Omega$ currentlimiting resistors result in a drive of around 0.5mA each.

Controls

Tactile pushbutton switch S1 is used to cycle through the available meter ranges (and performs other functions when pressed and held, or pressed in combination with S2). Similarly, switch S2 cycles through the four different reference levels. Their associated input pins, RB10 and RB11 (pins 8 and 9), are also used for programming and debugging IC1. There is no conflict as long as neither switch is pressed when the in-circuit serial programming (ICSP) tool plugged into CON5 is being used.

Brightness pot VR1 forms a voltage divider across the 3.3V supply and the voltage at its wiper is sensed via analogue input AN11 (pin 11) of IC1. The brightness is controlled by adjusting the LED matrix anode-drive period.

Power supply

The power supply is relatively simple and uses only linear regulators, but its design is critical to achieve the stated performance. 12-15V DC is applied to



Fig.3: full circuit for the *Stereo VU Meter*. This shows the full 80-LED matrix at right, along with the power supply and details of the analogue circuitry. Dual Schottky diodes D2 and D3, in combination with the $22k\Omega$ series resistors, protect IC2 from excessive input signal levels, while D4-D9 (with $1k\Omega$ series resistors) prevent IC1's internal input clamp diodes



from conducting, depending on the signal applied. Also shown in more detail on this diagram are the three different signal bias levels of 0V (GND), 1.65V (half supply for 3.3V) and 5.6V (half supply for 11.2V). The amplified and filtered input signals are fed to microcontroller IC1, which drives the LED bargraphs via MOSFETs Q1-Q8.

Simulating VU meter response

The adjacent photo shows an original VU meter. According to Wikipedia: 'The original VU meter is a passive electromechanical device, namely a 200µA DC d'Arsonval movement ammeter fed from a full-wave copper-oxide rectifier mounted within the meter case. The mass of the needle causes a relatively slow response, which in effect integrates the



signal, with a rise time of 300ms. 0 VU is equal to +4dBu, or 1.228V RMS across a 600-ohm load...'

This Stereo LED VU Meter does not attempt to exactly replicate the operation of a VU meter. For example, the copper-oxide rectifier causes a VU meter to be inaccurate for low-level signals and thus makes a reading below –20dB difficult. We're still using proper RMS calculations and showing readings on a range of at least 40dB (depending on the range setting of the unit).

However, we have been able to implement a simulation of the ballistic properties of the VU meter needle in our software. When a 1kHz sinewave is applied to a standard VU meter which had previously had no signal applied, it should reach 99% of the final reading in 300ms and have an ultimate overshoot of between 1% and 1.5% of the reading. We've achieved this with a simple needle inertia simulation that tracks the needle position and velocity along with a target position (based on the current RMS reading), an acceleration coefficient and a damping coefficient. These two coefficients were tuned to achieve the required response, as stated above.

socket CON3, or else wired directly between TPV+ and TPG1.

Schottky diode D1 provides reverse polarity protection and drops less than 0.4V. The 11.6-14.6V DC at its cathode is fed to two resistors. One is a $33\Omega 1W$ SMD type which connects to the input of 3.3V low-drop-out (LDO) regulator REG1. This is in a relatively large SOT-223 4-pin package that is soldered to a considerable copper area, which includes thermal vias to conduct heat to the back of the board.

With a 14.5V input, 3.3V output and maximum load of 125mA, these components dissipate $(14.5V - 3.3V) \times$ 0.125A = 1.4W. Around 0.5W will be dissipated in the resistor with the remaining 0.9W in the regulator, hence the copper plane heatsinking on both sides, along with thermal vias under the regulator package.

SMD multi-layer ceramic capacitors are used to bypass the input and filter the output of REG1. As well as supplying the microcontroller and LEDs, the 3.3V output flows through a pair of series-connected $3.9 \text{k}\Omega$ resistors to generate the 1.65 V rail, which is bypassed with a $47 \mu \text{F}$ capacitor. This is important because the varying current demand on the 3.3V rail as LEDs are switched causes ripple, and we don't want this to couple into the input signal path.

The 11.6-14.6V at the cathode of D1 also flows to adjustable low-dropout

regulator REG2 (MIC5201). The 10Ω series resistor forms a low-pass filter in combination with its 2.2μ F input bypass capacitor to reduce the amount of ripple reaching REG2. It also causes a voltage drop of up to 0.25V.

REG2's output is set at 11.15V (nominal) by the $12k\Omega$ and $1.5k\Omega$ resistors. REG2's minimum input voltage is around 11.6V - 0.25V = 11.35V. With a load current of only 25mA, REG2's dropout voltage is less than 150mV, so it should stay in regulation. This is important since REG2 exists to eliminate ripple on the op amp supplies; even with a 100dB CMRR (common-mode rejection ratio), several hundred millivolts of ripple can have a significant impact on the overall signal-to-noise ratio of the system.

The 5.6V half-supply reference for the op amps is derived from the 11.2V supply with a $1k\Omega$ resistor and 5.6V zener diode ZD1, which is bypassed with another 47μ F capacitor. This further attenuates any ripple which may make it through the regulator.

Microcontroller IC1 has three 100nF ceramic supply bypass capacitors, with its AVCC supply filtered by one of these in combination with a 10 Ω series resistor. A 10 μ F ceramic capacitor between pin 7 (VCAP) and ground provides an output filter for its internal 2.5V core regulator, while a 10k Ω pull-up between the 3.3V rail

and pin 18 (MCLR) prevents spurious resets.

PCB layout

The PCB design is crucially important to achieve the desired performance level. The relatively compact PCB means that the switched LED supply lines inevitably run somewhat near the front end and the tiny amount of signal that couples in is picked up and amplified by the op amps. This is mostly ignored by the software (as explained later) but it does make the noise level in the left channel slightly worse than the right (but still below -100dB) due to its greater proximity to the LEDs.

The most critical part of the layout is the ground track routing. While all points connected to ground in the circuit must be joined together, there are a large number of ways this could be achieved, many of which would cause digitally switched currents to cause voltage shifts across different parts of the analogue front-end, ruining the performance.

The grounds for input sockets CON1 and CON2, regulators REG1 and REG2 (and their output filter capacitors but NOT input bypass capacitors) and the bottom end of the two half-rail bias generators are connected together, then brought back to pin 16 of IC1 (AGND). This pin is also used as the negative reference voltage for the ADC. This routing means that the analogue grounds and half-supply rails have very little AC voltage between them, as little current flows through these tracks and that which does is linearly proportional to the input signal.

AGND is connected to GND within IC1, and also by tracks running under it, so ultimately these pins all connect to GND. The op amp negative supply pins and their bypass capacitors are connected back to the ground pin of REG2 and the more-or-less constant supply current flows from there back to AGND and on to the main ground network.

Firmware operation

While the software is conceptually simple, it has quite a few modes and features. Its three main tasks are to continually sample the analogue inputs, perform the average and peak calculations based on the results and drive the multiplexed LED display. The first and last are 'real time' tasks so they are interrupt driven, with priority given to the LED multiplexing, as any delays could cause the display to flicker.
Constructional Project

The LED multiplexing is achieved using three of the five 16-bit timers internal to IC1: Timer1, Timer2 and Timer3. IC1 runs at 40MHz, in order to perform the required calculations fast enough to provide a rapid display update (around 40 updates per second). Timer1 is set up to trigger an interrupt every 65,536 (2¹⁶) clock cycles, ie, every 65,536 ÷ 40MHz = 1.6384ms. Since there are eight cathodes to cycle through, this gives a display refresh rate of 76Hz.

When this interrupt is triggered, the code branches to the Timer1 interrupt handler, which switches the LED anode drive outputs (RC0-RC11) low, then cycles the next MOSFET drive output (RB2-RB9) high. It then calculates which anodes to drive to light the appropriate LEDs and brings some combination of RC0-RC11 high.

If the brightness trimpot is set at a level below 100%, before the interrupt handler completes, it enables Timer3 and sets it for a value proportional to the brightness. When the interrupt handler for Timer 3 is subsequently triggered, RC0-RC11 are brought low, cutting off the LED drive to reduce the average display brightness. Both interrupt priorities are set to level four, the highest used.

An error in the silicon?

This multiplexing method works very well, giving a stable and bright display. At least, it did until we enabled the ADC. Even with ADC interrupts disabled, it caused the LED display to flicker.

We couldn't understand why, since the timer period should not be affected by the operation of the ADC and the flickering occurred even without enabling interrupts for the ADC unit at any location in the code. So why should the ADC interfere with the multiplexing?

We got a clue by examining the MOSFET drive signals for Q1-Q8 using an oscilloscope. Periodically, one of the MOSFET gate drive pulses would be extremely short; rather than the expected 1.6384ms, it measured something like 50μ s, appearing as just a spike on the screen. Following that occurrence, the next pulse for that same MOSFET would occur about 11.5ms later, or roughly seven timer periods, rather than the expected 13.1ms (eight timer periods).

This pointed to the possibility that, having completed the Timer1 interrupt handler, the processor would

Parts List

- 1 double-sided PCB, available from the EPE PCB Service, coded 01104161, 177 x 75.5mm
- 1 white switched PCB-mount RCA socket (CON1)
- 1 red switched PCB-mount RCA socket (CON2)
- 1 PCB-mount switched DC socket, 2.1 or 2.5mm inner diameter (CON3)
- 1 5-pin header, 2.54mm pitch (optional, to program IC1) (CON4)
- 2 PCB-mount mini tactile switches (S1,S2)
- 1 10kΩ SMD trimpot, TC33X type (VR1)
- 5 PC stakes (optional; see text)
- 1 12-15V DC 150mA+ power supply

Semiconductors

- 1 PIC32MX150F128D-I/PT or PIC32MX170F256D-I/PT 32-bit microcontroller programmed with 0110416A.hex, TQFP-44 (IC1)
- 3 NE5532D dual low-noise op amps, SOIC-8 (IC2-IC4)
- 1 MCP1703-3302E 16V in, 3.3V out, 250mA low-dropout regulator, SOT-223 (REG1)
- 1 MIC5201YM 20V, 200mA adjustable low-dropout regulator, SOIC-8 (REG2)
- 8 2N7002P logic-level N-channel MOSFETs, SOT-23 (Q1-Q8)
- 1 BZX84C5V6 5.6V 1/4W zener diode, SOT-23 (ZD1)
- 1 30V 1A Schottky diode, SMA/ DO-214AC or Mini2 SMD package (D1)
- 8 BAT54S dual series Schottky diodes, SOT-23 (D2-D9)
- 60 high-brightness green SMD 3216/1206 LEDs (LED1-30, LED41-70)
- 8 high-brightness yellow SMD 3216/1206 LEDs (LED31-34, LED71-74)
- 8 high-brightness amber SMD 3216/1206 LEDs (LED35-38, LED75-78)
- 4 high-brightness red SMD 3216/1206 LEDs (LED39-40,LED79-80)

sometimes immediately re-enter it and thus the code would then assume some time had passed and switch to the next multiplexed bank of LEDs prematurely. For some reason, this occurred only 8 high-brightness blue SMD 3216/1206 LEDs (LED81-88)

Capacitors (SMD 2012/0805 unless specified)

- 2 47μF 6.3V X5R 2012/0805 or 3216/1206
- 2 10μF 6.3V X5R 2012/0805 or 3216/1206
- 11 2.2µF 16V X5R
- 6 100nF 50V X7R
- 2 1nF 50V C0G
- 2 680pF 50V C0G
- 6 100pF 50V C0G

Resistors (SMD 2012/0805, 1% 0.125W unless specified)

2 22k Ω or 2	22.1kΩ 1% 0.5Ŵ
3216/12	06
14 22kΩ	4 3.9kΩ
2 20kΩ	1 1.5kΩ
1 12kΩ	19 1kΩ
1 10kΩ	
1 33Ω 5% [·]	IW 6331/2512

2 10Ω

Optional parts

Tapped spacers and M3 machine screws for mounting, shielded cable and twin-lead for hard wiring, case with clear lid

Optional laser-cut case

- 1 set 3mm clear acrylic pieces
- 1 small tube acrylic glue (solventbased)
- 4 M3 \times 10mm machine screws
- 2 M3 × 12mm tapped Nylon spacers
- 4 M3 shakeproof washers

Where to buy parts

The PCB, programmed microcontroller, case pieces and red/white RCAsockets are available separately from the SILICON CHIP Online Shop. We're also offering a set of parts containing all the SMDs except for the microcontroller and LEDs. Sets of 10 red, amber, yellow, green or blue high-brightness 3216-size SMD LEDs with diffused lenses are available separately, so that constructors can choose their own colours.

when the ADC was enabled and active. We can't figure out how the software caused this, since when the ADC is in auto-sampling mode, with interrupts disabled, it operates autonomously.

Handling higher amplitude signals

As presented, the circuit is designed to accept sinewave signals up to 2.33V RMS (6.6V peak-to-peak or 3.3V peak). Signals above this level will cause D2 and D3 to conduct and the meter will simply show a full-scale reading but no damage should occur.

This is not sufficient to monitor the outputs of a power amplifier. Some equipment may also produce line-level signals above 2.33V RMS. In this case, it's simply a matter of changing the input divider so that, with the maximum input signal level, the resulting voltage does not exceed 3.3V peak-to-peak. The parallel combination of the two divider resistors should be kept to 11k Ω . This means that the 'lower' leg resistor will need to be reduced in value, probably to somewhere in the range of 11-15k Ω .

Consider a power amplifier which can deliver 135W into 8 Ω or 200W into 4 Ω . This requires an output voltage of $\sqrt{(135 \times 8)} = 33$ V RMS or 93V peak-to-peak (33V × 2.828). For 200W into 4 Ω , the output will be $\sqrt{(200 \times 4)} = 28.3$ V RMS. So the meter would need to handle 33V RMS to monitor the outputs directly.

This means a divider ratio of at least $93V \div 3.3V = 28.2$ is required. We set the bottom leg to $11k\Omega$ (ie, the resistor from the 5.6V rail) since the other resistor value will be much larger and have negligible contribution to the divider's output impedance. The other resistor will then need to be at least $11k\Omega \times (28.2 - 1) = 300k\Omega$. This happens to be an E24 value; if it wasn't, we would have chosen the next higher value. The parallel resistance is $1 \div [(1 \div 11k\Omega) + (1 \div 300k\Omega)] = 10.6k\Omega$, which is close enough to $11k\Omega$.

This new divider reduces the input levels by 23dB compared to the original design, so the +7dBV setting is in reality now +30dBV, which would indicate full amplifier power into 8Ω . Note that the other reference levels will be effectively increased by the same amount.

Simple solution

In the end, we came up with a simple solution: we set Timer2 to the same time base and period as Timer1. When the Timer1 interrupt handler is about to exit, it resets Timer2. At the start of the Timer1 interrupt handler, we check the value of the Timer2 counter. If it's less than half the expected value, indicating that the Timer1 interrupt should not have occurred yet, we exit the interrupt handler without doing anything. This allows us to ignore the occasional spurious event.

Our guess as to the nature of this problem is that an implementation bug in this series of PIC32s causes some interrupt handlers to be re-triggered upon exit if something else is going on in the chip simultaneously.

A 'gotcha'

Another issue we ran into is that the display also started flickering when we added the code to update the states of LEDs81-88. Unlike the previous issue, this turned out to be our fault. LED86 is driven by output RB12 which is on the same port as the pins driving MOSFETs Q1-Q8 (ie, RB2-RB9). The code to update the state of LED86 read:

LATBbits.LATB12 = !(Sensitivity == 1); This looks like an atomic operation, setting the bit LATB12 which controls the state of output RB12. However, it is actually a read-modify-write operation, ie, the value of special register LATB is transferred to a general-purpose register, the value of bit 12 is changed and the result is then transferred back to the special register.

But if the Timer1 interrupt handler is triggered in the middle of this procedure, it may change the value of special register LATB. When the special register is written back later by the above code, that overrides the change made by the interrupt handler.

One possible solution is to temporarily disable interrupts while updating LATB12, but that's clumsy. The elegant solution is to take advantage of the special set/clear/toggle registers available for all the GPIO registers (and many others) on this chip, ie:

```
if( Sensitivity == 1 )
    LATBCLR = 1<<12;
else</pre>
```

LATBSET = 1 < < 12;

These operations are atomic, ie, can't be interrupted. If an interrupt handler is triggered simultaneously, it will be executed either before or after the clear/set operation, eliminating the flicker.

Analogue computations

The input signals (left and right channels) are applied to six different analogue inputs: two with an overall gain of one half, two with a gain of 11.5 times and two with a gain of 264.5 times. However, rather than switch between sampling these different inputs depending on signal level, we simply sample all six, all the time. The code in the ADC conversion complete interrupt handler routine decides which to use, depending on the values returned.

If the value from the input amplified by 264.5 times is very near either rail (ie, the conversion result is very close to either zero or 1023), the value from the 11.5 times amplified input is used instead, multiplied by 23 so that it has the same scale as readings from the other input. If that lower-gain input is also found to be very near either rail, the value from the third, attenuated input is kept instead, multiplied by $529(23 \times$ 23). The result is then stored in one of two 1024-entry stereo buffers for later analysis, to keep the interrupt handler routine quick so it won't interfere with LED multiplexing.

The micro's peripheral clock is set to run at half the rate of the main clock, ie, 20MHz. The ADC clock input divider is set to a factor of two, giving 10MHz. Each conversion takes 12 cycles, plus eight cycles for the sample-and-hold buffer to stabilise, for a total of 20 cycles each (10MHz \div [20 × 6] = 83.3kHz). We average each pair of sample values to reduce system noise, resulting in a final sampling rate of 41.6kHz, sufficient for measuring signal frequencies up to 20.8kHz (the Nyquist limit).

Once a sample buffer is full, the code's main loop calculates the average of all values and subtracts it from the sample values to remove any DC offset or low-frequency signals which have not been rejected by the analogue filter. It then computes the RMS and peak values for each channel.

The resulting RMS values are then stored and averaged over a configurable number of 1024-sample intervals, so that it varies smoothly. Similarly, the highest peak values across multiple 1024-sample buffers are computed.

These RMS and peak values are converted into decibels using a logarithmic calculation, taking into account the current range and reference level selection. The display is then updated to show the peak and/or average results (depending on the display mode).

Constructional Project



We used green, yellow, amber and red LEDs in the bargraphs, but you can change these to suit your requirements. Part 2 next month has the assembly details. Note: prototype board shown.

Other functions

Button presses are sensed using a pin change interrupt and debounced using Timer4 (S1) or Timer5 (S2). When a press is detected, the interrupt handler sets a flag and the main loop updates the mode and then saves the new setting to flash memory. These saved settings are automatically loaded each time the unit is powered up.

Long presses (>0.5s) have a different effect compared to short presses and this is determined by when the associated timer rolls over. As well as using these buttons to change the display range and reference level, various combinations can be used to change settings, to be described next month in Part 2.

Noise nulling is implemented by storing the left and right channel RMS and peak values when S1 is held down, both in RAM and flash memory. These are subtracted from subsequent readings, with the RMS noise figure being subtracted in an RMS manner.

LED colours

In our prototype, we used 30 green LEDs at the left end of each bargraph, followed by four yellow, four amber and two red. This is a purely aesthetic choice. You could make them all the same colour (eg, blue), or use a different combination than we did.

While brightness matching between different colours is generally good enough, the software allows you to provide some drive compensation to reduce the difference in apparent brightness between different colour LEDs.

We also decided to make LEDs81-88 blue, in contrast to LEDs1-80 and the parts list reflects our choices.

That's all we have space for this month. Next month we'll get onto the PCB construction, testing, operation and fitting the unit into a case.





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Everyday Practical Electronics, June 2017

Teach-In 2017 Introducing the BBC microbi Part 1: Meet the micro:bit

by Mike Tooley

Welcome to *Teach-In 2017–Introducing the BBC micro:bit.* Following on from our popular *Teach-In 2016* series on the Arduino (and previously the Raspberry Pi), Mike Tooley has extended his investigation of low-cost microcontrollers to the recently introduced BBC micro:bit. Not just an educational resource for teaching kids coding, this tiny lowcost microcontroller provides you with yet another solution to the problem of controlling a wide range of electronic projects, ranging from simple domestic gadgets to more complex control systems such as those used for lighting, central heating and security applications. To get you up and running quickly, each *Teach-In 2017* article will conclude with a simple but useful practical project. In this first part, Mike introduces the board, explains the hardware and shows you how to get started with coding. Our practical project takes the form of a simple electronic compass.

Introducing the BBC micro:bit

Originally intended as a learning resource for students in UK secondary schools, the BBC micro:bit is a tiny low-cost, lowprofile ARM-based single-board computer. The board measures a mere 43mm × 52mm. However, despite its diminutive footprint the board has all of the features of a fully-fledged microcontroller, together with a rudimentary but nonetheless functional 5 × 5 LED matrix display, two buttons and various sensors, including an accelerometer and a magnetometer. The board can be powered and programmed via a USB cable or derive its power from an external 3VDC supply (usually two AAA batteries). In addition, there is an on-board Bluetooth low-energy (BLE) interface for short-range wireless applications.

The BBC micro:bit can be purchased singly or supplied as part of an introductory 'kit' comprising a micro:bit, USB lead, battery holder, and two AAA cells. There are significant discounts for purchasing 'class sets' of boards for use in educational establishments,



Fig.1.1. The BBC micro:bit with MI:power board attached



competitive with alternative solutions such as the Arduino Uno and Raspberry Pi. The layout of the main components is shown in Fig.1.2. One edge of the board comprises a somewhat unorthodoxedge connector, which rather cleverly combines pads on a 0.05-inch (1.27mm) pitch with the five larger pads and

making the board Table 1.1 Specifications

Processor	32-bit Nordic Semiconductor nRF51822
Regulator/USB controller	NXP/Freescale KL26Z
Processor clock speed	16MHz (32.768kHz switchable)
Memory	256KB Flash and 16KB static RAM
Wireless	2.4 GHz Bluetooth low energy (BLE)
Accelerometer	3-axis accelerometer sensor via I ² C-bus
Magnetometer	3-axis magnetometer sensor via I ² C-bus
Edge-connector	23-pin 0.05-inch (1.27mm) pitch (see text)
Display	25 red LEDs in a 5×5 matrix
Inputs	2 user buttons (plus RESET)
DC supply	5V nominal (via USB) or 3.3V battery
Dimensions	43mm × 52mm



Fig.1.3. The edge connector pin assignment

rings intended for use with crocodile clips and 4mm banana plugs respectively.

Specifications

The processor is a tiny 32-bit nRF51822 (ARM Cortex M0) from Nordic Semiconductor. This is a powerful reduced instruction set (RISC) machine designed specifically for energy and space-efficient applications. The processor has 256KB Flash memory and 16KB of static ram. The ARM

Table 1.2 Default functions associated the I/O pins

Pin	Function	Use
0	GPIO	Large pad for general purpose digital I/O, analogue input and \ensuremath{PWM}
1	GPI0	Large pad for general purpose digital I/O, analogue input and \ensuremath{PWM}
2	GPI0	Large pad for general purpose digital I/O, analogue input and \ensuremath{PWM}
3	LED Col. 1	Can be used as GPIO etc. when the LED display is not being used
4	LED Col. 1	Can be used as GPIO etc. when the LED display is not being used
5	Button A	GPIO etc. shared with Button A
6	LED Col. 9	Can be used as GPIO etc. when LED display is not being used
7	LED Col. 8	Can be used as GPIO etc. when LED display is not being used
8	GPI0	General purpose digital I/O, analogue input and PWM output
9	LED Col. 7	Can be used as GPIO etc. when LED display is not being used
10	LED Col. 3	Can be used as GPIO etc. when LED display is not being used
11	Button B	GPIO etc. shared with Button B
12	GPI0	GPIO etc. (see Note 1)
13	GPI0	GPIO etc. (also SCLK for SPI bus applications)
14	GPI0	GPIO etc. (also MISO for SPI bus applications)
15	GPI0	GPIO etc. (also MOSI for SPI bus applications)
16	GPI0	General purpose I/O, PWM and UART
17	3.3V	+3.3V (positive supply and linked to the adjacent pad marked '3V')
18	3.3V	+3.3V (positive supply and linked to the adjacent pad marked '3V')
19	I ² C SCL	Serial clock for the I ² C bus (also available as GPIO etc.)
20	I ² C SDA	Serial data available for the I ² C bus (also available as GPIO etc.)
21	GND	Ground (common negative supply, linked to adjacent pad marked 'GND')

Notes

 Pins 3, 4, 6, 7, 9 and 10 are associated with the matrix LED display and also with the micro:bit's ambient light sensing mode.
 Pins 5 and 11 are associated with the two on-board

3. Although pin 12 is currently available for general

buttons (A and B respectively).

future use'. Future versions of the micro:bit may use this pin for a dedicated purpose.
Pins 19 and 20 are used by the I²C bus. This bus is used by the on-board accelerometer and

purposes, it should be considered as 'reserved for

bus is used by the on-board accelerometer and magnetometer chips and care should be taken if you intend to use these pins for any other functions. core can switch between 16MHz and 32.768kHz.

The processor is supported by an NXP/ Freescale KL26Z. This 48MHz device relieves the processor from the burden of communication by providing a fullspeed USB 2.0 on-the-go (OTG) interface for external devices. The KL26Z also provides the voltage regulation from the USB supply, converting the nominal 5V USB supply to a nominal 3.3V for the processor and other support devices. This supply is also made available at the edge connector. The abbreviated specifications are shown in Table 1.1.

On-board sensors and interfaces

A variety of useful sensors and interfaces are provided on-board. These include a 3-axis magnetometer and a 3-axis accelerometer, plus light and temperature sensors. For communication and interfacing, the board is provided with Universal Serial Bus (USB), universal asynchronous receiver/transmitter (UART), Serial Peripheral Interface (SPI), and Inter-integrated Circuit Interface (I²C) facilities.

The edge connector

The 24-pin connector along the lower edge of the board provides access to the micro:bit's input and output signals, as well as the two buttons (A and B), power and ground. Five of the pads have been enlarged, in order to facilitate crocodile clip connection and banana plugs. These pads also have large plated-through holes to accommodate standard 4mm plugs. Note that the numbering is not strictly sequential and the large supply (3.3V) and ground (GND) pins are not numbered at all.

The edge connector pin assignment is shown in Fig.1.3. Several pins have multiple functions. The default function of each pin is shown in Table 1.2.

Although several of the pads have been enlarged to make connection easier, it is essential to use an edge connector if you do need to connect to the full set of edge connector signals. Fortunately, several suppliers have responded to this need and can supply boards fitted with edge connectors specifically designed to accommodate the micro:bit. Some of these boards also have terminal blocks for solderless connection to external devices as well as built-in supply regulators, which facilitate the use of an external unregulated external DC supply of up to 12V (see Fig.1.4).

I/O signals

micro:bit I/O signals can be grouped by their function:

- General purpose I/O (GPIO)
- Analogue input
- LED column
- Button (A or B)
- Pulse-width modulation (analogue output)
- Serial asynchronous communication (UART)
- Serial peripheral interface bus (SPI)
- Inter-integrated circuit bus (I²C).



Fig.1.4. A micro:bit expansion board with terminal block connectors

Note that to use signals within some of these function groupings (see Table 1.2) it may be necessary to disable the default functionality for the pin concerned. We will explain how this is done in a later instalment.

Using buttons to replicate external inputs

The functions of the two buttons (labelled A and B) are respectively duplicated on pin-5 and pin-11 of the edge connector. This simply means that, if pin-5 is taken low (ie, connected to GND) it has the same effect as pressing button A. Similarly, if pin-11 is taken low, this will have the same effect as pressing button B. This feature can be quite handy as it will allow you to use a button press to simulate the signal from a switch or external digital sensor without having the device physically present and connected to the micro:bit.

Status LED

The status LED becomes illuminated whenever the micro:bit is connected to the USB port of a powered host computer, and flashes when data is being downloaded. The status LED will also be illuminated when the micro:bit is being powered from a USB power adapter. Note there is NO power indication when the LED matrix display is not being used and the micro:bit is deriving its power from a local battery.

Batteries and holders

The BBC micro:bit is designed to operate from a 3.3V DC supply. In practice, this can range from around 1.8V to 3.6V, but we would recommend using



Fig.1.5. Fitting an on/off switch in the battery connector

two alkaline AAA batteries for most applications. If you need to run your micro:bit continuously then a better solutions might be to use two AA batteries or make use of a 5V USB supply where mains voltage is available. The DC supply should never be allowed to exceed 3.8V as this may result in damage to the board.

The current consumed by the micro:bit will depend on the supply voltage and the amount of use the board is making of the LED supply. Devices connected to the I/O pins (such as external LEDs and relay drivers) will further add to the load. Typical supply currents can range from as little as a few mA to several tens of mA depending on what the board is doing.

Useful information on micro:bit power consumption and battery capacity can be found respectively at: www. reuk.co.uk/wordpress/microbit-powerconsumption/ and www.reuk.co.uk/ wordpress/microbit-battery-capacity/.

The battery holder supplied with the standard micro:bit kit is not fitted with a switch, so it becomes necessary to repeatedly connect and disconnect the power connector. If left connected, the batteries will drain unnecessarily and since this type of power connector is not designed for repeated connection and disconnection it is advisable to incorporate a switch in the supply connection (see Fig.1.5). Alternatively, battery connectors fitted with switches are available from some suppliers and these can usefully replace those supplied with the basic micro:bit kit.

Finally, one neat solution to the need for a battery pack is available from Kitronik (**www.kitronik.co.uk**) with their MI:power board (see Fig.1.6). The MI:power board fits snugly behind the micro:bit (see Fig.1.1) and has a 3V coin cell (CR2032), on/off switch, and a piezo buzzer. The MI:power board is connected directly to the 3V, GND and P0 connections on the micro:bit. The built in buzzer is connected to P0 (the default output pin when using the audio functions in the Block Editor software).

Maximum I/O current ratings

From the Nordic Semiconductor datasheet, the maximum current drive that can be obtained from an I/O pin is 5mA and no more than three outputs can be configured to provide this current (ie, a total of 15mA from the three output lines). In addition to limiting the output current for resistive loads you should also avoid connecting loads that are highly reactive (inductive or capacitive). Loudspeakers, solenoids and motors in particular may generate significant back-EMF whenever current is removed from them and the reverse voltages generated can exceed the maximum ratings for the GPIO pins. We will be looking at the micro:bit's I/O capability again in Part 2.

If you wish to use the micro:bit's 3.3V DC power (available from the edge connector) to supply external circuitry you need to keep in mind the total load on the on-board regulator. This device (a KL26Z) is rated at a maximum of



Fig.1.6. The MI:power board designed for attaching to the rear of a micro:bit

120mA when the board is deriving its power from the USB connector. Since the on-board devices consume a total of 30mA this leaves only 90mA for external circuitry (including whatever current is supplied by the GPIO pins). In practice, we recommend that you limit the external supply to no more than 50mA.

Programming environments

Thanks to its intended use as a platform for teaching coding, the BBC micro:bit supports several quite different programming environments. The most basic is a visual environment known as Code Blocks. Code Blocks dispenses completely with text-based coding and uses a simple drag and drop programming environment that is very easy to learn and makes an ideal starting point for anyone with no programming experience.

Using Code Blocks it is possible to assemble a working application in a matter of minutes and then have the graphical source (basically a picture of what the code will be doing) converted on-line into a hexadecimal file which can be downloaded to the host computer before copying into the micro:bit represented as a USB drive. This is all extremely easy but relies on a working Internet connection to the web-based application via the user's browser. In practice, this is extremely straightforward and it avoids several of the annoying complexities associated with other microcontroller development environments.

All of the development environments are freely accessible at the BBC micro:bit website: **www.microbit.org**. Note that both code editing and compilation are performed on-line, so you will need to have a web browser and an Internet connection in order to get going. When you open the website in your browser you just need to click on 'Create code' to get started, after which you will be able to select the programming environment that you wish to use. Currently the choices are:

- Microsoft Block Editor
- Code Kingdom Javascript
- Microsoft PXT (currently only available in a beta version)
- Microsoft Touch Develop
- Python

Microsoft Block Editor

Microsoft Block Editor is a very simple visual editor with a user-friendly drag-and-drop interface. The editor is designed to introduce structured programming. If you want to avoid the complexities of a text-based interface this is the one to start with. Later, you can convert scripts produced by Microsoft Block Editor into scripts that will work with Microsoft Touch Develop, once again providing a straightforward upgrade path to textbased coding.

Code Kingdom Javascript

Like the Microsoft Block Editor, the Code Kingdom's Javascript editor also provides you with a drag and drop environment in which each block represents a chunk of code. The interface makes it possible to switch easily between the visual environment and a text-based editor. Code Kingdom's Javascript makes the transition to text-based programming relatively straightforward.

Microsoft PXT

Microsoft's Programming Experience Toolkit (PXT) provides a coding environment that supports both a block-based editor and JavaScript. It also provides support for low-power wireless peer-to-peer communication.

Microsoft Touch Develop

Another package from Microsoft, Touch Develop is intended for use with mobile touchscreen devices (such as tablets and smartphones). The software can also be used with a conventional PC, keyboard and mouse. Touch Develop can be used to produce platformindependent web-based applications. Unfortunately, Touch Develop is not currently compatible with the standard Android browser. If you need to develop your code on an Android platform you will need to change your browser to Google Chrome.

MicroPython

Readers will already be familiar with Python from an earlier *Teach-In* that introduced the Raspberry Pi. MicroPython uses a text-based editor (there is no graphical programming environment) but this will probably not be a great concern for those with previous coding experience. There is currently plenty of support for MicroPython from an active community of developers and enthusiasts.

Which one to use?

If you have no previous experience of coding, we recommend that you start with the Microsoft Block Editor. This uses a highly intuitive visual environment and it will give you a taste of coding without having to resort to editing text. At some later stage, you will probably find the need to move to textbased editing and at that point we would suggest the MicroPython environment as this language is both well supported and available for multiple platforms. In next month's Teach-In 2017 we will be taking a closer look at MicroPython for the BBC micro:bit together with a simple development environment that will allow you to program and flash your code off-line.

Microsoft Block Editor

• Logic

The Microsoft Block editor environment is shown in Fig.1.7. On the left of the screen you will find a library of available code blocks sorted into the following categories:

• Basic	 Variables
 Input 	 Maths
• Loons	• LED

• L	ED 🔹	Pins
• N	lusic •	Devices

• Games

• Images

The centre of the display provides a coding area for you to assemble blocks of code. Blocks can be selected from the library on the left before dragging and dropping them into your code. Once there, blocks can be dragged around and linked together in order to produce a complete program. It's as simple as that!

The button controls at the top provide you with the options to run, compile and convert your work to a text-based file. The log button provides a log of your activity (useful for debugging). Right-clicking on the tidy button will allow you to collapse, expand or cleanup your blocks.

On the right of the Microsoft Code Editor screen is a virtual micro:bit, complete with buttons and LED matrix display. The board can also be tilted and rotated. This useful feature allows you to test your newly developed program without having to connect and download your code to a real micro:bit. To test your code on a real micro:bit you will first need to connect it to your host computer via the USB cable and micro USB connector. If you have not done this before you may find that your host computer needs to locate a USB driver for your micro:bit.

The process of locating and installing the driver will usually be automatic, but you might see a notification that the driver has been located and is being installed. Finally, when you are ready to send your code to the micro:bit you just need to click on the buttons at the top of the screen to generate and download a hexadecimal (.hex) file. When successfully downloaded, this file will appear in your downloads folder. When you've located the downloaded hex file all you need to do is to send or copy it to the USB drive that your operating system has allocated to your micro:bit. On computers running Windows, the board will appear as a drive under Devices and drives; on a Mac it will appear as a new drive under Devices.

The MicroPython development environment is a build of Python specifically for the BBC micro:bit. Unlike Microsoft Block Editor, micro:bit Python does not provide you with a virtual micro:bit to play with, so if this feature is important to you, you might want to stick with the Microsoft Block Editor or move on to the Code Kingdom

Javascript Editor. If you already have some Python experience or if you might be planning to move on to another, more advanced microcontroller, you might prefer to use the Python environment for your code development. Τhe Python environment uses a straightforward text editor and is supported by comprehensive documentation and tutorials. If you intend to develop more powerful applications that communicate with external devices (via UART, I²C and SPI bus connections) you will find the Python libraries invaluable.



Fig.1.7. The Microsoft Code Editor environment



Fig.1.8. The Microsoft Code Editor being used to develop the electronic compass

Project: A simple micro:bit compass

Our practical projects have been designed to give you some hands on experience of using the BBC micro:bit and our first project builds into a very compact handy digital compass. The compass uses the micro:bit's on-board magnetometer device and displays the unit's current heading in degrees by scrolling it on the LED matrix display.

Programming using code blocks couldn't be much simpler. Just open Microsoft Code Editor in the usual way (see earlier) and type in a name for your program in the text field at the top of the screen (we chose a rather obvious name!). Your source file will be stored under this name and it will also be used in the name for the hexadecimal file resulting from the eventual compilation of your source code.

Get started by selecting **Basic** from the blocks menu on the left and then select the **forever** block and drag it into the code window. Position it roughly in the middle of the window. Next, return to the block menu and select **Basic** from the blocks menu for a second time. This time locate **show number**, select it then drag it into the code window and drop it into the vacant slot inside the forever block. You should find that it quickly and easily drops into place with the forever block readjusting itself to accommodate the new block of code. Now select Input from the blocks menu. Locate **compass** heading before dragging and dropping this new block into the grey box inside the show number block. Once again, things should move easily and the show number box should adjust itself to accommodate the new block.

What does this all do? The **forever** block ensures that the program continues in an infinite loop for as long as power is applied to the micro:bit. **show number**

scrolls a number on the LED matrix display. The number displayed will be the current value of a variable called **compass heading** returned by the micro:bit's magnetic sensor and scaled into a value in degrees.

To test the code you just need to click on the run arrow (second from the left). When you do this the display will become illuminated and the current heading of the virtual micro:bit will be displayed (this should start at 0°). To rotate the virtual board, you can use the compass pointer (see Fig.1.8). As you rotate the micro:bit the heading will change.

Having tested our code we are ready to send it to our real micro:bit. Ensure that your micro:bit is connected to the USB port of your host computer (see earlier). Click on the compile icon (third from the left) and wait for a message to appear informing you that your hexadecimal file has been compiled and has been downloaded to your host computer. Navigate to your downloads folder, locate the file and send or copy it to the USB drive corresponding to your micro:bit.

As the hex file is being sent to the micro:bit you should notice the power LED flashing. When this stops the file transfer will be complete and the code will be running on the micro:bit. At this point you will be prompted (via a scrolling message) to calibrate the magnetic

sensor. This is done by holding the board horizontally and moving it around in a circle to illuminate all of the LEDs around the periphery of the matrix display, in order to draw a complete circle (see Fig.1.9). When in the right position, the moving LED will remain illuminated so that you can move on to the next in order to display a complete circle. Once this has been done the sensor has been calibrated and headings will start to appear on the display. Note that to obtain an accurate bearing you will need to hold the board horizontally and keep it still for several seconds. The indications will be inaccurate whenever the device is used in proximity to permanent magnets and ferromagnetic materials generally. Finally, it is important to perform the initial calibration with the intended power source connected (particularly if the power source is the MI:power board). This board is in very close proximity to the sensor and can result in a constant error if calibration is performed before the power board is attached to the micro:bit.



Fig.1.10. Checking the micro:bit compass against a conventional compass

Next month

In next month's *Teach-In 2017* we will delve into MicroPython and introduce the Mu editor that will provide you with an efficient method of programming your micro:bit without the need for an Internet connection. We will be also be investigating techniques for digital I/O using the micro:bit and our practical project makes use of the on-board accelerometer to produce a simple electronic spirit level.



Fig.1.9. The calibration circle display

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The Arduino offers a remarkably effective platform for developing a huge variety of projects; from operating a set of Christmas tree lights to remotely controlling a robotic vehicle through wireless or the Internet. Teach-In 8 is based around a series of practical projects with plenty of information to customise each project. The projects can be combined together in many different ways in order to build more complex systems that can be used to solve a wide variety of home automation and environmental monitoring problems. To this end the series includes topics such as RF technology, wireless networking and remote Web access.

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Surfing The Internet

by Alon Winstonley

Missien Impessi

Mission Impossible...

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ELCOME to this month's *Net Work*, the column written with Internet users in mind. The Internet has become so deeply ingrained into our ecosystem that most of us can be forgiven for taking the technology for granted. We have an entire generation that has never known life without the web, and as the laws of unintended consequences play out in real time, the explosion of online services is having an impact in some unforeseen ways. The author's local bank is shuttering its doors for the last time because everyone is supposedly 'banking online' and more consumers are choosing home deliveries of groceries ordered via the web, conveniently saving time and travel while forcing them to jostle for an empty 'delivery slot' and organise their lives around it as a consequence.

The web has made life easier than ever for those who are keen to repair, adapt or refurbish things, which I suspect includes most *EPE* readers. Some recent examples show just how indispensable the web has become to hobbyists and enthusiasts. After searching online a week or two earlier, the author has just received from California an 'impossible-to-find' Li-Ion battery for a Panasonic shaver, and an all-important assembly diagram was unearthed online too. A new shaver foil from Germany followed and (as I'm sure readers will want to know) some Williams Lectric pre-shave lotion arrived all the way from Chicago; the postman bearing the fruits of my productive web surfing. A legacy Brother laser printer is now sporting a new feed roller and pick-up pad, located online in Germany after a UK dealer let me down.

There's plenty more in this online Aladdin's emporium if you care to search, but it's worth reminding readers in Britain that if you pay using a credit card through PayPal, you lose the consumer protection that you would enjoy if you paid the supplier directly. You're buying from PayPal, not the supplier, and your statutory rights are replaced by PayPal's 180-day refund policy, with PayPal appointing itself as the arbiter of all disputes. For minor transactions this is probably not a worry, but buyers might think twice before making a serious purchase online using PayPal. In turn, traders face the risk of 'cowboy customers' who abuse the system with ruses such as mailing back an empty box and demanding a refund, hoping PayPal will play along. Sadly, the arm's-length remoteness of the Internet makes such fraud a seemingly victimless crime in the eyes of its perpetrators, and this has become part and parcel of today's online life.

Gadgets galore

Gadget-selling Far Eastern websites such as AliExpress, Goodluckbuy and Banggood have got their acts together too, with mobile apps offering extra discount deals. A tiny new camera module for an HTC smartphone was recently delivered from China, and YouTube proved to be a rich source of how-to videos that enabled a nerve-wracking phone repair to be undertaken successfully. (A pack of different-size guitar plectrums (eBay) makes useful pryingopen tools on plastic enclosures.)

The vivid green LEDs in an Eagle-brand LED nightlight (sourced on eBay) were swapped out for orange top-hat LEDs, once AliExpress delivered a set of Y-blade long-reach screwdrivers and an eBay seller supplied some orange LEDs for just a few pence each. The converted nightlight, which was not worth making from scratch, works wonderfully on my landing at night, enabling me to bask in its amber glow.

http://www

The web turned up trumps – or nearly anyway – when trying to repair my Pure Evoke Flow IP radio receiver, a birthday gift that I first reviewed nearly a decade ago. I tune into a US radio station which, as I write these words, is finally closing down its FM channel after many years and going online instead. (The friendly DJ in South Carolina graciously namechecked me before going off air for the final time.) In fact, I struggled to tune in at all as the Evoke's vivid yellow OLED display was fading fast, a victim of old age - I had to go underneath my desk to check it! Many other Evoke users have reported the same problem. Hunting online, a replacement looked a simple matter and other fans highlighted the display manufacturer, Taiwan's Bolymin, along with a part number that turned out to be only available from Britain's RS Components. It is presently halfway through its six-month lead time, so we will see who blinks first or gives up.

Thanks to information like this and more found on the web, there is a fighting chance of giving the radio a new lease of life, even if my favourite radio station is sadly no more. The DAB radio's British designers, Pure, was itself sold off by Imagination Technologies to Austria's AVenture GmbH last year.

Still with DIY repairs in mind, an enormous range of watch repair tools are sold on eBay and Amazon. These tools enable you – if your eyesight allows – to swap quartz watch batteries easily. A jeweller quoted £50 to swap a quartz movement on an inexpensive watch, so it was time to check out what's available online. Tools that push out strap pins, gadgets that unscrew or pry off a watch case back, and lever-presses that close them back together again – were all available on the web and could soon pay for themselves, much to the chagrin of my local jeweller. A quartz watch Miyota movement (£6.00) arrived from Greece, and specialist tools for removing and affixing watch hands came from China in a convoy of little packets. The web taught me that standard watch movements – called *calibres* – are found in many popular watch brands and their size



Watch repair tools and movements are readily available online

is measured in French *lignes*. For mass-produced watches, the maker merely designs the case and strap, which can be made in Hong Kong, and drops in a standard movement costing a few pounds.

Armed with new insights like these, there's no denying the empowering effect that the Internet has had, with inside information, products, parts and tutorials now just a click away. Sadly, however, my DIY watch repair was a failure, as a mangled second-hand will testify! It was fun finding out though.

Dashcams and Facebook

Increasing numbers of traders, including Chinese vendors sell merchandise using 'FBA' (Fulfilled By Amazon) where the parcel-peddling monolith takes care of all logistics and customer order processing on the seller's behalf. This can create a worrying disconnect between the customer and the supplier, with buyers sometimes reliant on Amazon's review or Q&A system to get technical support – if they're lucky. FBA vendors tend to chop and change, making it hard to know who you are dealing with or whether they will disappear overnight. If you want to know how FBA works, details are here: http://tinyurl.com/zjd9mrh

In the July 2016 issue I mentioned a car dashcam branded as K&F (Kent Faith, a Chinese seller of photo accessories) that I sourced from an Amazon FBA seller. The generally excellent 1296P HD camera was bundled with some Windows software that constantly locked up when viewing journeys on Google Maps. As I mentioned in the article, the problem was caused by its out-dated reliance on Google Maps that no longer integrated with the software properly. The best solution was found in RegistratorViewer, an excellent program written by the late Vadim Kozlov that handled dashcam .mov files with ease. It is still available free from www.registratorviewer.com/index_en.html. Just run the .exe, point it to the camera's memory card and pick Bing Maps instead.

I noted some memory card issues with this camera just as the FBA seller morphed into the oddly-named 'Beschoi', so I wondered if I had been left stranded with a device that didn't record properly. For once, though, Amazon's customer feedback pages yielded a very helpful email address and I was quickly sent a flash upgrade by the mysterious Beschoi. The upgrade process could be charitably described as 'somewhat non-English', but it worked and the camera's boot screen changed to Beschoi too. Happily the device has worked flawlessly ever since.

RegistratorViewer lets you trim the footage to export as a separate movie file. However, the resulting gigabytesize files often make it impossible to share them or upload onto Facebook (which will simply throw them out), so the quest has been for a simple video converter that would compress larger **.mov** files into MP4s suitable for Facebook or YouTube. Many dubious graphics programs are sold online, but I finally found one that seemed to fit the bill (it's



Macroplant Adapter is a useful free program for Windows and Mac; it has a range of functions, including titling and captions

free!). Macroplant Adapter takes in unwieldy .mov files and compresses them into MP4s and allows many minutes' worth of video to be uploaded onto Facebook without losing too much detail. Over on Facebook, videos can then be viewed in HD mode (click the player's cogwheel icon and choose HD) and the quality is perfectly acceptable, especially on a smaller tablet or smartphone. The clarity was so good that Facebook kicked out another dashcam video, stating that the car radio music was infringing copyright. Facebook named the tune, as well!

After experimenting with Adapter I found the software's 'Video Custom MP4' setting worked well. Other formats include **.avi** and animated gifs. You can also add layers to a video, eg, for text and audio, and **.srt** movie caption files can be imported too. This has yet to be actually tested, because unfortunately the program repeatedly crashed on the subtitle dialogs, but this bug may well be fixed in the future. Details on creating **.srt** subtitle caption files for your movies can be found at: http://tinyurl.com/lezax5b. Both Mac and Windows versions of Adapter are available. So if you want to convert some quick videos for Facebook, try it free at: www.macroplant.com

Smarter spearphishing

EPE readers know all too well how vigilant you must be when surfing the Internet, handling files or dealing with suspicious emails. Some criminal attempts at 'phishing' are almost embarrassing and can be dismissed instantly, but a hard core of determined criminals is becoming extremely sophisticated in its efforts to trick victims into visiting a website or opening a document that will attack their PC. Only once have I come close to falling victim to such tactics, when a close friend's email was hacked and the fraudsters impersonated her style of writing very well, but then the penny dropped that something wasn't quite right. I lost no money, but I admit it was a close thing. When confronted by such social engineering, human intuition can be more powerful than you think, so ask yourself, 'does it pass the sniff test?' If something doesn't quite 'smell' right somehow, tread *very* carefully indeed.

This week, I received a spearphishing email that shows just how clever these crooks are becoming. Spearphishing is a highly targeted attack aimed at an individual, perhaps using personal data stolen from a website, club, association or other source to add to its supposed authenticity. For reader reference, the email is reproduced below and it contained my name in the subject and supposedly my home address in the body. It's likely that the sender's name and email address had been spoofed. Probably, the crooks knew nothing else about me, but it was a very cunning attempt to pique my interest, hoping I would open a Word file and run a malicious macro.

To: Alan Winstanley Date: Tue, 28 Mar 2017 16:54:10 +0000 From: XXXXXXXXXXXX Subject: Alan
Good day to you, Alan! I am bothering you for a very significant matter. Allhough you don't know me, but I have considerable ammount of data concerning you. The fact is that, most probably mistakenly, the information of your account has been emailed to me. For instance, your address is: XXXXXXXXXX XXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
I am a law-abiding citizen, so I decided to alert may have been hacked. I pinned the file - Winstanley.dot that was sent to me, that you could explore what data has become available for deceivers. Document password is - 9583 Sincerely, xxxxx xxxxxxxx

Obviously, the mail was deleted and the file attachment was triple-shredded. A macro could install a keylogger that relays banking keystrokes back to criminals or installs malware, ransomware or a spamming tool. By default, in my Word program macros are disabled, and readers should do the same. Go to: Options / Trust Center / Disable all macros from running.

See you next month for more *Net Work*. You can email the author at: **alan@epemag.net**

32 bit PIC Training

by Peter Brunning



32 bit PICs are massive in all respects. Huge amounts of programme memory, huge amounts of temporary storage memory (RAM), huge amounts of input/outputs, and very fast processing speeds. And fortunately for us experimenters Microchip have included a dual in line version.

The problem is that 32 bit PICs are far to complex for absolute beginners. So the P955 training circuit has been designed to work with both 32 bit and 8 bit PICs. The idea is to start learning about PICs using assembler with 8 bit PICs. Then learn C with 8 bit PICs, study serial communications using 8 bit PICs, and finally study C programming using 32 bit PICs. It is a simple approach to a subject that has no limit to its ultimate complexity.

The Brunning Software P955H PIC Training Course

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

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

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

In the fourth book we learn to programme 32 bit MX PICs using fundamental C instructions. Flash the LEDs, study the 16



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

The complete P955H training course is £254 including P955H training circuit, 4 books (240 × 170mm 1200 pages total), 6 PIC microcontrollers, PIC assembler and programme text on CD, 2 USB to PC leads, pack of components, and carriage to a UK address. (To programme 32 bit PICs you will need to plug on a PICkit3 which you need to buy from Microchip, Farnell or RS for £43).

Prices start from £170 for the P955H training circuit with books 1 and 2 (240 × 170mm 624 pages total), 2 PIC microcontrollers, PIC assembler and programme text on CD, USB to PC lead, and carriage to UK address. (PICkit3 not needed for this option). You can buy books 3 and 4, USB PIC, 32 bit PIC and components kit as required later. See website for details.

Web site:- www.brunningsoftware.co.uk

Mail order address:



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Mike O'Keeffe

Our periodic column for PIC programming enlightenment

PICs and the PICkit 3: A beginner's guide – Part 11

THIS MONTH, we are going to tackle Lesson 11, which (mostly) looks at 'indirect addressing'. As mentioned every month, I recommend having a read of the previous articles in the series. It's not necessary for this article, but you will gain a greater insight into PICs and what we're trying to achieve here. You will also need the following software and hardware:

- 1. Purchase the PICkit 3 Low Pin Count Demo Board (http://tinyurl. com/h2jj2ek)
- 2. Purchase the PICkit 3 Programmer
 + USB Cable (http://tinyurl.com/ zcpx3le)
- 3. Download PICkit 3 Starter Kit User's Guide (http://tinyurl.com/jyqfeuk)
- Download MPLAB X IDE (http://tinyurl.com/hmehqja)
- 5. Download XC8 Compiler (http://tinyurl.com/h5g9k5l)
- Download Example code for PICKit3 Starter Kit (http://tinyurl.com/ z2dm5k3)

A word of warning, this subject is not straightforward and there are some difficult concepts to grasp; so I'm going to break it down into manageable pieces with the aid of diagrams. Starting off with the part of the PIC system that is 'addressed' – namely, the memory. Then, a brief description of what addressing is and finally we'll move on to pointers.

Memory

Before we look at indirect addressing, we need to know what it is we are addressing. When we write our code

in MPLAB X and compile it, we need to program new code onto the PIC microcontroller. The PIC16F1829 has three types of memory:

- Program memory
- Data memory
- Data EEPROM memory

The program memory is the location where new code is sent. A program counter then executes, in order, each command in the code that is stored in the program memory. When a reset occurs, the program counter goes back to the start of the program memory and each command is executed again.

Fig.1 shows the program memory map and stack for the PIC16F1829. You can see the program counter (PC) followed by the stack, which stores information about the active subroutines of the program. This is followed by the reset vector at 0000h (which is the same as 0x0000, both



Fig.1. Program memory map and stack for PIC16F/LF1825/1829

hexadecimal) and the interrupt vector at 0004h (0x0004). Below that we have the on-chip program memory, which is where our code is stored. There's a lot more going on in this diagram, but that's a discussion for another day.

The data memory is implemented with RAM (random access memory). It contains special registers and generalpurpose registers. This is where runtime variables are stored. RAM is volatile, so when the microcontroller is reset or the power is removed, all of the data in this type of memory is deleted – ie, the contents are forgotten.

By contrast, the non-volatile data memory area is made of EEPROM. Variables written to this area won't get deleted during a power off or a reset. (We'll cover this in Lesson 15 in a few month's time.)

Addressing

Lesson 11 in the *PICkit 3 Starter Kit User's Guide* aims to explain the various addressing modes, but to be honest, I found the explanations heavy going and difficult to read. The focus on the lesson is on indirect addressing, which the *User Guide* covers in detail, as well as the other addressing modes: inherent, lateral and direct.

Broadly speaking, *direct* addressing means an instruction refers directly to the address being accessed. That is, the instruction itself contains the address of the location. *Indirect* addressing uses an address held in a register or other location to determine what memory location to read or write. The idea here is that

the instruction itself isn't directly telling you the address to access, but rather indirectly telling the CPU where to find that address – hence 'indirect'. At this stage it's best to focus on what is actually happening instead of dry theoretical definitions of how each mode works, so let's go straight to an example.

Take a variable instantiation:

int some_var = 4;

This initialises a variable called some_var and stores the value 4 in it. In this case, it is best to imagine the 4 is stored inside a box called some_var. Fig.2 shows a diagram of this box. When we look inside this box, we can see it has the number 4. Now imagine this box is in a warehouse with many other boxes, called by different variable names and storing different values. In order to find the box called some_var, we would need a unique address. This address



is the exact location of the box in the warehouse. Every time we use some_var, our PIC will find the address of this box and then find the value inside this box.

In this analogy, the warehouse is our internal memory, the box is the variable and the number 4 is the contents. Now all we need is the memory location of that variable in memory. The variable some_var, like all other variables or constants, will have its own unique memory location in memory storing the value assigned to it. This memory location is automatically assigned when we instantiate the variable some_var.

Pointers

So far in our code, we've used variables, definitions and functions without caring how these truly work inside our PIC. We have our variable somewhere in memory, but how do we find out its address or memory location? We use pointers.

int *some_ptr;

A pointer is like a variable. When it is declared it will store a value, but instead of storing its own value, it will store the address of another variable. The code above initialises a pointer called some_ptr, note the asterisk (*) before the name, which tells us it is a pointer and not a variable.

some_ptr = &some_var;

In the line above we take the address of some_var and store it in the pointer. Note the ampersand (\mathfrak{a}) before some_var, which denotes the address of that variable.

In Fig.2, we return to the box and the warehouse analogy. On the left, we have the box called some_var, which stores the value 4. We have another box some_ptr, which stores the address of some_var. Below each box is the address of the memory location of each. Note the address of some_var can be seen in the box some_ptr.

This gets a little complicated when you want to point a pointer at another pointer. Pointers become extremely useful when you want to access a large number of memory locations with ease, like an array.

Arrays

Sometimes, we don't want to access just one variable, but a whole group of variables. Arrays can store a whole collection of variables of the same type. Instead of declaring a bunch of variables: int var1, int var2, int var3, int var4 up to int var8, we could write int var_num[8] instead. This declares an array of eight variables with type int. In order to access any of these, we simply change the number in the brackets, ie var_num[3] = 13;

Pointers are often used with arrays as a convenient way to access each element in the array, quickly and efficiently. We can see this in the following code.

The code

In this example code for indirect addressing, a 'moving average filter' is created. Its operation is similar to taking the average of a set of numbers. However, instead of operating on just one set of numbers, there is a constant stream of numbers, in this case from the PIC's ADC input. In order to accurately calculate the average, we use a moving average filter. (Also known as a 'rolling' or 'running average' filter; used to smooth out fluctuations caused by external noise.) If it were implemented in hardware, it would simply be called a 'low-pass filter'.

The actual code is taken from *Lesson 4: Analog to Digital Conversion.* The only difference from that code is that here we apply the moving average filter for a smoother analogue input. For all intents and purposes, you probably won't notice any difference in the behaviour of the board unless it is near a lot of electrical noise.

```
#define NUM_READINGS 8
unsigned char average(unsigned char *ptr);
unsigned char adc(void);
unsigned int _sum = 0;
```

In the four lines above, we start by defining a constant called NUM_READINGS, which will be used later.

Before using a function, it needs to be declared before the main code. Here we declare a function called average, which takes an unsigned pointer to a char and returns an unsigned char. A second function called adc takes no value and returns an unsigned char. These are also known as the 'function prototypes' because they let the compiler know about the behaviour of functions used in the code before they are used. Further on, we will see the actual functions and their contents.

Last but not least, we initialise a variable called $_\texttt{sum}$ and store a 0 in it.

```
void main(void) {
    unsigned char *ptr_queue;
    unsigned char queue[8] = {0};
    unsigned char i;
```

The main code starts by initialising a pointer called *ptr_ queue. The next line is a new one, where we initialise an array or char and set each value to 0. This array stores eight values, all of which are now equal to 0. Last, a generalpurpose char i is declared.

```
OSCCON = 0b00111000;
TRISC = 0;
```

We've seen these next two lines many times before. We set the clock to 500kHz using the OSCCON register, and set Port C to outputs using the TRIS register.

```
TRISAbits.TRISA4 = 1;
ANSELAbits.ANSA4 = 1;
ADCON0 = 0b00001101;
ADCON1 = 0b00010000;
```

Again, there's nothing new in the next four lines. Port RA4 is connected to the output of the potentiometer on the Low Pin Count board, so it is set as an analog input. Port RA4 is then set up as the source of the ADC, and the ADC module is enabled using the ADCON0 register. ADCON1 then sets the returned values to be left justified, the speed is set to FOSC/8 and the Vref is VDD. (This has all been covered in previous lessons.)

```
while (1) {
    ptr_queue = &queue;
    for (i = NUM_READINGS; i != 0; i--){
        LATC = (average(ptr_queue) >> 4 );
        ptr_queue++;
    }
}
```

This next piece of code is where all the action is. In the while loop, we take the address of the variable array queue and store it in the pointer ptr_queue. This pointer now points to the start of the array and not the whole array.

In the for loop, we start with variable i equal to NUM_READINGS, which is 8, as declared earlier. Each iteration

decrements i until it is equal to 0, then exits. Effectively, this means NUM_READINGS dictates the 'number of readings' made in each averaging cycle. We could increase or decrease this number for smoother or less smooth outputs. Note the naming of this variable, which accurately describes what it is doing.

The next line takes the value stored in the variable, which ptr_queue is pointing to. In the first iteration, this is the first element in the array queue, which is queue[0]. This value starts off as 0, as declared earlier in the code. This value is then sent to the function average, which takes the first value (0) and sums it to the new value taken from the ADC. This value is then returned from the function, right shifted by four and stored in the Port C, which is where the LEDs are connected.

```
unsigned char average(unsigned char *ptr) {
   _sum -= *ptr;
   *ptr = adc();
   _sum += *ptr;
   return (_sum/NUM_READINGS);
}
```

As mentioned above, the previously declared function average is defined here. Taking it line by line it expects an unsigned char pointer to be passed to it when the function is called. Then we take the value stored in the variable that ptr points to, which is the first element in the array queue[0] (for the first iteration of the for loop mentioned above). This value is subtracted from the contents of _sum, which are initially 0. _sum is our moving average sum variable.

Next, we sample the ADC using the adc function and store the returned value in the variable that the ptr is pointing to, which is still queue[0].

Now we have a value in queue[0], we take that value (using the ptr to point to it again) and add it to the _sum variable.

Last, we want to return the averaged sum value divided by the number of samples taken.

```
unsigned char adc(void) {
   __delay_us(5);
   GO = 1;
   while (GO) continue;
   return ADRESH;
}
```

We've seen our final function adc many times in previous lessons. There's a small 5µs delay to allow the capacitor on the ADC pin to charge before starting the conversion by setting the GO command to 1. Then we wait for the conversion to complete and return the eight most-significant bits, which are stored in the ADRESH register.

Next month

I hope I haven't lost you completely this month! Indirect addressing is not the easiest topic, but it is important, so stick with it and *work* through the examples. Next month, we're going to look at a very useful function – look-up tables. Then we will finish this series with EEPROMs and a small project, which will attempt to use as much of what we've learned in this series. After that we shall bid *adieu* to the PICkit 3 Low Pin Count Demo Board and move onto new fun topics.

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

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



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REGULAR CLINIC

BY IAN BELL

Oscilloscope probes

FEW MONTHS ago new *EPE Chat Zone* user *simonbond* posted a question about oscilloscope probes.

'Just a simple query about the x1/x10 oscilloscope probe bandwidth trade-off. My new 100MHz Hantek scope says that the probe in the x1 setting limits the scope bandwidth to 6MHz, but to use the full bandwidth of the scope (I assume the full 100MHz), select the x10 setting. I thought the x1/ x10 would mean 60MHz. Not sure where the extra 40MHz comes in? Obviously I would like to have the full 100MHz, so should I buy some better quality probes? I use 50 Ω coax and BNCs for all my connections to signal generators and counters. But I would be grateful for advice/explanation about the 6MHz/60MHz/100MHz question!'

Later in the discussion, frequent contributor **741** also asked in response to a comment from another frequent contributor **zeitghost**, 'Do probes still use resistive inner conductors?'

There is a lot more to a scope probe than 'just a piece of wire' connecting the circuit under test to the oscilloscope. Probe design takes into account the related issues of loading the circuit under test, bandwidth and the effect of the probe on the shape of fast pulse signals. To answer *simonbond's* question we will look at the circuitry of x1 and x10 oscilloscope probes and discuss how this relates to the bandwidth. As it is part of the same story, we will also look at why scope leads use resistive conductors, as raised by **741** and *zeitghost*. Our discussion here will be limited to what are called 'passive probes' – these are probes that only contain passive components – in other words, they do not provide active amplification.

Before getting into the details, it's worth mentioning the meaning of 'x1' and 'x10' in the context of oscilloscope probes. This refers to the attenuation of the probe on the signal. So with a x1 probe the oscilloscope sees an input voltage equal to the voltage being measured (under ideal conditions), for a x10 probe the oscilloscope sees an input voltage which is one tenth of the voltage being measured. Oscilloscopes often have a x10 probe setting (manual switch or menu item, or automatic adjustment when the probes are plugged in) so that the voltage displayed represents the actual voltage measured, rather than the attenuated voltage from the probe.

It is common to find oscilloscope probes with switchable x1 and x10 settings, but higher quality x10 probes tend not to feature a x1 setting. Other attenuation factors are also available (eg, x100) but are less common. Attenuation may be useful if the voltage being measured is larger than the maximum input of the oscilloscope, but that is not the primary reason for using a x10 probe. As indicated by *simonbond's* question, probes with higher attenuation factors are able to provide more measurement bandwidth and may be required to fully exploit the bandwidth of the oscilloscope.

Loading

There is a general rule that if you try to measure something then you will change the thing you are measuring. There is a large range of possible outcomes – the effect of the measurement on the measured parameter may range from



Fig.1. Equivalent circuit for a test instrument such as an oscilloscope connected to a circuit under test in order to measure a voltage

infinitesimal to catastrophic. In the case of using electronic test equipment, such as multimeters and oscilloscopes, to measure or monitor the voltage in a circuit the effect on the measured by the measurement is called 'loading'. In general terms, the instrument takes some input current that changes the currents in the circuit under test, resulting in a shift in the voltage being measured.

Fig.1 shows a generalised situation in a circuit where a source or output is connected to a load. This is an abstract representation of a vast range of possible cases where two electronic circuits or devices are connected together, including the situation where an oscilloscope is connected to a circuit under test. Here, the point in the circuit under test where the oscilloscope is connected is represented by a voltage source $V_{\rm S}$ and source impedance $Z_{\rm S}$. The voltage we want to measure is $V_{\rm S}$. The oscilloscope's effect on the circuit is represented by the load impedance, $Z_{\rm L}$. When the oscilloscope is connected it will cause a current $I_{\rm M}$ (measurement current) to flow through $Z_{\rm S}$ resulting in a voltage drop across $Z_{\rm S}$. Thus the measured voltage, $V_{\rm M}$, will not be the same as the voltage we are trying to measure, $V_{\rm S}$.

The idea that any point in a circuit can be represented by a single voltage source and an impedance (resistor in the simplest cases) is based on Thévenin's theorem. The theorem is named after Léon Charles Thévenin (1857-1926), a French telegraph engineer; although the theory was also developed 30 years earlier, in 1853, by Hermann von Helmholtz (1821-1894). Thévenin's theorem states that a linear electronic circuit that comprises any combination of voltage sources, current sources and resistors, with two output terminals, is electrically equivalent to a single voltage source, $V_{\rm S}$, and a single series resistor, $R_{\rm S}$ ($Z_{\rm S}$ in Fig.1).

Node impedance

In Fig.1 the two impedances form a potential divider. Thus, the voltage seen by the oscilloscope, or other instrument, is given by:.

$$V_M = \frac{Z_L}{\left(Z_S + Z_L\right)} V_s$$

We derive this equation using Ohm's law to obtain the current through the two impedances ($V_{\rm S}$ divided by the total impedance) and applying Ohm's law again to get the voltage drop across $Z_{\rm L}$ (multiplying the current by $Z_{\rm L}$). From the equation, we confirm that if we want $V_{\rm M}$ to be as

close as possible to $V_{\rm S}$ then $Z_{\rm L}$ must be much larger than $Z_{\rm S}$. If $Z_{\rm L}$ is very much larger than $Z_{\rm S}$ then the measured voltage is effectively equal to the source voltage.

For a typical voltage measurement instrument we would expect $Z_{\rm L}$ to be large, maybe in the region of several megohms, and we would expect its value to be stated or implied in the instrument's specifications. This is straightforward at low frequencies (eg, for DC measurement using a digital voltmeter/multimeter), but a little more complex over wide frequency ranges, which we will discuss shortly.

The value of $Z_{\rm S}$ may be far less easy to determine – it is the Thévenin equivalent impedance, not an actual component value. In general, if the point of interest in the circuit is the output of a power supply, power amplifier, or similar circuit it is likely that $Z_{\rm S}$ will be relatively small and connecting the test instrument will probably not cause loading problems. Such points in circuits are referred to as 'low-impedance nodes'. On the other hand, if the point of interest in the circuit is only connected to low impedance nodes via large resistors, or other high impedances then it is likely to have a large $Z_{\rm S}$ and be susceptible to loading effects. It is then referred to as a 'high-impedance node'. The circuit in



Fig.2. Circuit with low and high impedance nodes. Connecting an oscilloscope or other test instrument to point A may have a significant loading effect. There is less likely to be a problem measuring point B

instrument point A in this circuit is more likely to disrupt its operation due to loading effects than connecting to point B. Even if disruption does not occur, the measurement at point A is likely to be less accurate unless the instrument input impedance is very high.



Fig.3. Equivalent circuit for an oscilloscope connected directly to a circuit under test (approximate circuit for a x1 passive probe)

Capacitive loading

So far, we have mentioned that loading may be frequency dependent, but have not looked at this in detail. At this point it is helpful to consider the specific input characteristics of a typical oscilloscope – is $1M\Omega$ resistance in parallel with 10 to 20pF of capacitance. The probe lead also has significant capacitance, typically in the range 50 to 100pF. The circuit in Fig.3 represents the connection of an oscilloscope to a circuit under test. It is similar, but not

quite the same as using a x1 probe. We will look at the differences between this circuits and a x1 probe later, but the circuit in Fig.3 is sufficient to consider basic loading effects.

At DC, the lead and scope input capacitances have infinite impedance and therefore the load impedance (Z_{I}) is simply $1M\Omega$. At higher frequencies we can calculate the effective resistance (reactance) of the capacitance $(X_{\rm C})$ using:

$$X_C = \frac{1}{2\pi fC}$$

For example, at 6MHz with a total capacitance of 90pf, $X_{\rm C}$ is about 295Ω . This is in parallel with the $1M\Omega$ resistance, but the effective resistance of the capacitance is so low that the $1M\Omega$ is more or less irrelevant.

At high frequencies the effective input impedance of the scope is quite low. The user needs to ask how much this will load the circuit under test. If the oscilloscope is connected directly to a signal generator or low-impedance source the situation may be fine, but if the oscilloscope is connected to a high-impedance node in a circuit the loading effect on the signal of interest may be very significant.

x10 probe

Fig.2 is a typical crystal oscillator

based on a logic

inverter. Point B in the circuit is

a relatively low-

impedance node as

it is driven directly

by the logic gate's

output. Point A is

a relatively high-

impedance node

because everything

connected to that

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Connecting a test

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The x10 probe adds a resistor and capacitor in parallel close to the probe tip (as shown in Fig.4) in order to increase the total impedance of the probe plus scope and reduce loading on the circuit under test. The signal is attenuated by a factor of ten, but the load impedance is increased by a factor of ten. In most cases this is a useful trade-off because, even after attenuation, the signal has sufficient amplitude to be displayed correctly and the loading is significantly reduced. For probes which have a x1/x10 selection switch on the probe, the switch (not shown in Fig.4) simply shorts out the resistor and capacitor in the probe, so the circuit is the same as that in Fig.3.

Fig.4 is an approximate circuit for a x10 probe. It is approximate because it ignores the small capacitance at the probe tip and represents the lead as a simple capacitance – both these approximations also apply to the circuit in Fig.3. (We will discuss the lead later.) For now, Fig.4 shows that at DC and low frequencies (where we can ignore all the capacitors) the x10 probe simply adds a $9M\Omega$ resistance in series with the scope lead. This increases the total load resistance to $10M\Omega$ – ten-times higher than the oscilloscope's $1M\Omega$ input resistance. The $9M\Omega$ and $1M\Omega$ resistors form a potential divider, which attenuates the signal from the circuit under test by a factor of ten at the oscilloscope's input.

The presence of the capacitors in the circuit in Fig.4 means that the total load impedance will reduce as frequency increases. At high frequencies the capacitors will have much lower effective resistance than the resistors; for example, at 60MHz, we have 265Ω and 30Ω for the 10pF and 90pF capacitances respectively, a total of 295Ω , which is the same as the value calculated for the x1 probe at 6MHz (ten-times-lower frequency).

Fig.5 shows a plot of probe plus oscilloscope impedance against frequency for the x1 and x10 probe equivalent circuits in Fig.3 and Fig.4. The graph shows that the x10 probe (in combination with the oscilloscope input) has a load impedance that is ten-times higher than when using



Fig.4. Equivalent circuit for an oscilloscope connected directly to a circuit under test (approximate circuit for a x10 passive probe)



Fig.5. Variation of impedance of probe plus oscilloscope for x1 and x10 passive probes



Fig.6. a) Low-pass circuit and b) high-pass circuit

a x1 probe across all frequencies. The probes have their full DC impedance of $1M\Omega$ (x1) and $10M\Omega$ (x10) at frequencies below about 1kHz, after that the impedance decreases steadily with increasing frequency.

Compensation

Fig.6 shows a couple of RC circuits that have (a) low-pass and (b) high-pass filter characteristics. For the circuit in Fig.6a, at DC and very low frequencies the circuit acts as potential divider with the attenuation set only by the resistor ratio. As frequency increases the effective resistance of the capacitor C1 decreases, increasing the attenuation. At very high frequencies the effective resistance of C1 tends towards zero and the output signal becomes close to zero. We have a low-pass function.

For the circuit in Fig.6b, at DC and very low frequencies the circuit also acts as potential divider, again with the attenuation set by the resistor ratio. As frequency increases the effective resistance of the capacitor C1 decreases, bypassing R1 and therefore increasing the output signal. At very high frequencies the effective resistance of C1 tends towards zero and the output signal becomes close to the input. We have a high-pass function.

As can be seen in Fig.4, the combination of a x10 probe and an oscilloscope input is similar to a combination of the circuits in Fig.6a and 6b (see Fig.7). This circuit can behave as either a high-pass or low-pass filter, depending on the relative values of the components. However, if certain combinations of the values are used then the high-pass and low-pass tendencies exactly match and the circuit has a flat frequency response. The condition required for this to happen (in the circuit in Fig.7) is R1×C1 = R2×C2. Under this condition the ratio of the impedance of the



parallel combination of R1 and C1 to the impedance of the parallel combination of R2 and C2 is

Fig.7. RC circuit formed by probe and oscilloscope input



Fig.8. Spectrum of a 1kHz square wave

constant, so the potential divider attenuation is constant.

If the only waveforms we looked at with an oscilloscope were sinewaves then a flat frequency response would be desirable because it would facilitate accurate amplitude measurement across the frequency range. Other waveforms are more complex and contain components at multiple frequencies. For example, the relative amplitudes of the frequencies present in a 1kHz square wave are shown in Fig.8. For these signals the impact of a non-flat frequency response is more than just a straightforward measured amplitude attenuation. If the frequency response of a circuit is not flat it will change the relative amplitude of the various frequency components and therefore change the shape of the waveform. In the case of an oscilloscope the shape of the waveform seen will be distorted with respect to the actual signal.



Fig.9. LTSpice simulation schematic for comparing effect of compensation capacitor values

Due to manufacturing variations, changes in conditions, aging and the possible need to use the same probes on multiple oscilloscopes, the values of the capacitance in the scope probe, leads and scope inputs cannot be manufactured to always achieve the perfect balance (R1×C1 = R2×C2 in Fig.7) required for a flat frequency response. For this reason, x10 probes have a variable capacitance, which can be adjusted (typically using a small screwdriver) to achieve balance. This is referred to as probe compensation. Note that x1 probes do not have the adjustment facility because they do not have the additional circuitry in the probe. For x1/x10 switchable probes, the adjustment point is usually in the probe itself (as shown in Fig.4), but either capacitance (C1 or C2 in Fig.7) can be adjusted to achieve balance. Higher quality, higher frequency x10-only probes tend to have the adjustment in a small box right next to the connector, which plugs into the oscilloscope.

The usual way to make probe compensation adjustments is to connect the oscilloscope to a square wave signal with fast edges and adjust for minimum distortion of the displayed waveform. The oscilloscope may provide a suitable signal for this purpose. To illustrate this we can use the LTSpice simulation schematic shown in Fig.9. The simulation uses three copies of the x10 probe and oscilloscope input circuit from Fig.4 with different capacitor values. The ideal value for C1 is equal to $(R2\timesC2)/R1 = (1M\Omega \times (75 + 15)pF)/9M\Omega$ = 10pF, which is used on the middle schematic (scope2 signal), the others are too low (5pF, scope1) and too high (20pF, scope 3). The results of the simulation showing the effect on the shape of the square wave are given in Fig.10.

Transmission line

For DC and relatively low frequencies we can consider the two ends of a wire or cable to be electrically at the same point in the circuit. At the scale of test leads used in the lab, any standard copper wire is likely to have such low resistance that the two ends can be considered as a short circuit most of the time. If we are dealing we very high currents we might have to worry about the resistance, but that certainly does not apply to an oscilloscope lead. We do need to consider the capacitance of the lead (the parallel conductors form a capacitor), as we did in the equivalent circuits discussed above. In some cases,



Fig.10. Results from the simulation shown in Fig.9. The upper trace is the input square wave, the second trace is with C1 too small, the third trace is for the ideal value of C1 (probe correctly compensated) and the bottom trace is for C1 too large

particularly when dealing with fast changing signals the lead inductance may be of importance too.

For high frequencies and relatively long wires, there is a point where we can no longer consider the two ends as a short circuit, single capacitance or simple resistor/ capacitor/inductor combination. We have to consider the electromagnetic fields created by the signal and think of it propagating down the wire as a wave. This is more like the way in which we think of a radio transmission, except the signal is guided down the wire rather than travelling through free space. When we think of wiring in this way we are dealing with what are known as 'transmission lines'.

As a rule of thumb, we have to use transmission lines rather than basic circuit theory when the length of a connection is more than about a tenth the wavelength of the signal. The wavelength (λ) is given by $\lambda = c/f$, where *c* is the speed of the wave and *f* is the frequency. We often think of electromagnetic waves travelling at the 'speed of light' (3 × 10⁸m/s), but this applies to propagation through a vacuum – in cables the waves may travel more slowly. For a coax cable with a wave velocity of about half light-speed (1.5 × 10⁸m/s) we need to consider transmission line effects for lead lengths of about 1.5m or more at 10MHz – certainly within the range of lead lengths and frequencies relevant to oscilloscopes. At higher frequencies, or with longer cables, transmission line effects become more relevant.

Imagine a narrow channel with water in it (like a canal). Create ripples at one end and it they will travel down the channel. Imaging the far end is blocked with a solid wall. What happens? The ripples reflect off the wall and travel back up the channel, creating interference patterns as they interact with the incoming ripples. The same thing happens with electrical signals in transmission lines. Now imagine a wider water channel connecting to a narrower one. This also creates reflections and interference, although some of the original waves will continue down the second channel. In electrical terms this is analogous to conductor mismatch – connecting two cables or circuits with different transmission line characteristics will cause signal reflections and not all of the signal will go straight to the load.

For fixed circuits the solution (way to prevent reflections) is to match all the connections in terms of transmission

line characteristics. Specifically, the characteristic impedance of the line (Z_0) defines this. The only other parameter required to define an ideal line is the length, which can be stated in terms of the delay (time taken for the wave to travel its length). Coaxial cables are not perfect transmission lines, but for most purposes they are close. It may seem sensible to use a standard coax as a scope lead, but the problem is the circuit configuration is not fixed, so it is not possible to always have a matched connection. Mismatches causes reflections, which will either cancel or reinforce the original wave from the signal being measured. The effect of this is that the measured signal amplitude (at high frequencies) will vary rapidly with frequency as the reflected waves change between cancellation and reinforcement.

The solution is to use a lossy transmission line – which is why scope leads use resistive conductors, as mentioned by **741** and **zeitghost**. We can simulate the two situations in LTspice as it provides both ideal and lossy transmission line components. Fig.11 shows the setup for this simulation and Fig.12 the results. The lossy transmission line in LTspice is specified in terms of its length and *R*, *C* and *L* values per unit length. The resistance value of 200Ω is about right for a probe lead, but is not meant to relate to a specific product. The results in Fig.12 show that the lossy line provides a flat frequency





Fig.13. LTSpice simulation schematic for x1 probe with lossy transmission line. This is added to the schematic in Fig.11

response, but the ideal line has a wildly varying response due to reflection effects.

Use of the lossy transmission line explains the lower bandwith of the probe in x1 mode, which **simonbond** asked about. The resistance of the lossy line combined with circuit capacitance result in a low-pass filter, even when the probe is driven directly from a low-impedance source (little loading effect). The x10 probe greatly reduces the impact of the line resistance on the overall frequency response – the probe has attenuation but much higher bandwith. Fig.13 and 14 show a spice simulation, which compares x1 and x10 probes with a lossy transmission line probe lead.

Fig.11. LTSpice simulation schematic for comparing effect of transmission line properties.



Fig. 12. Results from the simulation shown in Fig. 11. Comparison of frequency response of x10 probe with lossy and ideal transmission line leads



Fig.14. Results from the simulation shown in Fig.13. Comparison of frequency response of x1 and x10 probes with a lossy transmission line lead

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MX50 power amplifier kit – Part 2

Last month, I introduced the excellent MX50 power amplifier kit. This month, it's time to look at the power supply, some possible improvements and testing.

Power supply and wiring

The dual power supply is the same as a single-rail system except there are two smoothing capacitors with an extra node for the negative rail, as shown in Fig.8. The kit provides a ferrite bead to link the signal ground and dirty ground on the board to reduce RF interference. Since the hum loop problem in stereo amps is low frequency, this would not be effective and a 10Ω resistor is inserted. A photo of the stereo amplifier test bed shown in Fig.9 illustrates a recommended physical arrangement that gives no hum. If the transformer used has a significant hum field, use the heatsink as a screen between it and the boards.

Improvements

Since there is no VAS buffer, the gain of the VAS transistor TR9 is important. The supplied 2N5551 transistors have an H_{fe} of around 130. The loading on the input stage and the overall open-loop gain is reduced by the inclusion of an emitter resistor (R18). An audiophile Japanese transistor, such as the

2SC3071 (H_{fe} = 600) could be used here, and may improve HF distortion. It made no difference at 1kHz. C3 could be replaced by a non-polarised electrolytic to reduce LF distortion. The most important improvement would be to add an I_q adjustment. A 50kΩ trimmer in series with an 8.2kΩ can be wired in parallel across R17. Later, this can be replaced with a fixed resistor. In my case, I used 22kΩ for one channel and 18kΩ for the other.

A suggested short-circuit protection circuit is shown in Fig.10. It senses the voltage across the emitter resistors and shuts down the amplifier by removing the bias from the current sources. It also



Fig.8. A suggested wiring diagram for all stereo dual-rail power amplifiers and entirely appropriate for the MX50. Remember to insert 10Q ground-lift resistors in the FB1 position.



Fig.9. The completed MX50 amplifier test bed built on a wooden board. This helps with evaluating optimum layout for a given case, since it is much easier to chop and change screwing into wood rather than drilling metal.

provides a switch-on delay, useful for suppressing thumps from a proceeding circuit. This can be assembled on a small piece of stripboard and retrofitted to the amp, as shown in Fig.11. With this particular amplifier configuration it's best to make the positive rail fuse smaller than the negative rail fuse, because when it blows the amp is turned off with no offset. If only the negative rail fuse blows, a full positive offset occurs. If a 1N4004 diode is connected from V- to ground this offset reduces to 3V and the capacitors are protected from reverse polarisation. I used a 2A quick-blow fuse for the positive and a slow-blow type for the negative. An already-very-low hum can be reduced below the noise floor by increasing C9 to 470µF. The hard-wired amp shown with the inputs shorted had 2.5mV of noise on the outputs, one of the lowest I've ever measured.

A debatable 'improvement' is to use lateral MOSFETs, such as the 2SJ162 and 2SK1058, which can survive momentary shorts – replace TR12 and TR13 respectively. Gate resistors will have to be added and the bias voltage ramped up. The distortion will go up, the output will go down and they cost five-times more than bipolar transistors. However, the reliability can be around five-times better according to *The Audiophile's Project Sourcebook* by Randy Slone.



Fig.10. A suggested short-circuit protection system, which is not too complicated to add. It is inspired by the system used on the Mission Cyrus 1 amplifier.



Fig.11. The short-circuit protection circuit is easily built on stripboard.



Fig.12. An LC network should be inserted at the output pin if driving high capacitance loads, such as fancy plaited speaker cable.



Fig.13. One of my special power amplifier test techniques is to solder 100Ω resistors across blown fuses and insert these into the fuse holders for current limiting with added smoke signalling.

There is no output inductor to prevent oscillation with long high-capacitance speaker leads, but this can easily be added. The 10μ H inductor with a 4.7Ω resistor in parallel, as shown in Fig.12, will suffice.

Voltage variations

A safe maximum-rail voltage for the transistors supplied would be ±37.5V, which would equate to a transformer of 28V-0-28V. These are hard to obtain and the nearest available would be 25V-0-25V. With a 24-0-24V 2.5A 120VA transformer and adequate heatsinking, the amp delivered $58V_{pk\text{-}pk}$ or $52.5W_{rms}$ into 8Ω at 1kHz. The rail voltage at this power was ±31.5V, meaning there was a total loss of 5V. 1.6V of this was across the decoupling resistors R19 and 20. If high-power 4Ω running is contemplated, it would be worthwhile doubling-up the output transistors. If you must use 4Ω speakers, drop the transformer voltage to 22V-0-22V. Remember, distortion with class AB amplifiers triples going from 8Ω to 4Ω loads. If lower power, say around 20W into 8Ω is acceptable, cheap transistors such as TIP3055s, BC182s, BD139s and their respective complements could be used with 18-0-18V or 15-0-15V transformers. This would be a good starting point for students and beginners.

Testing

Discrete transistor power amplifiers are notoriously intolerant of errors, often resulting in instant destruction of the output and driver transistors. With no current limiting, a PCB can even catch fire. Use a power supply with a current limit set to 300mA for initial testing if available, or put 100Ω resistors in series with the power lines. I solder these resistors to blown 20mm fuses, as shown in Fig.13, which can then be easily inserted/removed.

Never connect a load to a transistor amplifier when powering up for the first time. Use small fuses in the amplifier power supplies, say 100mA or resistors, and if they don't blow, check for DC off-set on the output, which should be less than 20mV.

Next, check the I_q is correct, it should be just over 15mA. This equates to 3mV across the emitter resistors, easily measured by putting the meter probes onto the output transistor collector metal tabs. Note that this drifts down as the amplifier warms up. All the MX50s I measured gave values of around 1.2 to 1.5mV and therefore had too low an I_q . Visible crossover glitches were present at 11kHz and above. These disappeared when I trimmed the I_q . Note these could only be seen on an analogue scope, you won't see them on a standard digital unit with 8-bit resolution.

Next, connect a signal generator set to 1kHz sinewave on the input and hook up an oscilloscope to the output and check for oscillation and distortion. If all is well, bring up to clipping. If this is okay, connect a load resistor and allow the output to just clip briefly, again checking for problems. Read off the peak-to-peak voltage to calculate the power output. Finally, test with music and other difficult signals.

It's a bargain!

For those looking for a low-cost entry into high-quality discrete amplification that beats the sound quality of chips, and is almost as good as the Self design, the MX50 is ideal. I've just bought 10 for my audio engineering BSc students. Luckily, they have proper dual-rail bench power supplies that will shut down if there's a short, so hopefully there will be no fireworks.





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Minimal-component logic probes

Introduction

This Ingenuity Unlimited is about designing a logic probe - an instrument that indicates different voltage levels as logic states. For example, if you were measuring TTL logic levels then such a probe would indicate 'LOW' for voltages between 0V and 0.8V and 'HIGH' for voltages between 2.4V and 5.0V (these are the defined limits for the logic levels). Similarly, for CMOS logic operating from a 3.0V supply, the limits for LOW would be 0V to 0.9V (30% of supply) and HIGH would be 2.1V (70% of supply) to 3.0V. It is also useful to indicate the 'forbidden zone' between the two correct limits of operation, as this can be handy when detecting problems such as floating inputs.

Although used in digital circuits, these instruments are designed using analogue circuitry, usually comparators, so that the voltage levels are accurately referenced. ('Accurately' here is a relative term; it is not suggested that precision measurements are required.) It is also standard practice to power such instruments directly from the logic supply of the circuit under test, so that the voltage levels reflect actul operating conditions.

LM393-based logic probe

This design uses a dual comparator with open-collector outputs, and has steering diodes to cause the indicator



Fig.1. Fig.1. LM393-based logic probe

LEDs to light appropriately – see Fig.1. Both comparators are OFF for a logic LOW, thus only the green LED is illuminated. When the input level rises above the LOW limit the lower comparator turns ON, extinguishing the green LED and illuminating the amber LED. When the level rises to the HIGH limit, the upper comparator turns ON, illuminating the red LED and extinguishing the amber LED. The logic levels are set by the $15k\Omega - 22k\Omega - 15k\Omega$ resistor chain; these values give a good approximation to the 30% and 70% limits of CMOS logic. (For TTL levels with a 5V supply, the corresponding resistor chain values are $27k\Omega$ – $15k\Omega - 8.2k\Omega$.)

The combined input bias current of the two comparator inputs is typically 50nA, thus the loading on the test point is effectively zero. The additional protection components are only required if voltages outside the supply are liable to be encountered, such as might occur in a mix of analogue and digital components; but with logic-only circuits they are unlikely to be needed. The circuit typically draws 0.4mA, plus the current for the LED(s).

The use of steering diodes makes for a simple and compact layout, but there are still six resistors and two diodes required in addition to the IC, plus the three LEDs.

To demonstrate this concept, the components were assembled on a small piece of stripboard, which was simply glued to a used marker pen. The result, shown in Fig.2 is effective and functional, but is untidy and clearly can be improved.

Parts list – LM393-based logic probe

IC1	LM393N
Diodes	2 off 1N4148
LEDs	1 off, 3mm of each: red, amber, green
Resistors	All 0.25w, 5%: 3 off 2.2k Ω , 2 off, 15k Ω , 1 off 22k Ω



Fig.2. First construction of the LM393 probe

Everyday Practical Electronics, June 2017



Fig.3. LM3914-based logic probe

LM3914-based logic probe

I then decided to try and minimise the component count of the probe. The result uses only one resistor to complement IC1 (LM3914) and three LEDs – which one might think is the minimum possible component count. However, in this design the three LEDs are in fact a single tri-colour LED with a common anode, thus reducing the actual total component count to three items, as shown in Fig.3.

The LM3914 is a display IC designed by National-Semiconductor and made by Texas Instruments. It is typically used as an LED driver intended for moving dot/ bar displays, such as volume indicators. It can operate with a supply voltage as low as 3V. The IC contains ten voltage comparators and a voltage divider. Each comparator drives a constant-current transistor output (see Fig.4). At a stroke, such a device eliminates both the voltage divider resistors and the current-limit resistors for the LEDs. The remaining single resistor is required to set the current level for all outputs.

The LM3914 has a typical input bias current of 25nA, with the additional advantage that the input can withstand voltages of \pm 35V without protection components. However, it is relatively current-hungry; the entire circuit draws around 10mA, with the illuminated LED taking only 2.5mA of this. (This is, of course, only a consideration in micropower circuits powered by a small battery.) The 3914 is designed to operate with an unsmoothed supply to the LEDs, and in practice appears to be stable with no supply decoupling.

If the voltage divider chain is connected across the logic supply voltage, each comparator will indicate voltage levels over one tenth of this range. Because of the constantcurrent nature of the outputs, these may be commoned, thus grouping the lower three, the middle four and the upper three outputs will in theory give the CMOS-level indications previously discussed. In practice, because the lowest comparator is biased at 10% of the divider chain voltage, there is no indication for the *lowest* 10% of the range, and the grouping of the outputs, as shown on the circuit diagram, reflects this. This then leaves the problem of how to show LOW logic levels below 10% of the supply (and the majority of logic produces such levels under normal conditions).

Overcoming the problem of no indication at the lowest input voltage could be easily solved using further logic, but that would defeat the whole point of this minimumpart-count design. So, is the LM393 circuit a better and cheaper circuit?

One approach to using the LM3914 is to offset the comparator voltage divider by a negative voltage, but this involves power supply complexities, which again defeats the purpose of the project. The pragmatic solution is to simply accept the situation – any other voltage will light an LED – which can be quickly verified by checking a known HIGH point. The absence of an illuminated LED is a guarantee of a good LOW level.



LM3914

Comparator 1 of 10 LED V+

Fig.4. Internal details of the LM3914 IC

Parts list – LM3914-based logic probe

IC 1 off LM3914N	
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Construction of a 3914-based probe

The probe is contained in the case of a coloured marker, which has a diameter of around 20mm. The branding of the particular marker shown was found to be soluble in methylated spirit, making it easy to produce a plain white background for the LEDs. A half-section of the marker case is cut out (a Dremel tool makes this a simple task) and the internal cartridge removed. This leaves plenty of space for the few components – see Fig.5.



Fig.5. From magic marker to probe case

It is a matter of personal choice as to whether the LEDs and the IC are fitted into the body of the probe or into the 'lid'. I decided that the supply leads and probe needed to be well anchored, and this is easier when the other parts can be removed. It was also easier to use separate LEDs rather than the (larger) tri-colour LED previously discussed.



Fig.6. LEDs positioned in case

The LEDs are first fitted and glued into 2.8mm holes (for standard 3mm LEDs), as shown in Fig.6. Next, the IC is wired and secured. Gel superglue or latex (eg, Copydex) are effective adhesives for this purpose. With such a simple circuit a PCB is unnecessary; the IC leads are simply bent to make commoning easier and bare wire links fitted, as shown in Fig.7. This process is quick and easy, but a steady hand and a fine soldering iron are required.



Fig.7. Commoning LM3914 'legs'

The power leads pass through a small hole drilled in the base of the marker, and are secured inside by a large knot. The connectors for these wires should suit the application; in this case, they were terminated in bare wires to plug directly into a solderless breadboard. The probe can be any suitable length of stiff wire. I do not recommend using a needle – such a fine point is unnecessary, and a potential hazard. Fine spring wire is ideal. If a scrap 3.5-inch diskette (a rarity today) can be found, the sliding cover contains a suitable spring (Fig.8). Straighten the



Fig.8. My probe tip was made from a spring



Fig.9. LM3914 inside the case

spring and push it though the spongy tip of the marker. I found that the spring material solders readily. The completed probe is shown in Fig.9 and Fig.10.



Fig.10. Ready to probe logic signals! **Conclusion**

A bare minimum design has been presented and its drawbacks discussed. Clearly, sometimes the maxim that 'less is more' is not justified in practice,



Fig.11. LM393 circuit on a small piece of board

as both the performance and the cost of the minimal LM3914-based probe are inferior to the LM393-based design. The only minor drawback to the LM393 circuit is the need to have some form of circuit board for the multiple components. In practice, a small piece of pad board houses everything satisfactorily (Fig.11) and, as the resultant size is only some 14mm longer than the bare 3914 package, the same marker pen body can house everything without difficulty. The LEDs can be fitted on the (extended) board if this makes construction easier. (Note that a tri-colour LED cannot be used in the 393-based design.)

Ross Henderson

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PCB SER

All prices include VAT and postage and packing. Add £2 per board for airmail outside of Europe. Remittances should be sent to The PCB Service, Everyday Practical Electronics, Wimborne Publishing Ltd., 113 Lynwood Drive, Merley, Wimborne, Dorset BH21 1UU. Tel: 01202 880299; Fax 01202 843233; Email: orders@epemag.wimborne. co.uk. On-line Shop: www.epemag.com. Cheques should be crossed and made payable to Everyday Practical Electronics (Payment in £ sterling only).

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Everyday Practical Electronics, June 2017

Next Month Content may be subject to change

Brownout Protector for Induction Motors

Brownouts occur when the mains voltage drops to a very low level, causing incandescent lamps to be very dim or 'brown'. Brownouts can cause induction motors to burn out because they cannot start properly. This superb project monitors the AC mains voltage and disconnects power to the appliance when the voltage drops below a preset level, only reconnecting it when the voltage returns to its normal level.

Micromite-Based Super Clock

Yes, we can guess what you are thinking... not another clock project! But this one is special because it can show the time using either an analogue or digital display. It can also track the time in up to 20 different locations, adjust each location for daylight saving and keep precise time using either a temperature-compensated real-time clock (RTC) module or a GPS module.

100dB Stereo LED Audio Level/VU Meter – Part 2

In June, we introduced our new *Audio Level/VU Meter* which uses 80 high-brightness SMD LEDs to give a colourful dual-bargraph display showing average and/or peak audio levels. This article deals with assembling it and explains how to set it up and use it.

Teach-In 2017: Introducing the BBC micro:bit – Part 2

In part 2 of *Teach-In 2017*, Mike Tooley explores the Mu editor, delves into some of the complexities of the MicroPython language and takes a detailed at the micro:bit's I/O capability. Our practical project takes the form of an electronic spirit level.

PLUS!

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

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Development Tool of the Month!

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Part Number DM240001-2

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