

# design ideas

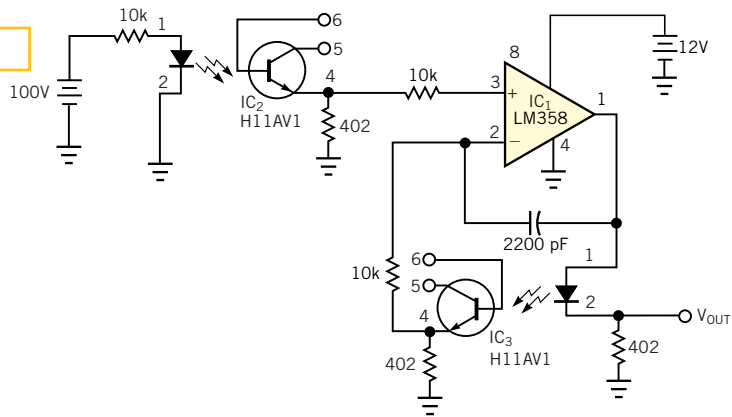
Edited by Bill Travis

## Circuit compensates optocoupler temperature coefficient

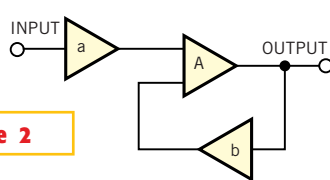
J Michael Zias, Acme Electric Corp, Cuba, NY

**W**HEN USING an optocoupler in a linear application, you should consider its gain drift with temperature. Traditional single- and dual-transistor-output devices have a notable gain drift with temperature. In recent years, some temperature-compensated optocouplers have appeared. However, another option is to use two optocouplers or a dual optocoupler with appropriate feedback to make the drift of one device cancel the drift of the other. The circuit in **Figure 1** accomplishes that task by using a differential amplifier with the drift treated as a common-mode signal. In operation, it is interesting to apply a dc signal to the input and use digital voltmeters to simultaneously monitor the output of each optocoupler and the differential amplifier. Apply a heat gun and observe the individual outputs change rapidly while the amplifier output moves

**Figure 1**



By using two optocouplers instead of one, you can cancel temperature-dependent gain drift.



**Figure 2**

Control-system feedback theory explains the operation of the circuit in Figure 1.

much more slowly. This result occurs even with optocouplers from different manufacturers. With optocouplers of the same type, you can observe good drift cancellation. Parts from the same manufacturer and dual devices give outstanding results. You can use individual optocouplers instead of dual devices to meet safety-agency spacing requirements.

To examine the method in control-system terms, consider **Figure 2**, which shows one amplifier, a, in the forward path and another amplifier, b, in the feedback path. Also consider the following equation:

$$\text{GAIN} = a \frac{A}{1 + Ab} = \frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{Ab}}$$

where a/b is the ideal closed-loop gain and is multiplied by the loop-gain error term. Given that the error term is small (from the large gain A of the op amp), the gain of the system is seen as the ratio of the gains (current-transfer ratios) of the optocouplers. You can also easily find this same ratio by setting the voltages to the op-amp inputs equal. The input and output signals for this analysis are currents, which precision resistors translate to voltages. The optocouplers in this design are not particularly fast devices, so the phase delays could cause oscillation without a feedback capacitor. You choose its value empirically by applying a pulse at the input and observing the rise time and overshoot at the output.

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# Soft-start controller is gentle on loads

Douglas Sudjian, Resonext Communications Inc, San Jose, CA

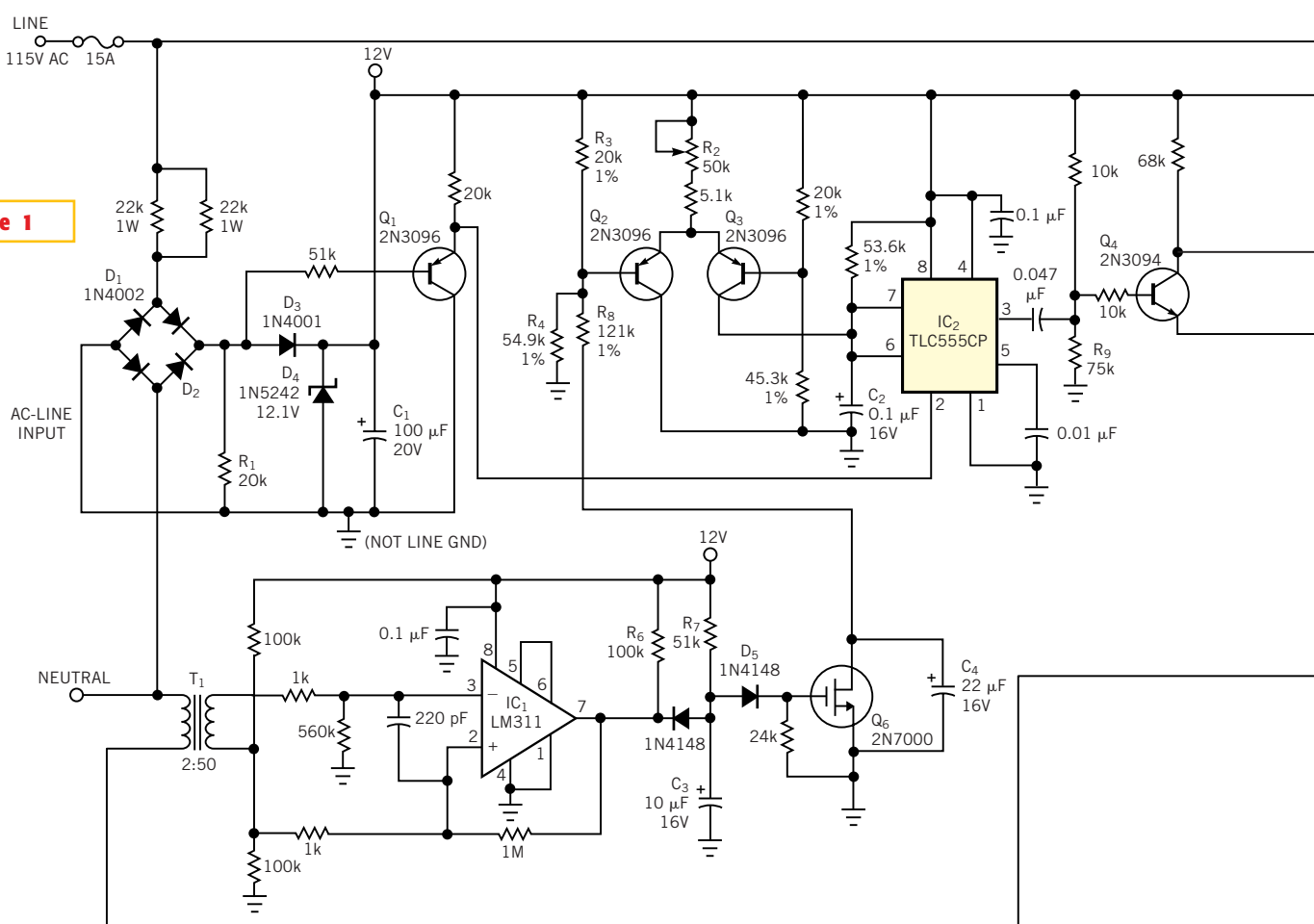
**T**HE CONTROL CIRCUIT in **Figure 1** senses a given load and automatically soft-starts the load by synchronously adjusting the power to that load. You can also manually adjust the power delivered to the load by controlling the phase angle of the line voltage across the load. The phase-angle adjustment for every ac half cycle covers 0 to 180°. When the isolation transformer,  $T_1$ , senses the load current in the ac ground return,

$IC_1$ 's output changes state, driving the signal diode,  $D_5$ , into and out of conduction.  $R_6$ ,  $R_7$ , and  $C_3$  create a delay such that the voltage at  $Q_6$ 's gate decays slowly to allow for the load's switch-closure noise or missed ac cycles. Once  $Q_6$  turns off, the voltage at the base of  $Q_2$  rises to a higher reference level, which voltage divider  $R_3$  and  $R_4$  sets. The bias current of transistor pair  $Q_2$  and  $Q_3$  slowly passes through  $Q_3$  as the differential input volt-

age across  $Q_2$  and  $Q_3$  changes according to the time constant of  $R_8$  and  $C_4$ . The additional current that  $Q_3$  sources to  $C_2$  increases the voltage rate of change at pins 6 and 7 of  $IC_2$ .  $IC_2$ , a TLC555CP, is a low-power timer configured as a monostable multivibrator.

In the monostable mode, the timer issues a positive pulse output every time a negative-going trigger pulse arrives at Pin 2 of  $IC_2$ . The output pulse width corre-

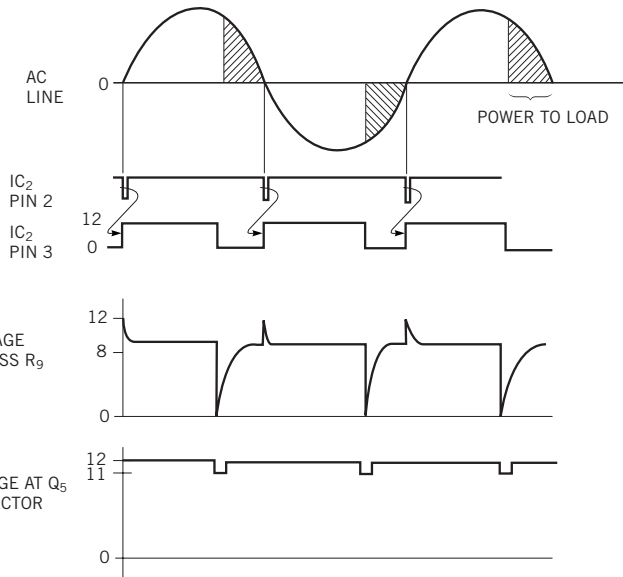
**Figure 1**



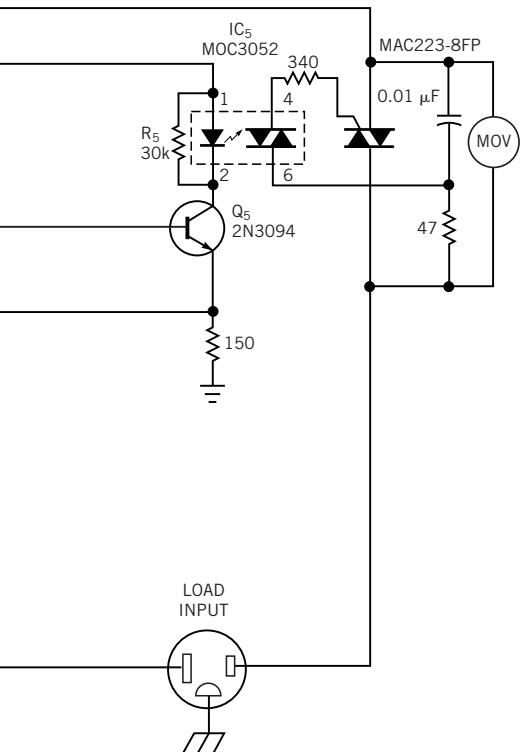
This soft-start circuit protects the load from large inrush currents.

sponds to the time it takes the voltage on capacitor  $C_2$  to ramp from 0V to  $2/3 V_{CC}$ . With a constant current essentially charging  $C_2$ , the charging is linear, and the output at  $IC_2$ 's Pin 3 is proportional to the current set by  $R_2$ . The full-wave bridge, with  $D_3$  and  $D_4$  and filter capacitor  $C_1$ , forms a dc power supply for the timer/controller. The common cathode node for  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  pulls to ground via  $R_1$  every time the line voltage approaches 0V.  $Q_1$  turns on and supplies a negative-going trigger to Pin 2 of

**Figure 2**



The circuit in Figure 1 provides soft-starting by adjusting the phase angle of the power applied to the load.



$IC_2$ . This pulse uses its negative edge to provide a minimum pulse width of 200  $\mu$ sec to the base of  $Q_4$ . The feedback pair  $Q_4$  and  $Q_5$  provides signal inversion and limits the current drawn from the 12V supply rail through  $IC_3$ . When sufficient LED current develops, the MOC3052 triac driver latches on and generates a gate current in the power triac, triggering it into the conducting state. Once the power triac latches on, the triac driver enters its off state, even if the LED current still exists.

The power triac's gate voltage falls below the optocoupler's threshold and cannot hold the optocoupler. The longer the phase delay from the zero-crossing trigger, the smaller the conduction angle and power delivered to the load.  $R_5$  facilitates on-off switching of the triac-driver LED by providing a path for leakage currents. Potentiometer  $R_2$  provides variable power to the load (to provide motor-speed control, for example).  $R_2$  varies the dc-source current that charges  $C_2$  every ac half-cycle. Note that the signal ground with respect to earth ground

is floating; you must not tie these grounds together. The design in Figure 1 has successfully controlled fans and high-amperage universal motors (100 mA to 11A). One example is a router for woodworking. By soft-starting these high-torque motors, the reaction torque (to the input current) that the user feels disappears. Moreover, other soft-start designs need two switches. The design in Figure 1 needs only one on-off switch (located at the load). Thus, less danger exists for incurring an accidental starting condition. Figure 2 shows some of the waveforms associated with the circuit in Figure 1.  $T_1$  is a signal transformer that you can modify by wrapping two turns of 14-gauge wire around the bobbin to act as the primary winding.

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# Method offers fail-safe variable-reluctance sensors

Phil Levya, Maxim Integrated Products, Sunnyvale, CA

**V**ARIABLE-RELUCTANCE SENSORS are preferred for industrial and automotive environments, because they sustain mechanical vibration and operation to 300°C. In most applications, they sense a steel target that is part of a rotating assembly. Because the unprocessed signal amplitude is proportional to target speed, a sensor whose signal-processing circuitry is designed for high speed ceases to function at some lower rate of rotation. Hall-effect sensors are preferable for speeds of several pulses per second, but they require the attachment of a magnet to the rotating assembly. They're thus prone to failure when the magnet is broken or damaged. Neither variable-reluctance nor Hall-effect sensors offers fail-safe detection of the processed signal in the event of failure in

the cable or sensor. The circuit in **Figure 1** is a fail-safe variable-reluctance sensor for low- to medium-speed operation.

The circuit comprises  $L_1$ ;  $R_1$ ; and a quad RS-422/RS-485 receiver, IC<sub>1</sub>. It provides the complementary, independent output signals  $V_{OUT}$  and  $\overline{V_{OUT}}$ . **Table 1** lists the resulting fail-safe modes. The supply voltage can be 10V, 12V, or the control system's 24V-dc source. Coil  $L_1$  consists of 2600 turns of #32 magnet wire wound on a 0.8-in. steel bar of 0.2-in. diameter, with 0.125 in. protruding from the sensor face. A magnet attached to the back of

the steel bar supplies the necessary magnetic flux. The rotating target causes a change in reluctance and, hence, a change in the amount of magnetic flux conducted. This change produces a corresponding change in the current induced in  $L_1$ .  $R_1$  converts the  $L_1$  current to a time-varying voltage. This voltage goes to the inputs of IC<sub>1</sub>, whose input-voltage range of  $\pm 25V$ , input threshold of  $\pm 0.2V$ , and typical input hysteresis of 45 mV enable the VR sensor to operate at low speeds.

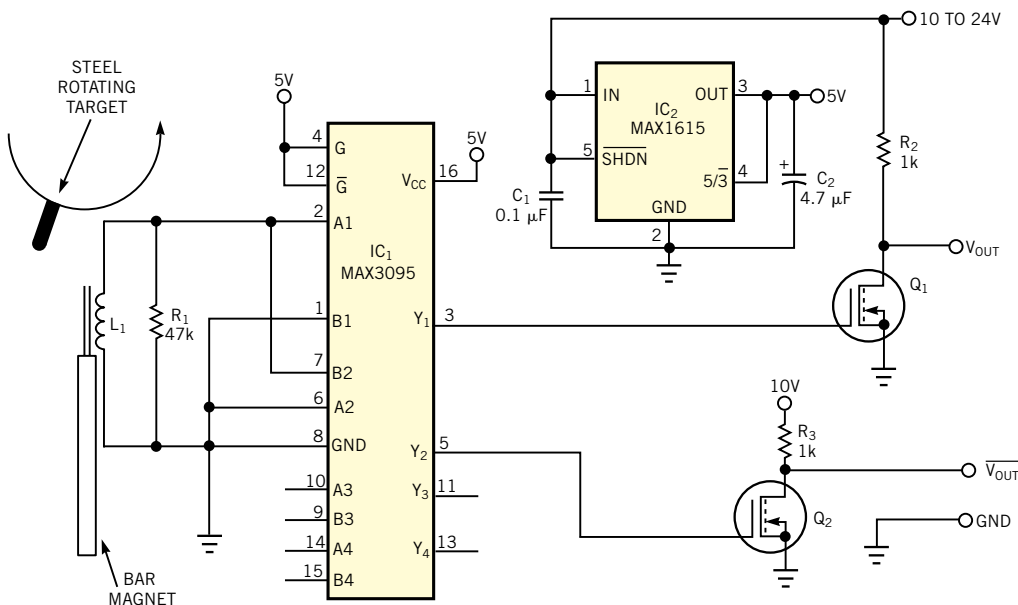
The separate, complementary outputs come from separate, ESD-protected in-

**TABLE 1—FAIL-SAFE MODES (TWO CYCLES OF  $V_{OUT}$  OR  $\overline{V_{OUT}}$ )**

$(V_{OUT}, \overline{V_{OUT}})$	Mode
(1,0) then (0,1) or (0,1) then (1,0)	Normal mode, both pulses valid
(1,0) then (0,0) or (0,0) then (1,0)	Failure, valid $\overline{V_{OUT}}$ pulse, $V_{OUT}$ failure, cable failure, or partial sensor failure*
(0,1) then (0,0) or (0,0) then (0,1)	Failure, valid $V_{OUT}$ pulse, $\overline{V_{OUT}}$ failure, cable failure, or partial sensor failure*
Always (1,1)	Short-circuited cables or failure in IC <sub>1</sub>
Always (0,0)	Severed cables, failure in IC <sub>1</sub> , or failure in Q <sub>1</sub> and Q <sub>2</sub>

\*System remains functional in failure modes.

**Figure 1**



NOTE: Q<sub>1</sub>, Q<sub>2</sub> = FAIRCHILD FDV303N.

This circuit provides a fail-safe, low- to medium-speed variable-reluctance sensor.

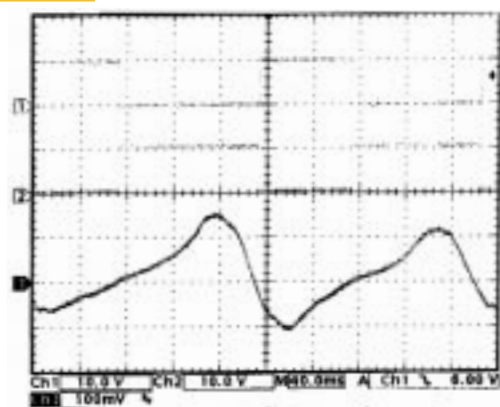
puts. IC<sub>1</sub>'s outputs Y<sub>1</sub> and Y<sub>2</sub> can source as much as 10 mA. They alternately switch the logic-level, n-channel MOSFETs Q<sub>1</sub> and Q<sub>2</sub>, which in turn provide  $\overline{V_{OUT}}$  and  $V_{OUT}$ . A low-dropout regulator, IC<sub>2</sub>, provides the 5V power source for

IC<sub>1</sub>. **Figure 2** illustrates low- (**Figure 2a**) and medium-speed (**Figure 2b**) operation for the sensor. For 5V-supply applications in which you can locate a microcontroller close to the sensor, you need only L<sub>1</sub>, R<sub>1</sub>, and IC<sub>1</sub> for a direct interface.

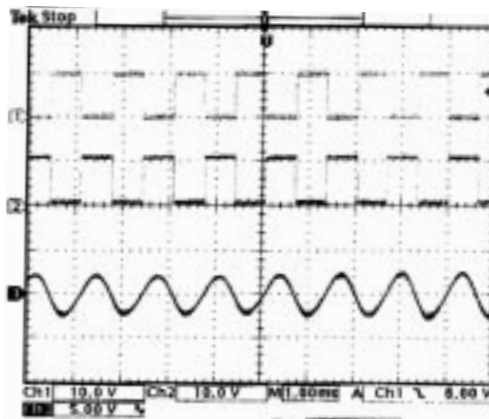
For 3V applications, replace IC<sub>1</sub> with a MAX3096 IC.

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**Figure 2**



(a)



(b)

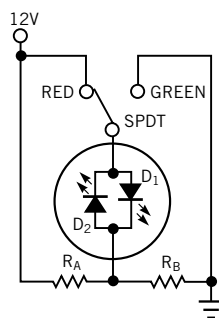
These waveforms represent operation at 4.9 Hz at 2.4 revolutions/sec (a) and 752.4 Hz at 376.2 revolutions/sec (b). Channel 1 is  $V_{OUT}$ , Channel 2 is  $\overline{V_{OUT}}$  and Channel 3 is the voltage across R<sub>1</sub>.

## Circuit efficiently switches bipolar LED

Speshro Pefhany, Trexon Inc, Toronto, ON, Canada

**T**HE CIRCUIT in **Figure 1** represents one method to switch a bipolar, two-color LED using an SPDT mechanical switch or relay. This circuit wastes power and does not work properly if the power-supply voltage is not substantially more than the sum of the LEDs' forward voltages. The circuit is, therefore, marginal, to the point of being unusable, with a 5V supply and a red or green LED, which typically has a total forward voltage of 4V. You can use a circuit resembling a flip-flop (**Figure 2**) that doesn't suffer the disadvantages of the circuit in **Figure 1**. It adds only one  $V_{CE(SAT)}$  voltage to the  $V_F$  of each LED, so plenty of headroom exists with a 5V supply and a series resistor to control the LEDs' current. The circuit in **Figure 2**

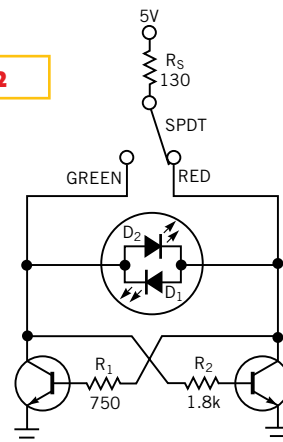
**Figure 1**



**This switching circuit wastes power and does not work with low supply voltages.**

costs less than a dime for the parts, which include three resistors and two inexpensive, general-purpose npn transistors, such as the 2N4401 or the C8050. In this

**Figure 2**



**In this "flip-flop" switch, the only losses come from the  $V_{CE(SAT)}$  and the base currents of the transistors.**

example,  $D_1$  is red ( $V_{F1} = 1.6V$ ), and  $D_2$  is green ( $V_{F2} = 2.4V$ ). Based on  $D_2$ , the green LED, you can calculate that  $R_S = (5V - 2.4V - 0.1V) / 0.02A = 125\Omega$  (use  $130\Omega$  for 19 mA).

As a result, using a single resistor,  $D_1$  has a current of 25 mA. If it is desirable to have equal or arbitrarily different currents, you can insert an additional resistor in one leg of the switch to increase the effective  $R_S$  for that switch position. The

base drive is a function of the  $V_F$  of the driven LED, so you can calculate the base resistors, using a forced beta of 20, as follows:

$$R_1 = 20(V_{F1} - 0.7V) / I_{LED1} = 720\Omega \text{ (use } 750\Omega\text{)}$$

$$R_2 = 20(V_{F2} - 0.7V) / I_{LED2} = 1.8 \text{ k}\Omega$$

The base drive reduces the actual LED current by 5%, which is visually negligible. As a bonus, the circuit does not introduce any switching glitches into the

power supply. The circuit requires only two connections, rendering it ideal for front-panel use. Because the  $130\Omega$  resistor is in series with the power supply, any part of the circuit beyond  $R_S$  can short to ground without causing damage.

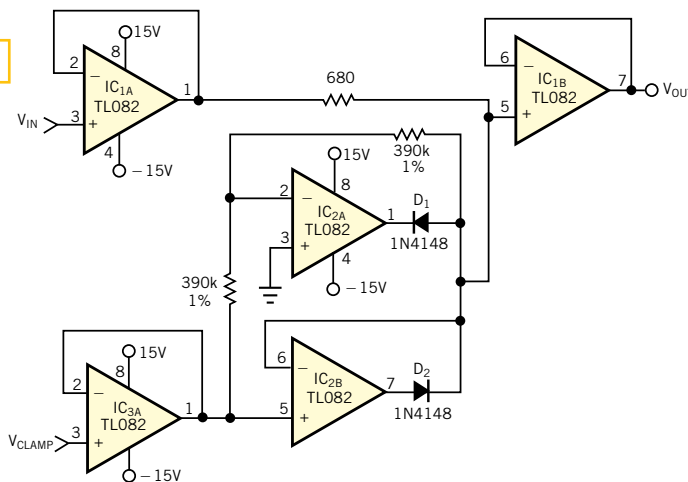
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## Circuit forms adjustable bipolar clamp

*Pautasso Luciano, Nichelino, Italy*

**T**HE EASY WAY to clamp a signal to a given value is to use two zener diodes, connected back-to-back. This method has several disadvantages. The accuracy of the clamping depends on the tolerance of the zener diodes, and the clamping is not adjustable, except by changing diodes. The circuit in **Figure 1** is a bipolar clamper with a range of  $\pm 1$  to  $\pm 10V$ , with the clamping level a function of the input  $V_{CLAMP}$ .  $IC_{1A}$ ,  $IC_{1B}$ , and  $IC_{3A}$  are unity-gain buffers.  $IC_{2A}$  is a positive clamper, and  $IC_{2B}$  is a negative clamper. **Figure 2** shows the transfer function, with  $V_{CLAMP}$  set at  $-5V$ . You can change  $V_{CLAMP}$  over the range of  $-1$  to  $-10V$  and thereby change the clamping level. If  $V_{IN}$  is within  $-V_{CLAMP}$  to  $+V_{CLAMP}$ , then  $V_{OUT} = V_{IN}$ . If  $V_{IN}$  exceeds  $V_{CLAMP}$ , then  $V_{OUT} = V_{CLAMP}$ . To explain how the circuit works, assume four cases, with four values of  $V_{IN}$ . Basically, the circuit works in two modes: the linear mode, in which diodes  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  are open switches, and the clamped mode, in which the diodes are closed switches. **Table 1** gives results for the four cases. In Case A, the input is 7V,  $V_{CLAMP}$  is  $-5V$ ,  $D_1$  conducts, and  $D_2$  is an

**Figure 1**



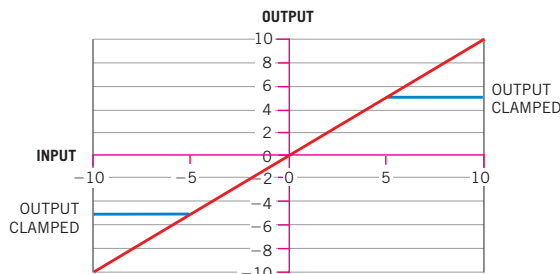
**This circuit provides adjustable clamping over the range of  $\pm 1$  to  $\pm 10V$ .**

open switch. The feedback loop around  $IC_{2A}$  regulates the anode of  $D_1$  to 5V and the output of  $IC_{2A}$  to 4.4V. In cases B and C, both diodes are open switches. In Case

$D_2$  conducts, and  $D_1$  is an open switch.

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**Figure 2**



**With  $V_{CLAMP}$  set at  $-5V$ , the output clamps firmly at  $\pm 5V$ .**

**TABLE 1—RESULTS FOR CLAMPED AND LINEAR MODES**

Case	$V_{IN}$ (V)	$V_{OUT}$ (V)	Mode
A	7	5	Clamped
B	3	3	Linear
C	-3	-3	Linear
D	-7	-5	Clamped



# Analog switch expands I<sup>2</sup>C interface

Luca Vassalli, Maxim Integrated Products, Sunnyvale, CA

**P**ERHAPS THE MOST effective way to gain board space and increase component density is to minimize wiring on the board. A widely used architecture that allows such miniaturization is the I<sup>2</sup>C bus. Comprising only a bidirectional data line, SDA, and a clock line, SCL, this bus requires no chip selects or other additional connections. Microcontrollers from Philips, Microchip, and other manufacturers include dedicated I<sup>2</sup>C interfaces, but you can also implement the interface in software. To complete this task, you associate a 7-bit address with each master or slave transmitter and factory- or pin-program device with two to four address options. An increasing number of slaves now include the I<sup>2</sup>C interface, but some of their 128 address locations are reserved for special functions, so not all locations are available to a designer. Yet, two or more

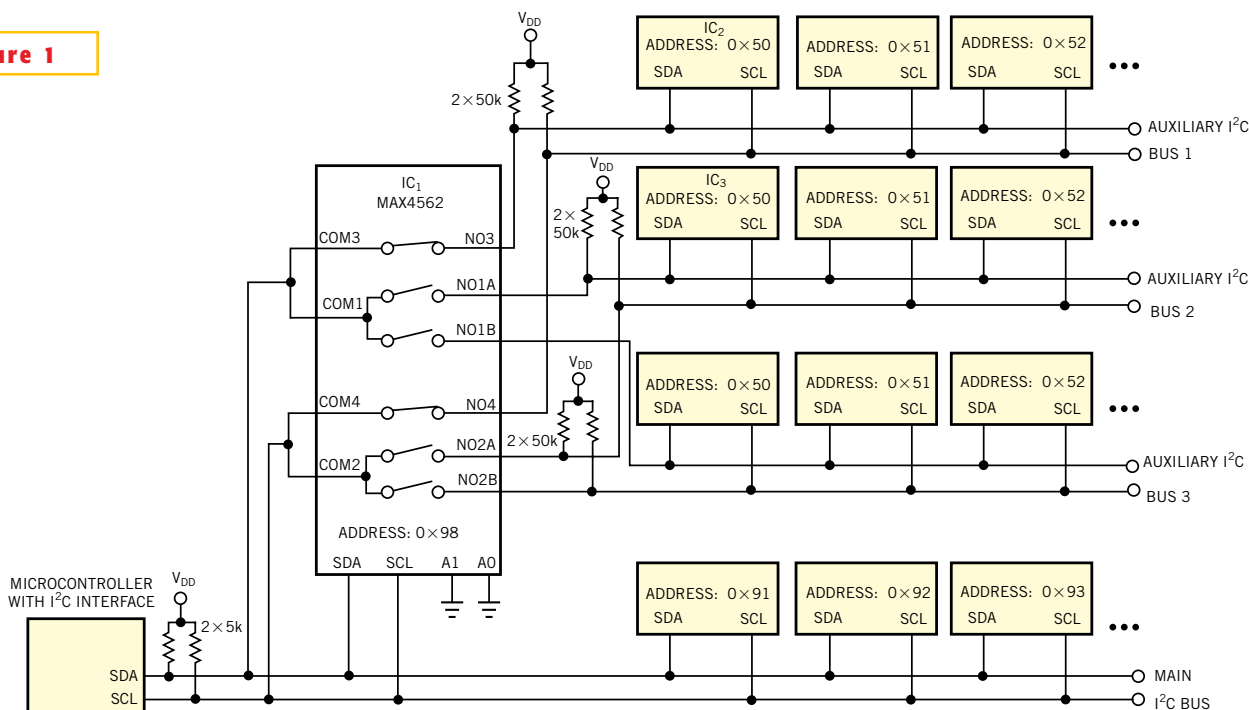
devices could have the same address in some application. In **Figure 1**, analog switch IC<sub>1</sub>, which is I<sup>2</sup>C-controlled, connects auxiliary branches that contain devices with the same address to the main I<sup>2</sup>C bus. IC<sub>2</sub>, and IC<sub>3</sub>, for example, have the same address but are located on different auxiliary buses.

The arrangement in **Figure 1** prevents the master from addressing multiple slaves at the same time. If that situation occurs, the data becomes corrupted during a master-read protocol, and all slaves may not receive data during a master-write protocol. The analog switch accepts bidirectional signals as required for the SDA line. The switch has low on-state resistance, adds almost no leakage on the lines, and provides four selectable slave addresses. You simultaneously control the switches by using the simple Send-Byte protocol (address plus 8-bit com-

mand). You can switch the three auxiliary buses on the fly. Power-up sets the switches to soft mode, an off state with 12-msec switching time. Then, a command byte of 0b11000000 sets the switches to hard mode (400-nsec switching time). Subsequent commands select the desired auxiliary bus. Command 0b1000011, for example, selects auxiliary bus 1. The main I<sup>2</sup>C bus includes necessary pullup resistors, and the auxiliary buses include weaker pullups that ensure a high state when you deselect the bus. The circuit in **Figure 1** allows you to add three times more devices on the bus. For a wider selection, you can replace the MAX4562 with a MAX4572, whose 14 switches allow you to add as many as seven auxiliary buses.

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**Figure 1**



This I<sup>2</sup>C-controlled analog switch expands by three the number of devices connected to the bus.

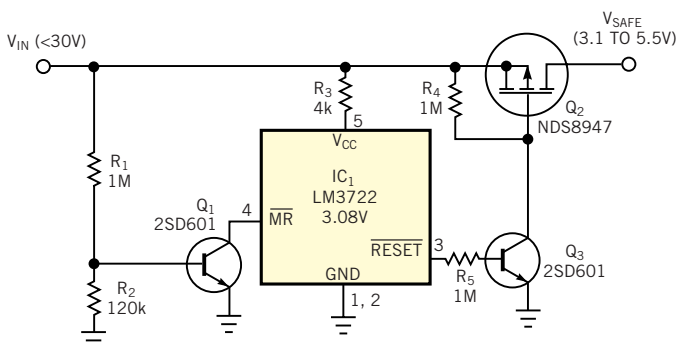
# Circuit safely applies power to ICs

Clayton Grantham, National Semiconductor, Tucson, AZ

**S**UPERVISORY CIRCUITS NORMALLY monitor a microprocessor's supply voltage, asserting reset to the IC during power-up, power-down, and brownout. In this way, the circuit ensures that the supply voltage is stable before the microprocessor boots, thus preventing code-execution errors. Many analog and digital ICs also need a well-behaved start-up of their supply to avoid latch-up and logic-state errors. In addition to low-supply conditions, low-voltage CMOS circuits need overvoltage protection from any supply runaway. The additional components in **Figure 1** extend IC<sub>1</sub>'s supervisory functions to connect V<sub>IN</sub> to V<sub>SAFE</sub> only when V<sub>IN</sub> is within set limits. This function protects circuitry at the V<sub>SAFE</sub> terminal from power-up transients and overvoltage damage. As a supervisory circuit, IC<sub>1</sub> asserts a reset signal that is delayed by more than 100 msec whenever V<sub>IN</sub> decreases below the precisely trimmed reset threshold. You can custom-select the reset threshold from 2.32 to 4.63V. You can also use a manual input, MR, to assert the reset signal.

This application uses IC<sub>1</sub>'s delayed reset signal to control switch Q<sub>2</sub>. The delay ensures that V<sub>IN</sub> is stable before application to V<sub>SAFE</sub>. Q<sub>3</sub> inverts and isolates IC<sub>1</sub>'s reset signal to control the gate of Q<sub>2</sub>. R<sub>4</sub>

**Figure 1**



This LM3722 configuration connects only safe voltages to sensitive ICs.

**TABLE 1—V<sub>SAFE</sub> HYSTERESIS OVER TEMPERATURE**

V <sub>SAFE</sub>		0°C	25°C	50°C
On (V)	V <sub>IN</sub> increasing	3.2	3.2	3.2
Off (V)	V <sub>IN</sub> increasing	6.1	5.5	4.9
On (V)	V <sub>IN</sub> decreasing	6	5.4	4.8
On (V)	V <sub>IN</sub> decreasing	3.1	3.1	3.1

is Q<sub>2</sub>'s pullup resistor; R<sub>5</sub> limits Q<sub>3</sub>'s base current. Using Q<sub>1</sub> as an inexpensive 0.6V switch, resistor dividers R<sub>1</sub> and R<sub>3</sub> set the overvoltage threshold according to the equation  $V_{OV} = V_{BE1} (R_1 + R_2) / R_2$ . An internal 22-kΩ resistor at IC<sub>1</sub>'s MR input provides Q<sub>2</sub>'s pullup. Typical V<sub>BE1</sub> accuracy and temperature-coefficient errors are ±10% and -2 mV/°C, respectively.

Adjustment of R<sub>2</sub> for an exact overvoltage value nullifies V<sub>BE1</sub>'s accuracy error. **Table 1** shows typical setpoints over temperature. If you need further error reduction, you could exchange Q<sub>2</sub> for a comparator and voltage reference. For V<sub>IN</sub> within the set limits, 3.1 to 5.5V, the circuit draws only 16 μA. A total of 5 μA flows into both the R<sub>1</sub> and R<sub>4</sub> nodes, and 6 μA flows into R<sub>3</sub>'s node. R<sub>3</sub> protects IC<sub>1</sub> by providing current limiting of less than 6 mA for high voltages at V<sub>IN</sub>. The typical IC<sub>1</sub> current of 6 μA through R<sub>3</sub> increases the undervoltage setpoint by 24 mV.

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# Simple circuit forms peak/clipping indicator

Steven Hageman, Agilent Technologies, Santa Rosa, CA

**T**HE SIMPLE PEAK DETECTOR in **Figure 1** is the result of a need for a single-5V-supply, level/clipping indicator for a multimedia-PC sound system. The design is unique in that it detects both stereo channels on a single peak-hold capacitor. All the adjustments in the circuit

simultaneously apply to both left and right stereo inputs. The output is suitable for driving a bar-graph display or for analog-to-digital conversion and display with a microprocessor. The circuit operates as a dual positive-peak-detector circuit. The dual diode, D<sub>1</sub>, serves to allow

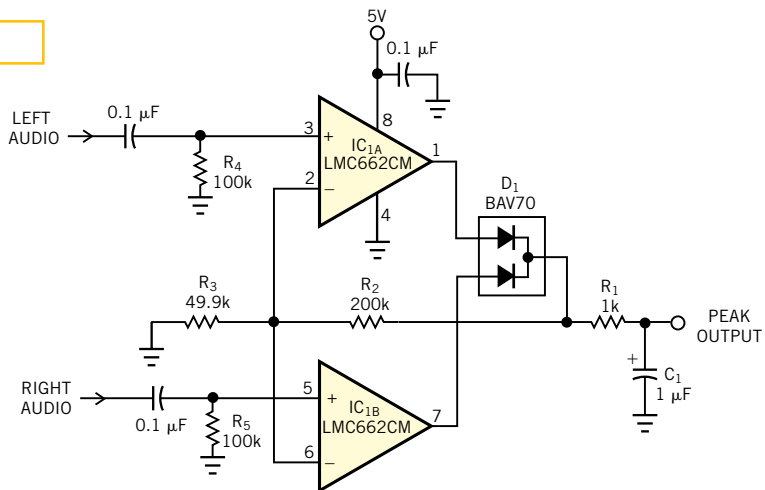
positive peaks to pass while disconnecting the op amp from the hold capacitor, C<sub>1</sub>, on negative peaks. Also, because the diodes have an OR connection, the circuit detects only the larger peak from the left or right stereo input. The values shown in **Figure 1** are for standard 200-



mV-rms line-input levels, such as those you'd find on a PC's sound-card line input. Your personal preference or exact needs might require other performance parameters, and you can easily adjust these values.

The gain for both stereo channels is equal to  $1 + R_2/R_3$ . The circuit as shown has a gain of 5. For a full-scale 200-mV-rms input, this gain produces an output of approximately 1.4V. This value is convenient for this application, which uses three green LEDs, two yellow LEDs, and one red LED to show the relative peak levels of the stereo channels. Nominal, full-scale line input of 200 mV rms lights two of the green LEDs. "Attack time" is the time it takes the peak detector to respond to 69% of an input-signal peak, or one time constant. The time constant  $R_1C_1$  sets the attack time. In this circuit, the attack time is 1 msec. The decay time is the time it takes the peak to decay to 31% of its original value, or one time constant. This time equals  $(R_2 + R_3)C_1$  (assuming that  $R_1$  is negligibly small

**Figure 1**



**This simple circuit provides peak detection and clipping indication for a PC's stereo channels.**

compared with  $R_2 + R_3$ ). The decay time in this case is 250 msec, because that value produces a pleasing-looking bargraph display. Some applications may need different response rates; you can

easily obtain them by following the design equations above.

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