

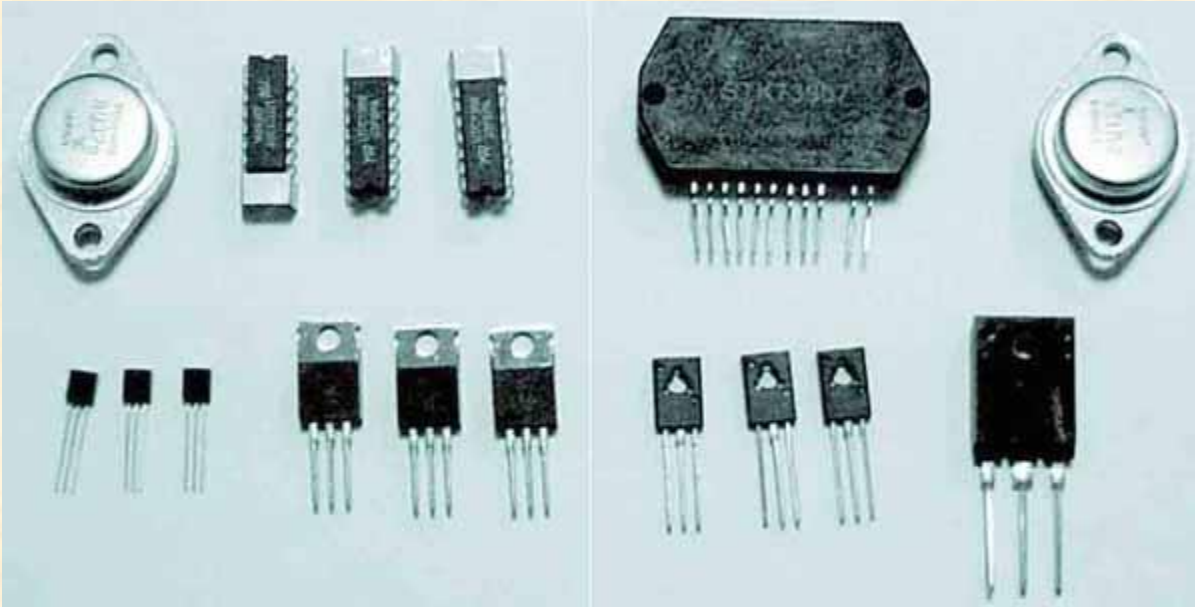
Một số sơ đồ mạch ĐKĐT

1. Mạch điều khiển transitor
2. Mạch điều khiển độ rộng xung
3. Mạch biến đổi ADC
4. Mạch ổn định điện áp
5. Mạch biến đổi điện áp
6. Mạch hạn chế dòng điện
7. Mạch cách ly quang
8. Mạch điều khiển động cơ bước
9. Khuếch đại thuật toán
10. Timer 555
11. Các mạch logic
12. Sử dụng thu-phát hồng ngoại
13. Thu phát sóng radio
14. Thu phát siêu âm

Mạch điều khiển transistor

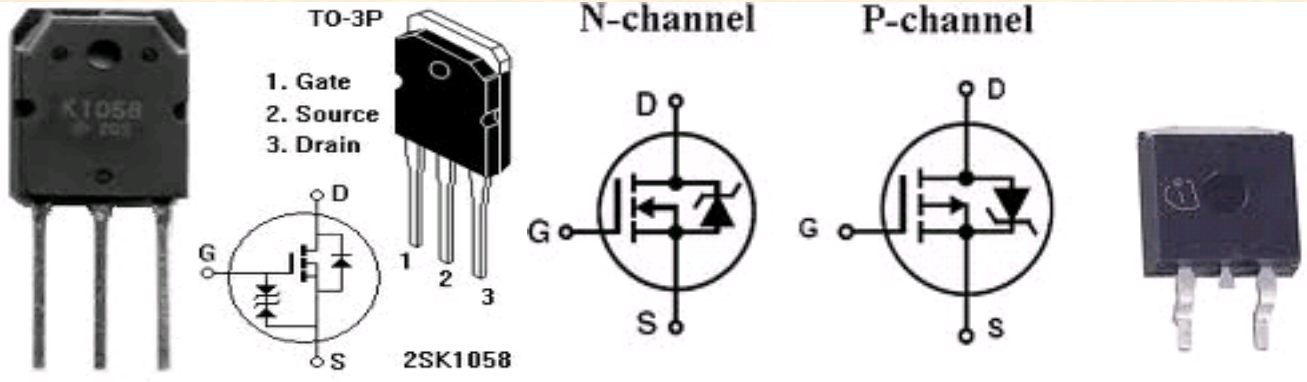
BJT transistors

(Bipolar junction transistor)

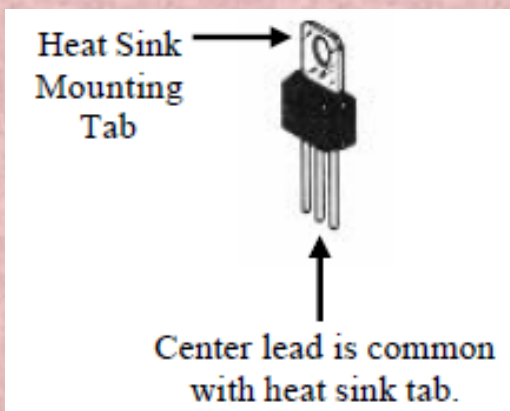
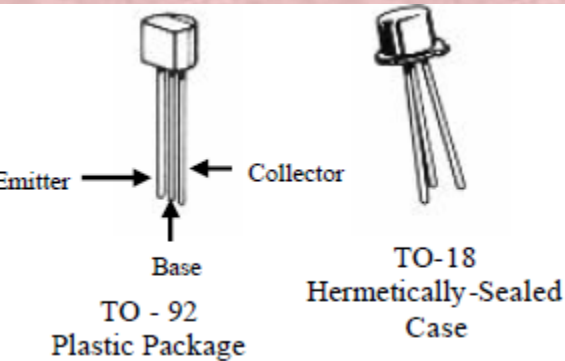
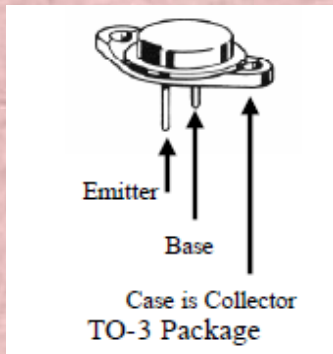


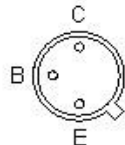
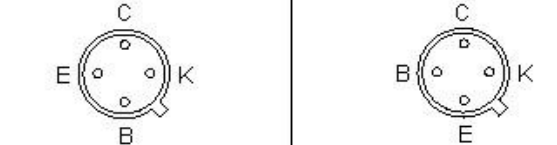
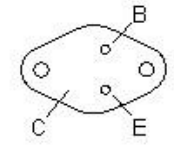
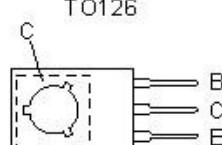
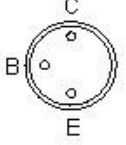
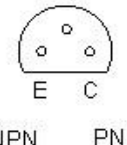
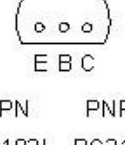
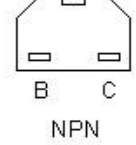
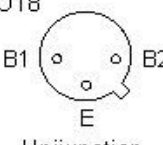
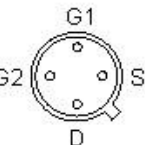
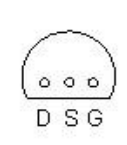
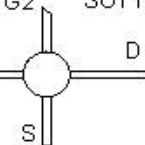
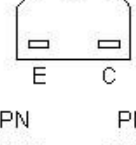
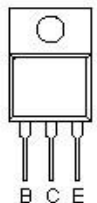
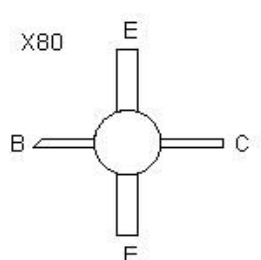
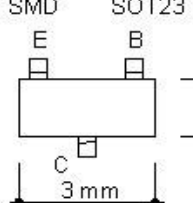
MOSFET transistor

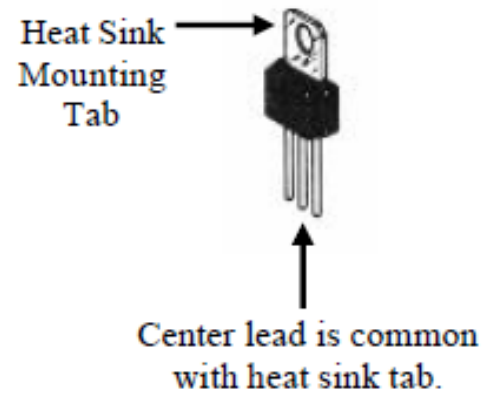
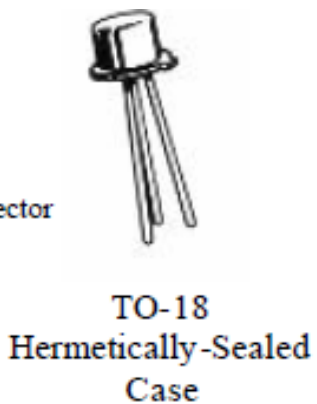
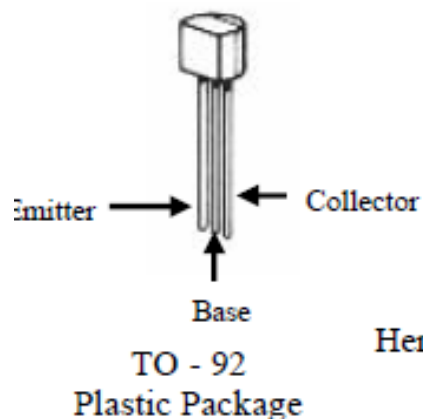
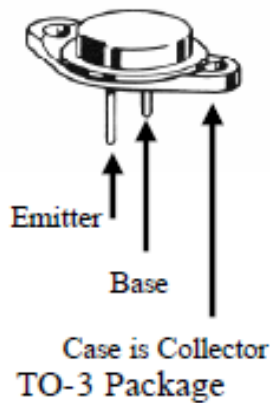
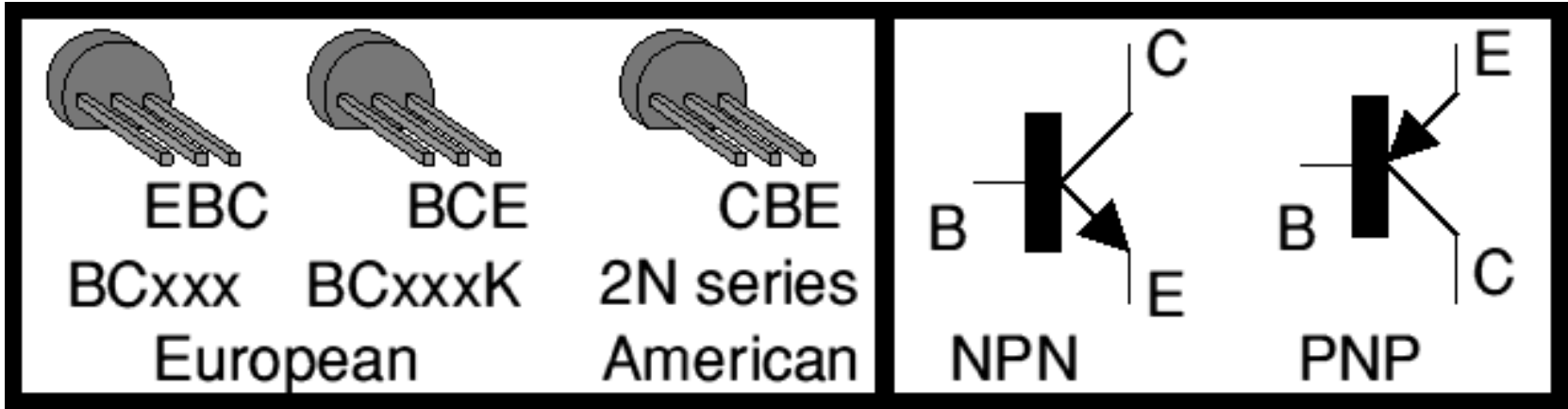
(Metal-Oxide Semiconductor Field-Effect Transistor)



Transistors pinout



<p>Package TO5, TO18</p>  <p>NPN PNP</p> <p>BC107 BC177 BC108 BC178 BC109 BC179 BC184 BC186 BC185 BC187 BC186 BC188 BC187 BC189 2N706 BCY71 2N2369 BC287 BC286 2N2904</p>	<p>TO72</p>  <p>NPN PNP NPN PNP</p> <p>BF180 AF139 BF181 AF178 BF182 AF179 BF183 AF180 BF184 AF181 BF185</p> <p>BF115 AF124 BF167 AF125 BF173 AF126 BF184 AF127 BF185</p>		<p>TO3 and similar</p>  <p>NPN PNP</p> <p>2N3055 PNP3055 BDY20 BDY18 BD121 OC26 BD123 AD149 AD161 AD162</p>	
<p>TO126</p>  <p>NPN PNP</p> <p>BD135 BD136 BD131 BD132 BD437 BD136 BUP41 BD438</p>	<p>TO-1</p>  <p>NPN PNP</p> <p>AC176 AC128 AC187 AC188</p>	<p>X-55</p>  <p>NPN PNP</p> <p>BC182 BC212 BC183 BC213 BC184 BC214 2N3707 2N3702 2N3710 2N3703</p>	<p>TO92</p>  <p>NPN PNP</p> <p>BC183L BC213L BC237B BC557 BC547 BC307B BC548 2N4402 BC546 2N3705 2N3903</p>	<p>SOT25</p>  <p>NPN</p> <p>BF194 BF195 BF196 BF197</p>
<p>TO18</p>  <p>Unijunction transistor</p> <p>2N2646 2N4870 2N2647 2N4871</p>	<p>TO18</p>  <p>3N140 3N141 40673</p>	<p>X80</p>  <p>BF256 2N3819 (connection FET)</p>	<p>SOT103</p>  <p>BF960 BF981 BF961 3SK81</p>	<p>SOT25</p>  <p>NPN PNP</p> <p>BC157 BC147 BC158 BC148 BC159 BC149 BCX35 BCX31</p>
<p>TO220</p>  <p>NPN PNP</p> <p>BD539 BD540 BD743 BD744 TIP29C TIP30C BU407 BD244C BUP30 BD240C 2N6099 BD242C BD243C D44C10 BD241C</p>	<p>X80</p>  <p>BFR14 BFR49</p>	<p>SMD SOT23</p>  <p>1,3 mm 3 mm</p> <p>NPN PNP</p> <p>BC846B BC856B BC847B BC857B BC848B BC858B BC849B BC859B</p>		



Các bóng bán dẫn như thế này thường có trong gia đình ba người, để BC 556, BC557 và BC558 là một 'gia đình' như BC 546, BC547 và BC548. Hậu tố 'C' (ví dụ BS557C) cho biết nhóm thu được: thường A là 100-250, B là 200-500 và C là 400-1000. Sau đó, một số gia đình có hậu tố L là tốt, vì vậy bạn có thể có BC546L (hoặc thậm chí BC546AL): những L hậu tố này có người thu gom ở trung tâm. Các loại 4QD chúng tôi sử dụng không phải là loại L (thực sự là của chúng tôi là hậu tố K, hoặc không có hậu tố) và các chân như trong sơ đồ bên dưới, bên trái. Chúng tôi có thể cung cấp gói 100 bóng bán dẫn với mức giá rất cạnh tranh!

Ký hiệu (trên thân Transistor)

* Hiện nay trên thị trường có nhiều loại Transistor của nhiều nước sản xuất nhưng thông dụng nhất là các transistor của Nhật bản, Mỹ và Trung quốc.

Transistor Nhật bản : thường ký hiệu là A..., B..., C..., D... Ví dụ A564, B733, C828, D1555 trong đó các Transistor ký hiệu là A và B là Transistor thuận PNP còn ký hiệu là C và D là Transistor ngược NPN. các Transistor A và C thường có công suất nhỏ và tần số làm việc cao còn các Transistor B và D thường có công suất lớn và tần số làm việc thấp hơn.

Transistor do Mỹ sản xuất. thường ký hiệu là 2N... ví dụ 2N3055, 2N4073 vv...



Bắt đầu bằng số 3, tiếp theo là hai chữ cái. Chữ cái thứ nhất cho biết loại bóng : Chữ A và B là bóng thuận , chữ C và D là bóng ngược, chữ thứ hai cho biết đặc điểm : X và P là bóng âm tần, A và G là bóng cao tần. Các chữ số ở sau chỉ thứ tự sản phẩm. Thí dụ : 3CP25 , 3AP20 vv..

3. Cách xác định chân E, B, C của Transistor.
Với các loại Transistor công suất nhỏ thì thứ tự chân C và B tùy theo bóng của nước nào sản xuất , nhưng chân E luôn ở bên trái nếu ta để Transistor như hình bên. Nếu là Transistor do Nhật sản xuất : thí dụ Transistor C828, A564 thì chân C ở giữa , chân B ở bên phải.

Nếu là Transistor Trung quốc sản xuất thì chân B ở giữa , chân C ở bên phải.

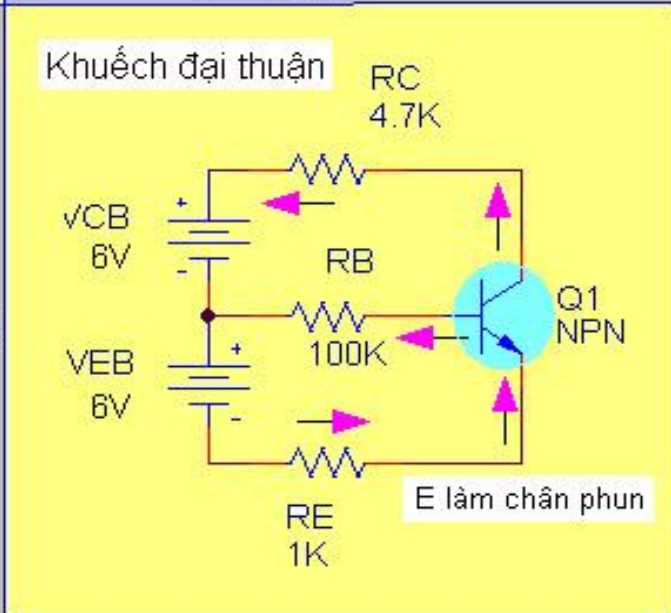
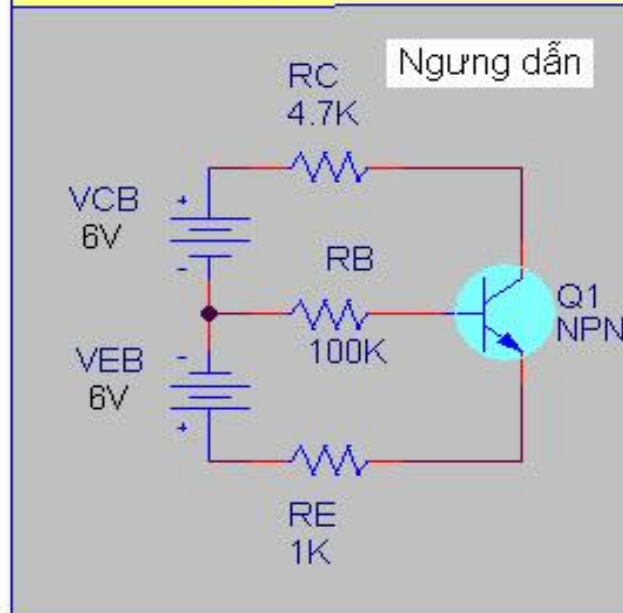
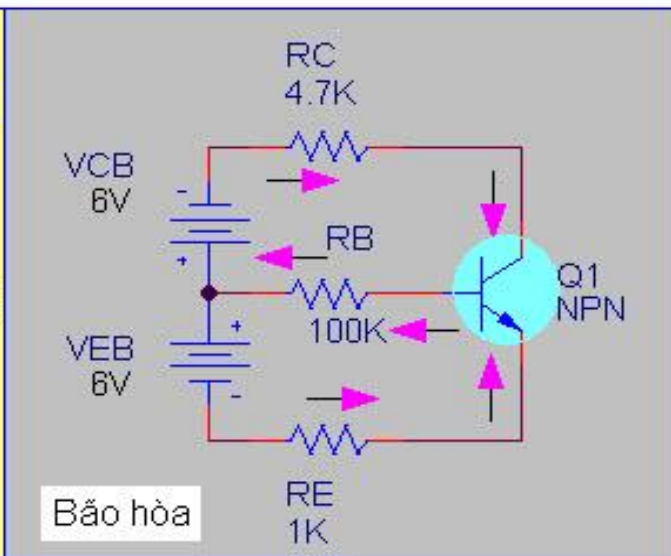
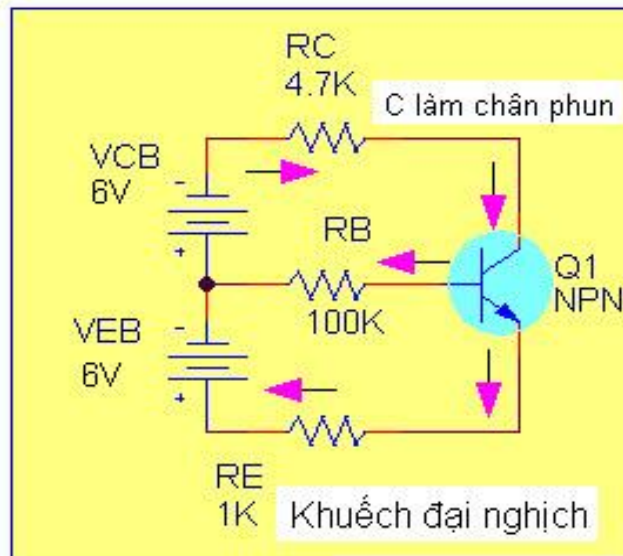
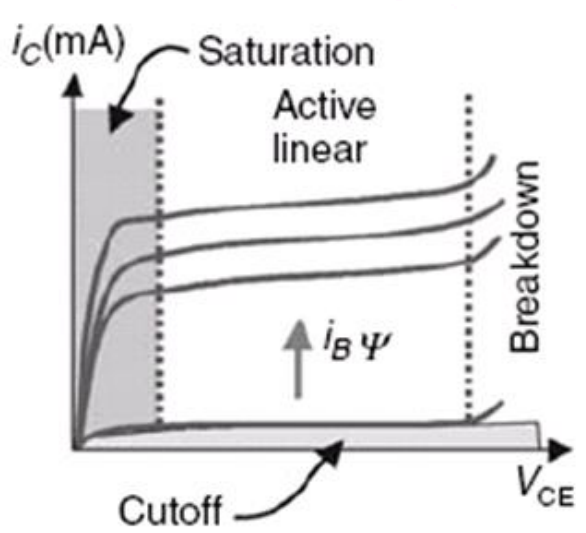
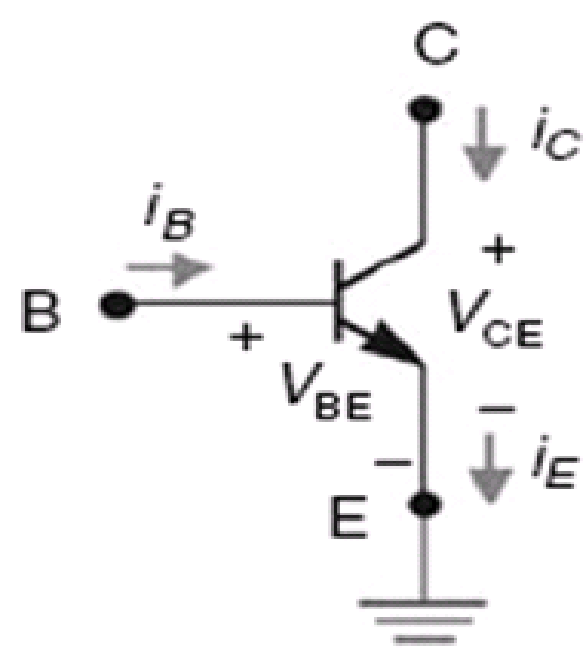
Tuy nhiên một số Transistor được sản xuất nhái thì không theo thứ tự này => để biết chính xác ta dùng phương pháp đo bằng đồng hồ vạn năng.

Với loại Transistor công suất lớn thì hầu hết đều có chung thứ tự chân là : Bên trái là cực B, ở giữa là cực C và bên phải là cực E.

Đo xác định chân B và C

Với Transistor công suất nhỏ thì thông thường chân E ở bên trái như vậy ta chỉ xác định chân B và suy ra chân C là chân còn lại.

Để đồng hồ thang $\times 1\Omega$, đặt cố định một que đo vào từng chân , que kia chuyển sang hai chân còn lại, nếu kim lên = nhau thì chân có que đặt cố định là chân B, nếu que đồng hồ cố định là que đen thì là Transistor ngược, là que đỏ thì là Transistor thuận..

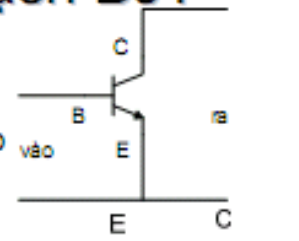


4 vùng làm việc của một transistor NPN

Các cách mắc mạch BJT

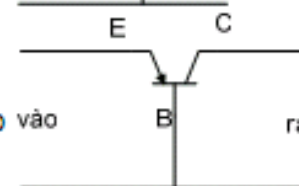
■ E-C (Emitter Common).

- Vào B ra C, E chung vào và ra



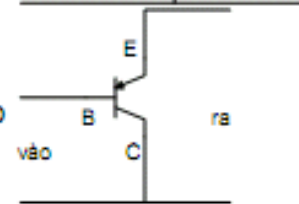
■ B-C (Base Common).

- Vào E ra C, B chung vào và ra

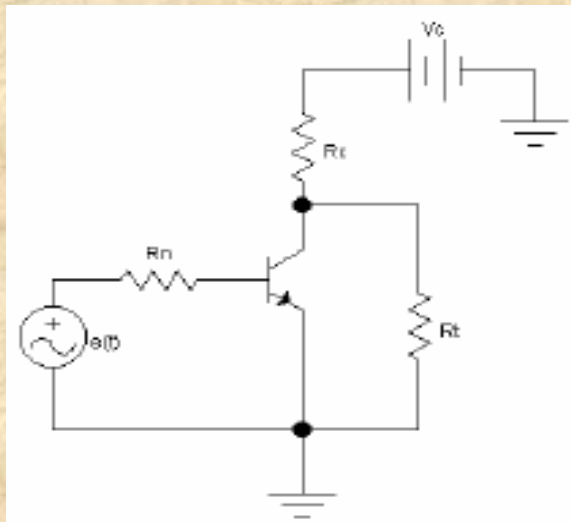


■ C-C (Colector Common).

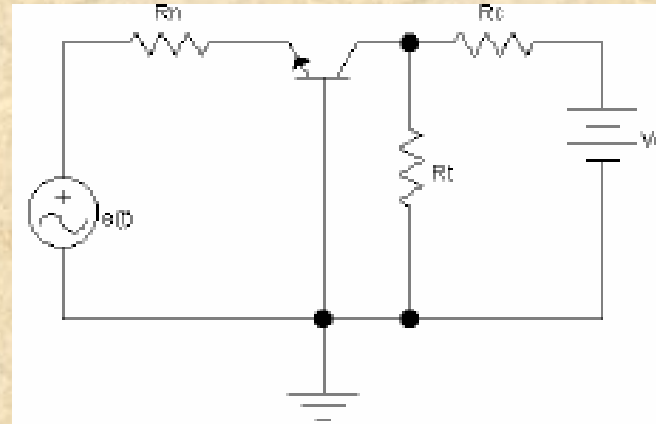
- Vào B ra E, C chung vào và ra



Sơ đồ E-C (E chung)

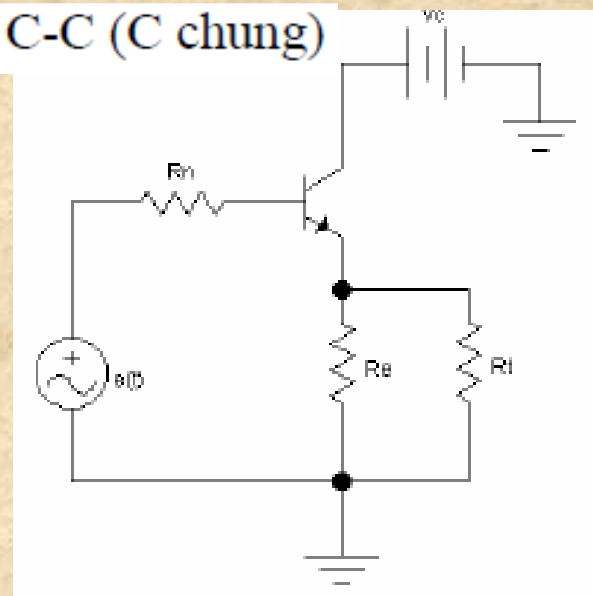


Sơ đồ B-C (B chung)



Mạch này không có tính khuếch đại mà chỉ làm tăng đệm để phối hợp trở kháng

Sơ đồ C-C (C chung)

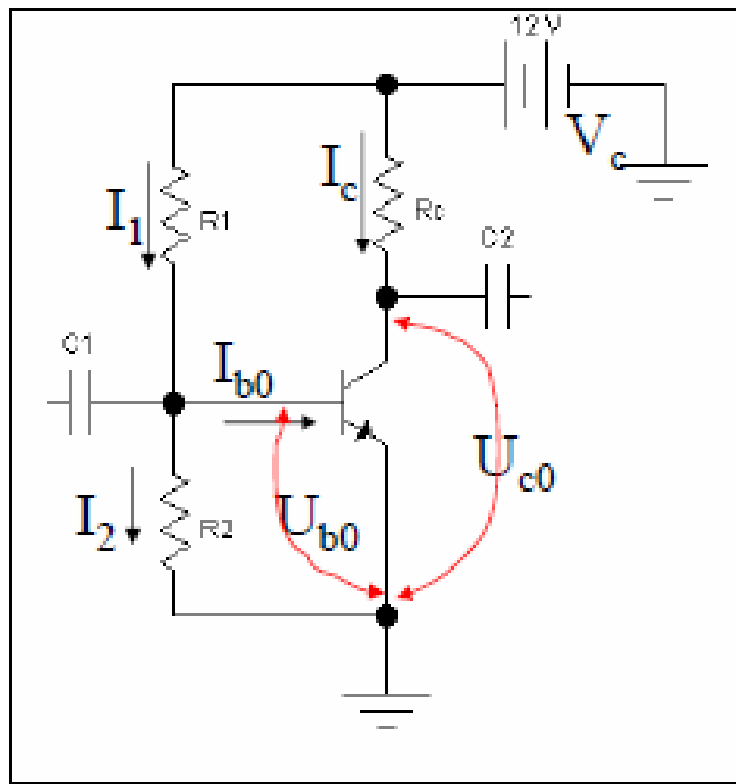


Tín hiệu ra bị phản hồi âm mạnh nên trở kháng vào lớn và trở kháng ra nhỏ

Phân cực cho BJT

- Là tạo một điện áp ban đầu cho cực B của BJT để vượt qua ngưỡng U_0 ban đầu (Si là 0,6 vôn và Ge là 0,2 vôn)
- Phân cực bằng điện áp
- Phân cực bằng dòng điện
- Phân cực bằng phản hồi
- Điện áp tại chân B (mạch E-C) sau khi đã phân cực sẽ là:
- $U_b = U_{be0} + e(t)$
- với $e(t)$ là nguồn tín hiệu cần khuếch đại. Muốn khuếch đại được thì U_{be0} phải lớn hơn hoặc bằng biên độ $e(t) + U_{0+}$.

Phân cực bằng điện áp

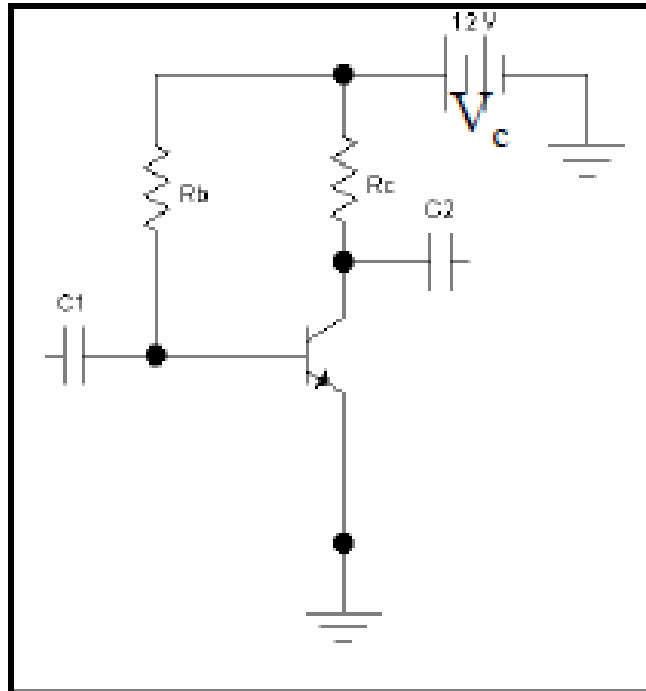


- Chọn dòng I_{b0} (kí hiệu 0 chỉ đại lượng phân cực)
- Chọn dòng $I_2 = (5 \text{ --} 10)I_{b0}$ (qui ước lấy $I_2=10I_{b0}$). Dòng phân cực càng lớn càng tốt nhưng sẽ gây tổn hao công suất nhiều.
- Chọn U_{be0} (0,6 vôn với Si và 0,2 vôn với Ge) hay U_{b0}

$$R_2 = \frac{U_{b0}}{I_2}; \quad R_1 = \frac{V_c - U_{b0}}{I_2 + I_{b0}}$$

$$R_c = \frac{V_c - U_{c0}}{I_{c0}} = \frac{V_c - U_{c0}}{\beta I_{b0}}$$

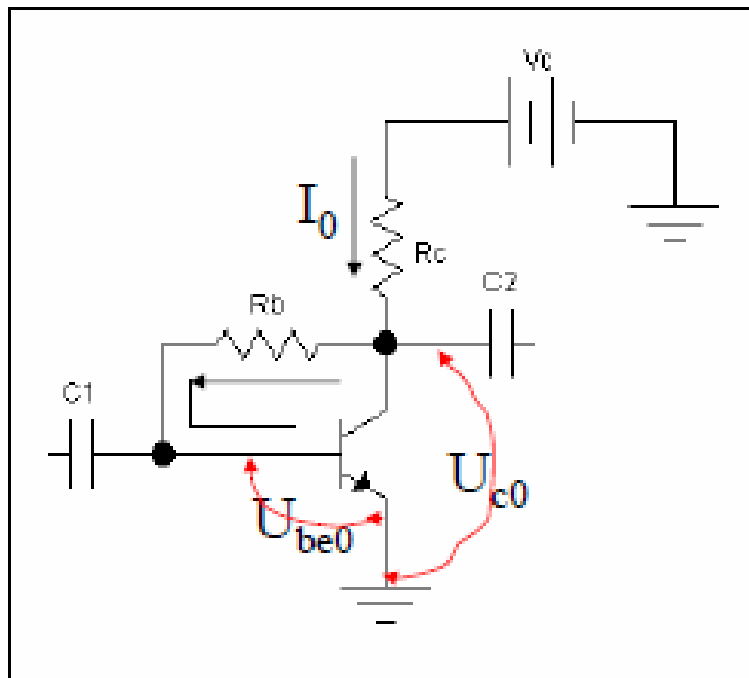
Phân cực bằng dòng điện



$$R_b = \frac{V_c - U_{be0}}{I_{b0}}$$

- Chọn trước U_{be0} , I_{b0}

Phân cực bằng phản hồi



$$I_0 = I_{c0} + I_{b0} = (\beta + 1)I_{b0}$$

$$U_{c0} = V_c - I_0 R_c$$

$$R_b = \frac{U_{c0} - U_{be0}}{I_{b0}}$$

$$R_c = \frac{V_c - U_{c0}}{I_0}$$

- Chọn trước I_{b0} , U_{be0}
- Chọn trước U_{c0}

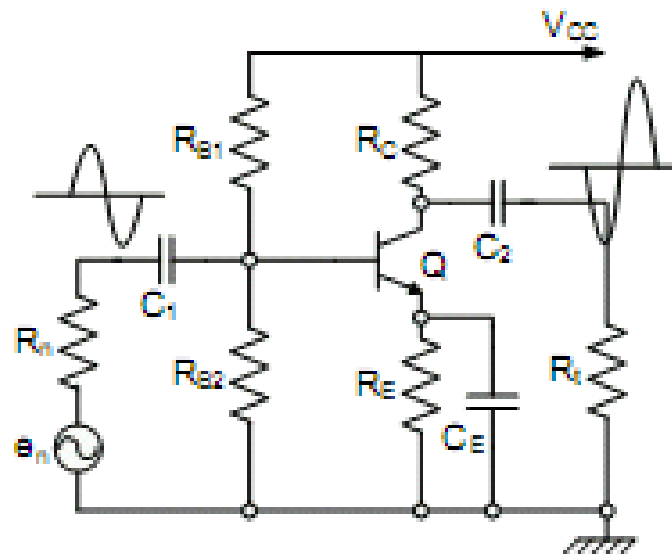
Mạch khuếch đại E-C

- Hệ số khuếch đại công suất:

- $K_P = K_U \cdot K_I$.

- Pha của tín hiệu:

- $K_I < 0$ nên tín hiệu ngõ ra ngược pha tín hiệu ngõ vào.



- Mạch khuếch đại E-C có biên độ $K_I, K_U > 1$ nên vừa khuếch đại dòng điện, vừa khuếch đại điện áp.
- Mạch khuếch đại E-C với K_I, K_U có dấu âm nên tín hiệu ngõ ra ngược pha với tín hiệu ngõ vào.
- Điện trở vào và điện trở ra của mạch E-C có giá trị trung bình trong các sơ đồ khuếch đại.

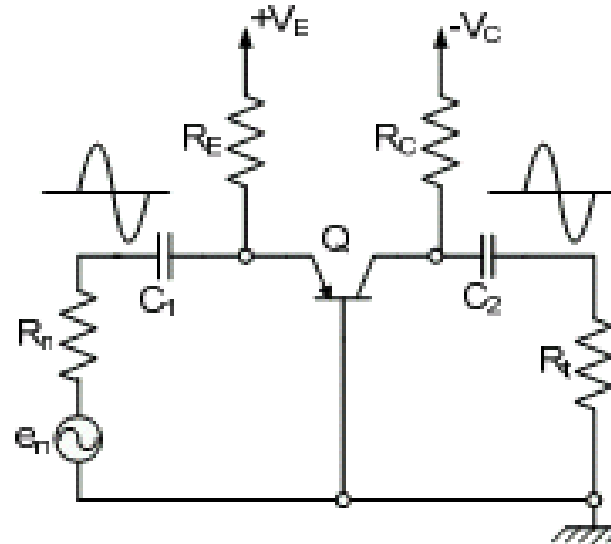
Mạch khuếch đại B-C

- Hệ số khuếch đại công suất:

- $K_P = K_U \cdot K_I$.

- Pha của tín hiệu:

- $K_I > 0$ nên tín hiệu ngõ ra cùng pha tín hiệu ngõ vào.



- Mạch khuếch đại B-C có biên độ $K_I < 1$, $K_U > 1$ nên mạch không khuếch đại dòng điện, chỉ khuếch đại điện áp.
- Mạch khuếch đại B-C với K_I , K_U có dấu dương nên tín hiệu ngõ ra cùng pha với tín hiệu ngõ vào.
- Điện trở vào của mạch B-C có giá trị nhỏ nhất trong các sơ đồ khuếch đại.

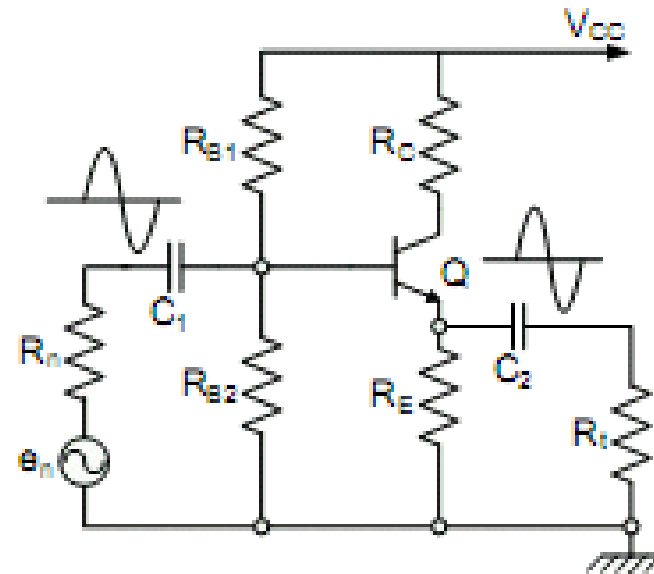
Mạch khuếch đại C-C

- Hệ số khuếch đại công suất:

- $K_p = K_U \cdot K_I$.

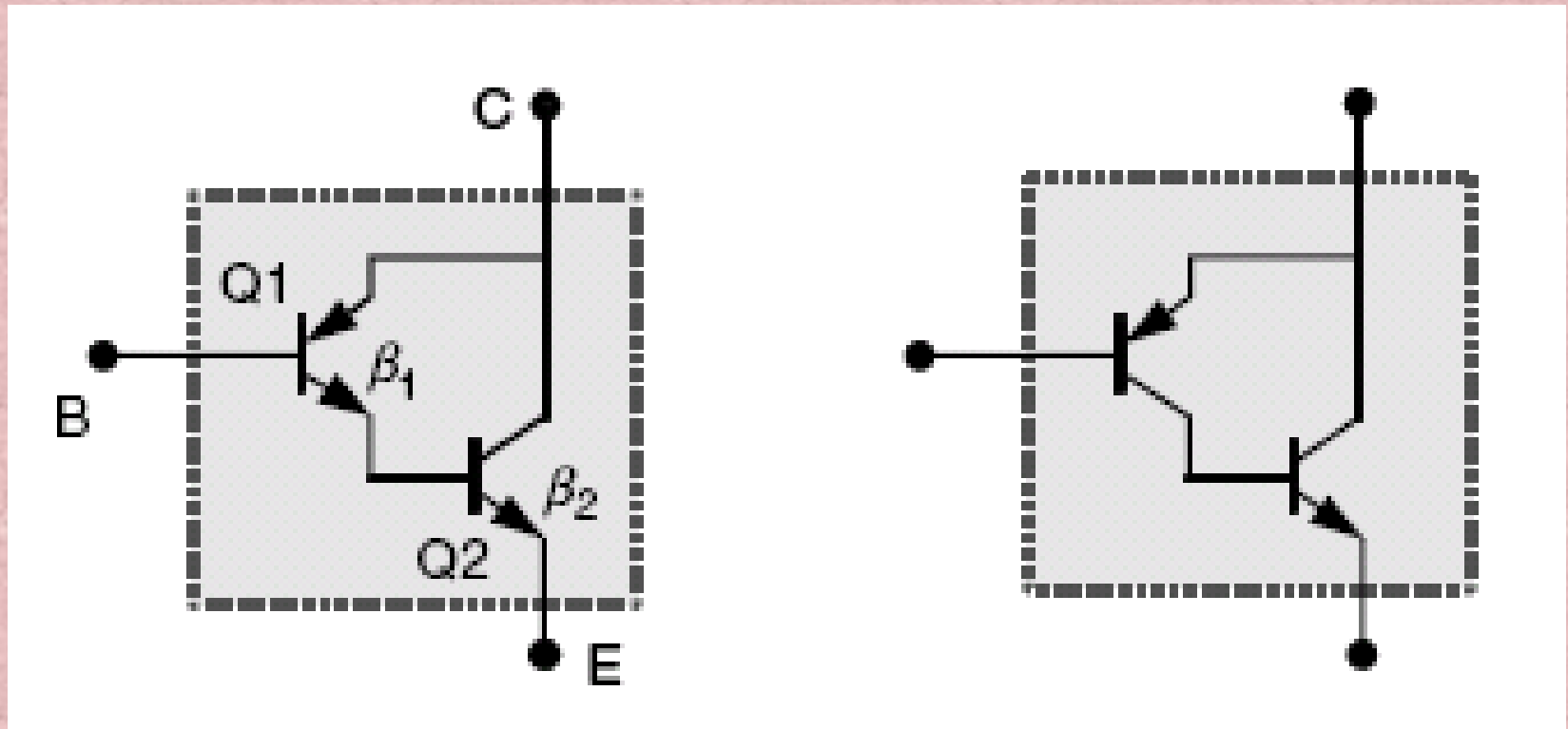
- Pha của tín hiệu:

- $K_I > 0$ nên tín hiệu ngõ ra cùng pha tín hiệu ngõ vào.



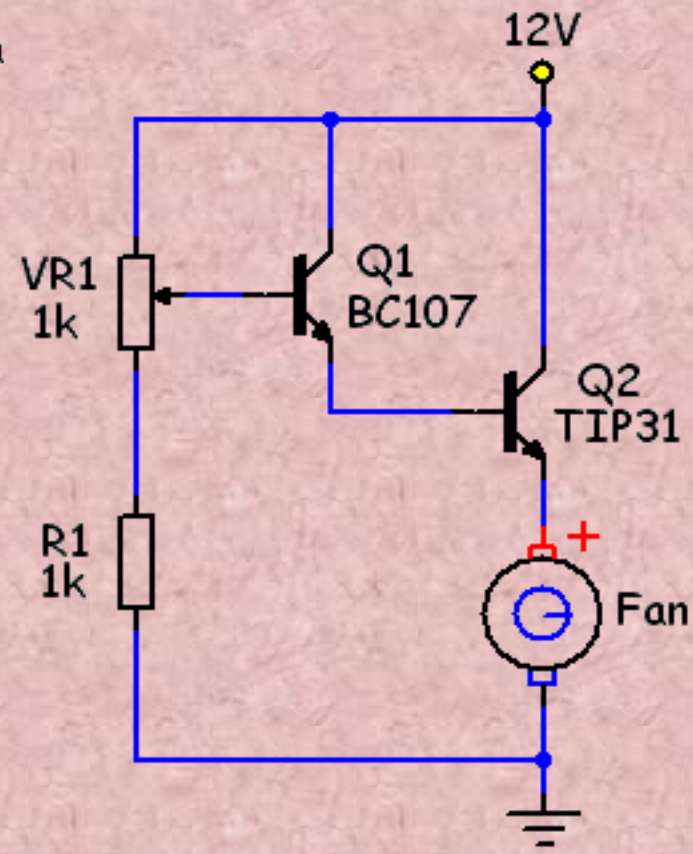
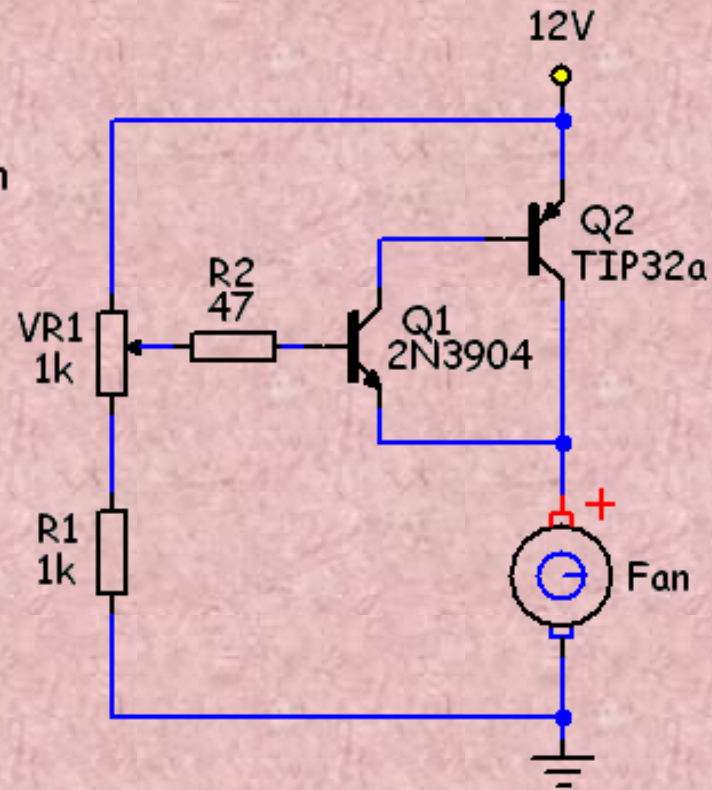
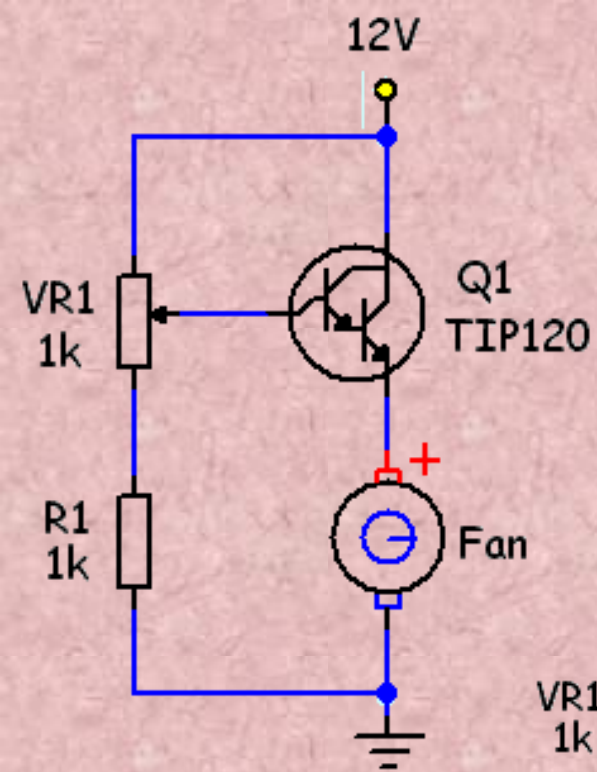
- Mạch khuếch đại C-C có biên độ $K_I > 1$, $K_U < 1$ nên chỉ khuếch đại dòng điện, không khuếch đại điện áp.
- Mạch khuếch đại C-C với K_I , K_U có dấu dương nên tín hiệu ngõ ra cùng pha với tín hiệu ngõ vào.
- Điện trở vào của mạch C-C có giá trị lớn nhất trong các sơ đồ khuếch đại. Mạch này dùng phối hợp trở kháng rất tốt.

Transistor mắc theo sơ đồ Darlington

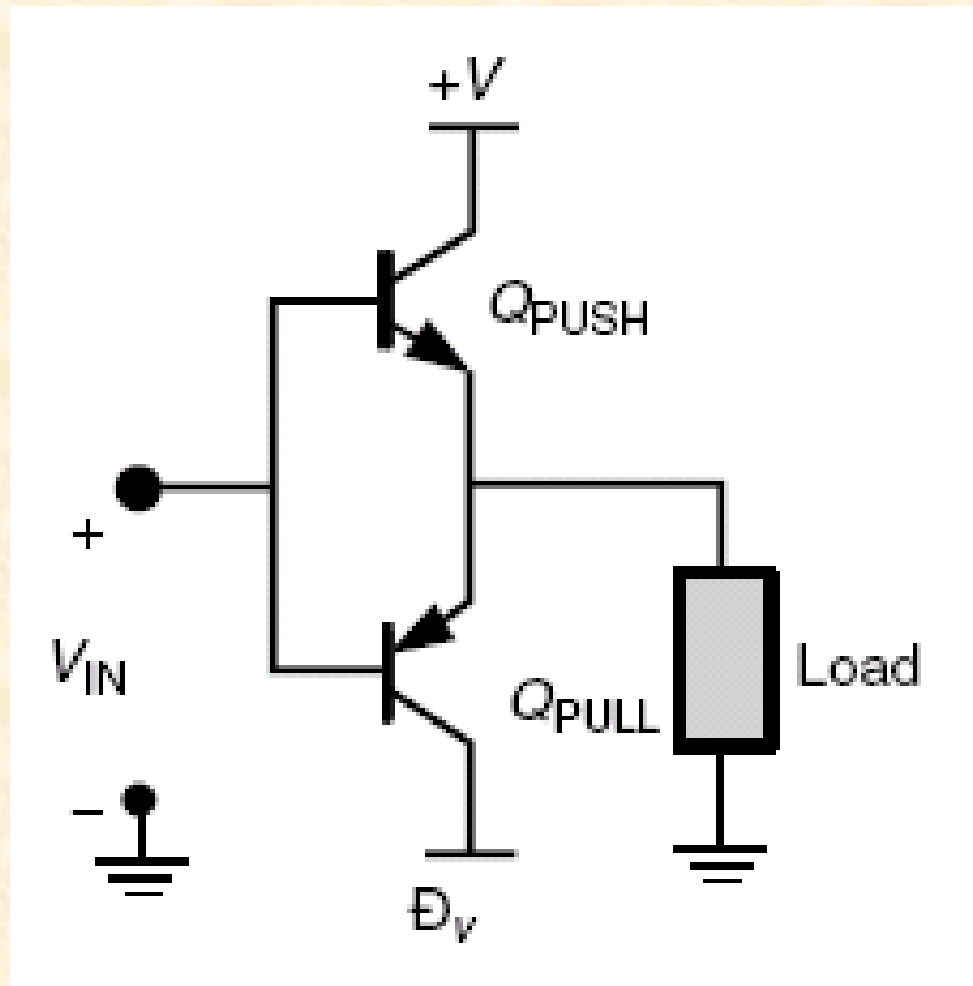


$$i_{C2} = \beta_2 \cdot i_{B2} = \beta_2 \cdot (\beta_1 \cdot i_{B1}) = (\beta_2 \cdot \beta_1) \cdot i_{B1} = \beta_D \cdot i_{B1}$$

Transistor Darlington application



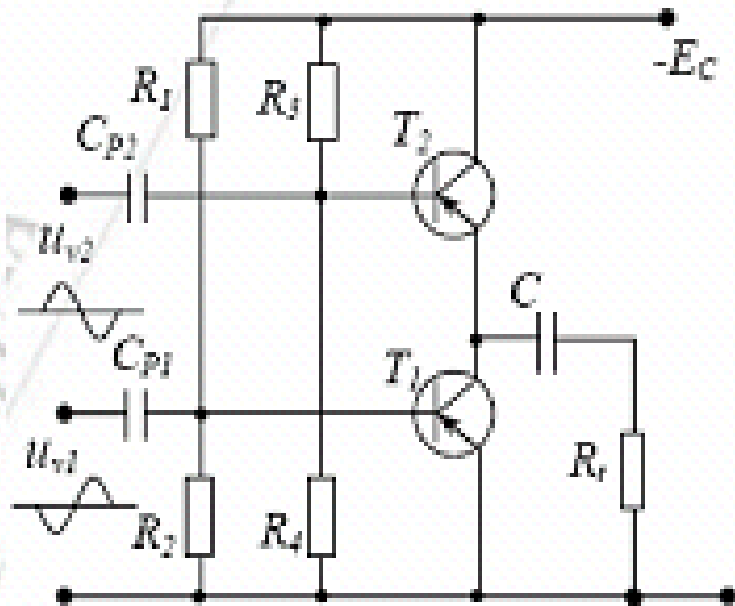
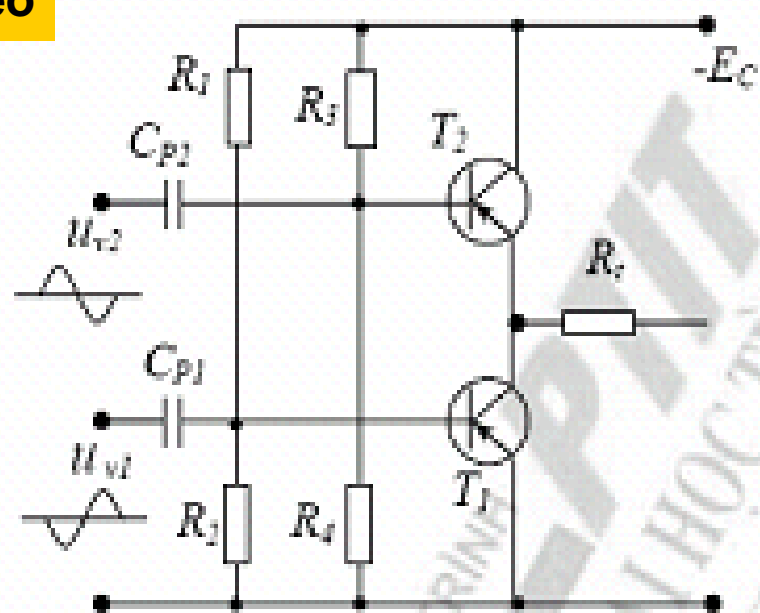
Mạch đẩy - kéo



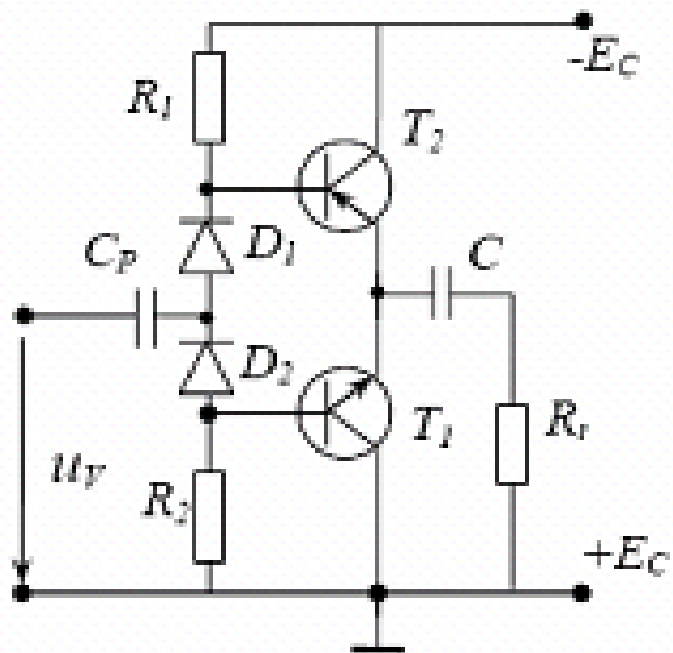
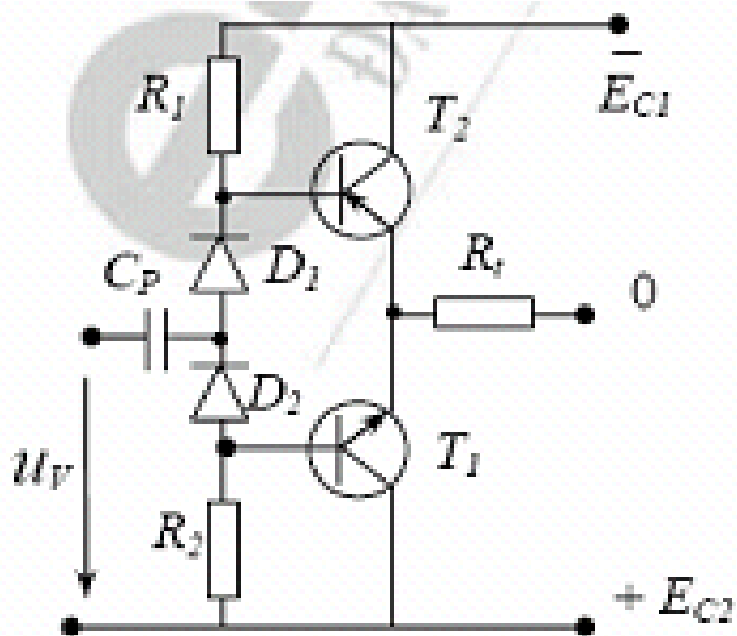
Switching push-pull amplifier.
Pulse-width modulation

Mạch đẩy - kéo

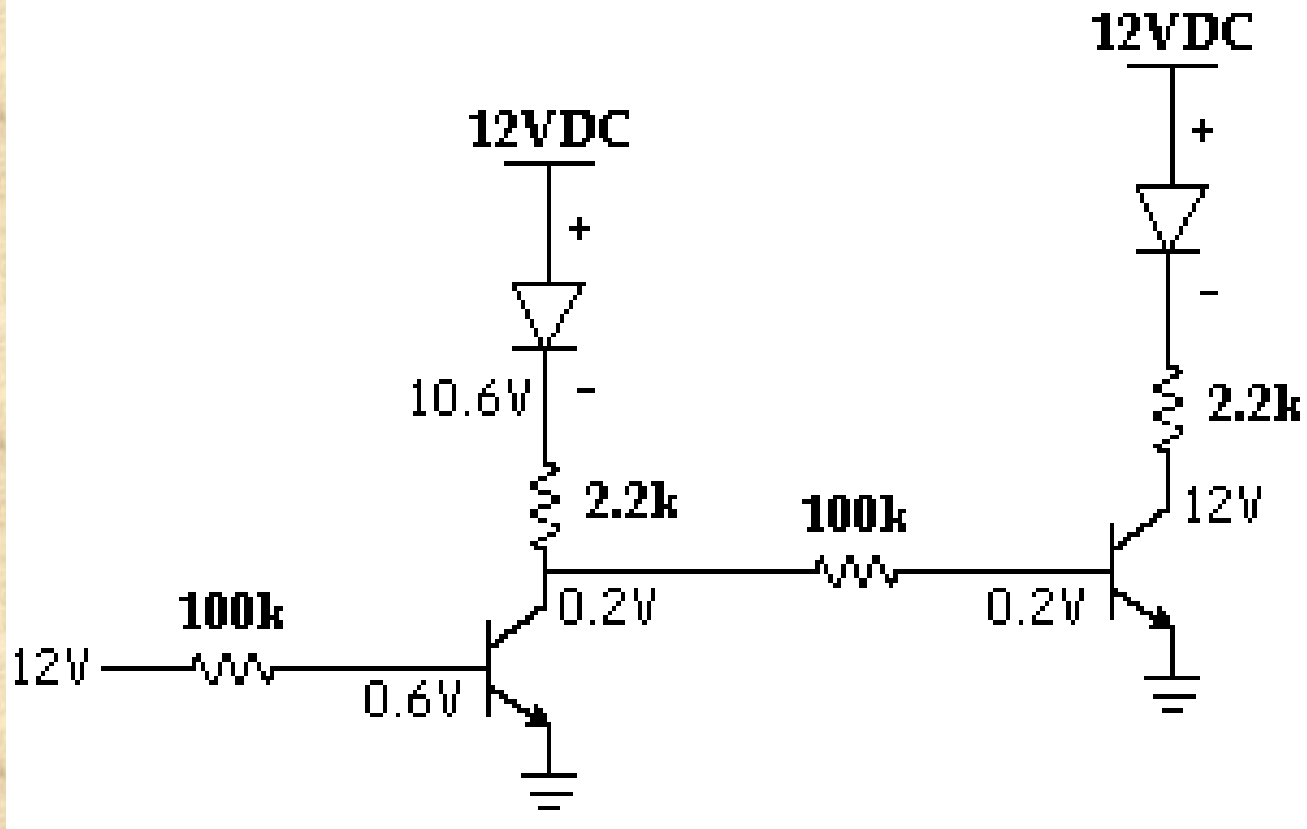
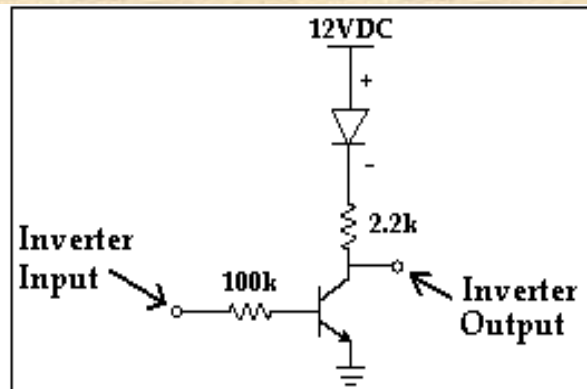
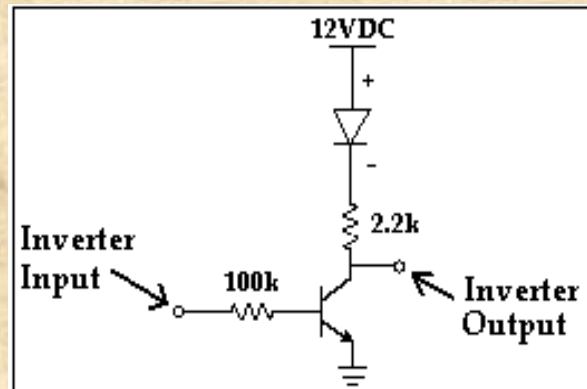
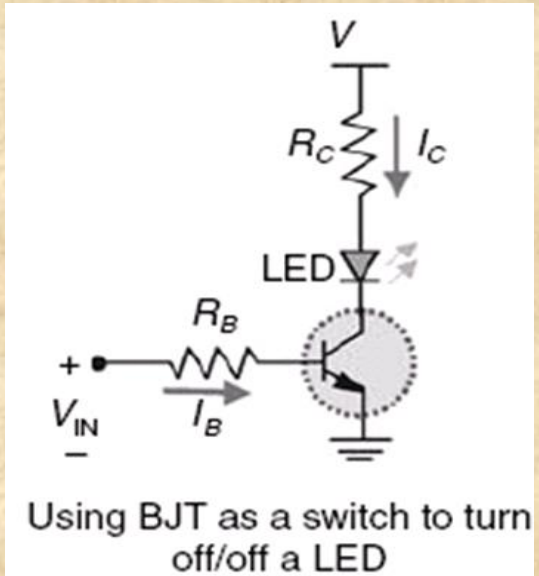
dùng các Transistor cùng loại



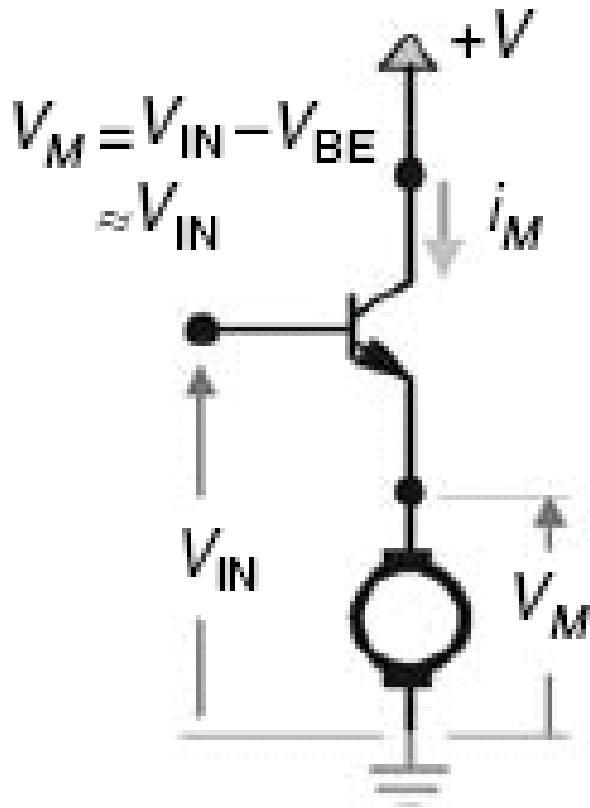
dùng các Transistor khác loại



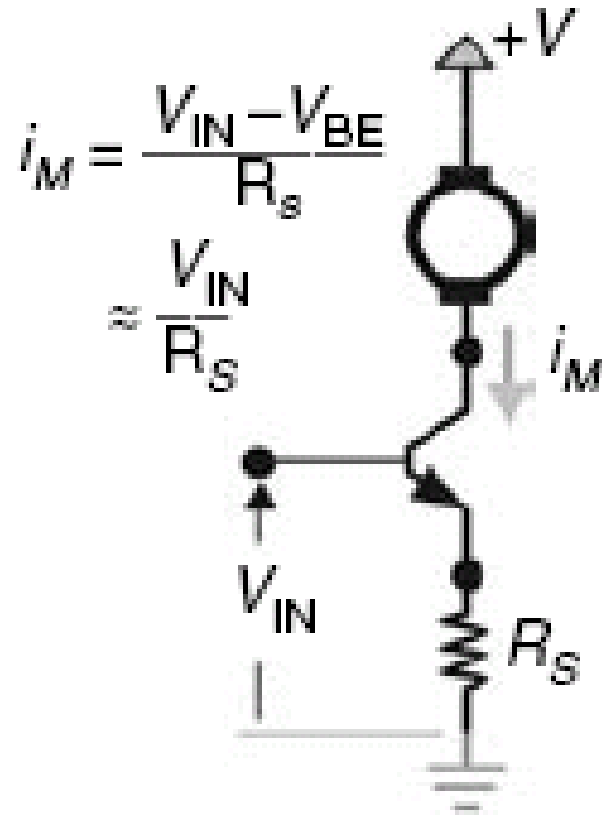
Sử dụng Transistor như một công tắc ...



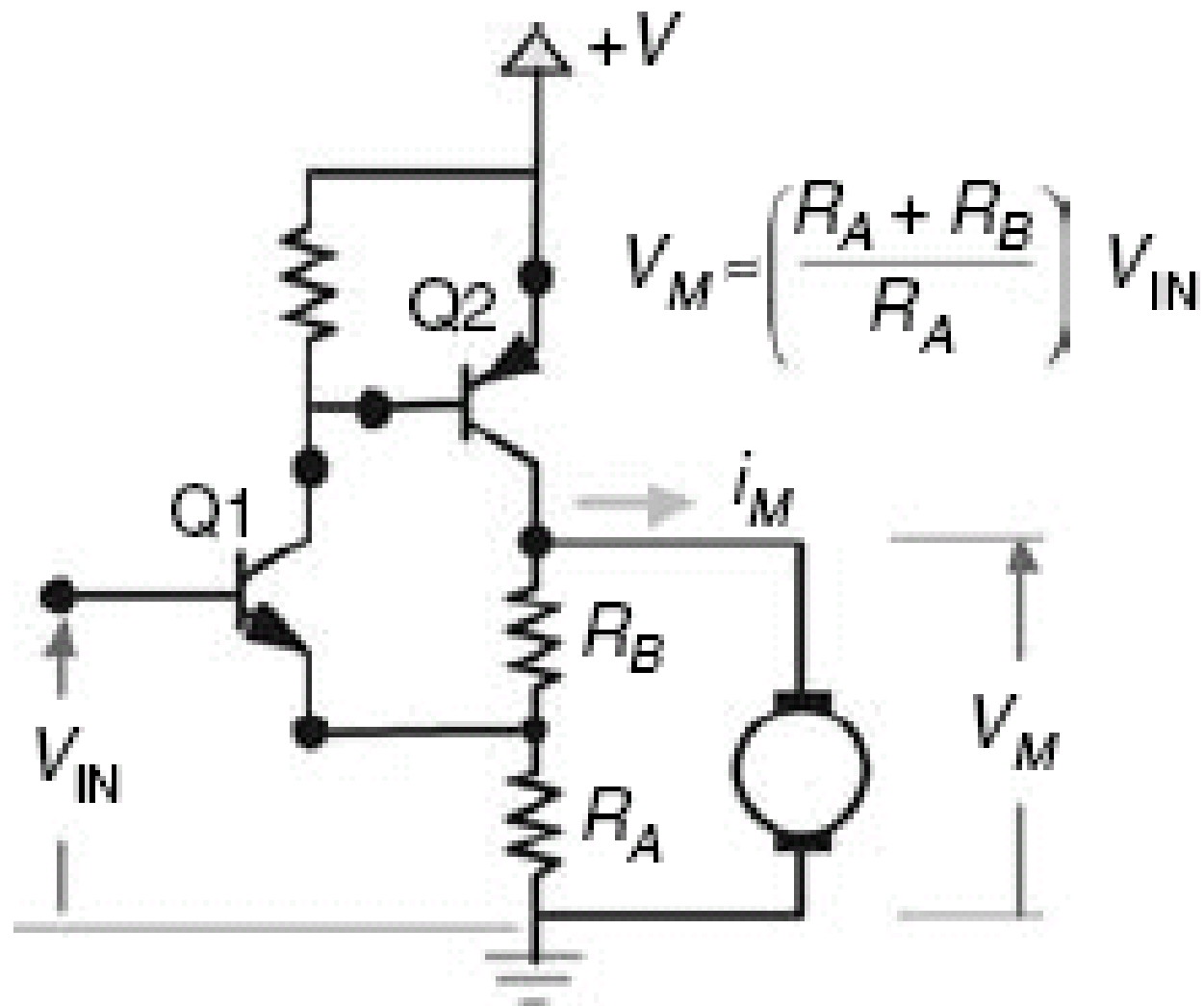
2 phương pháp mắc transistor để điều khiển động cơ điện



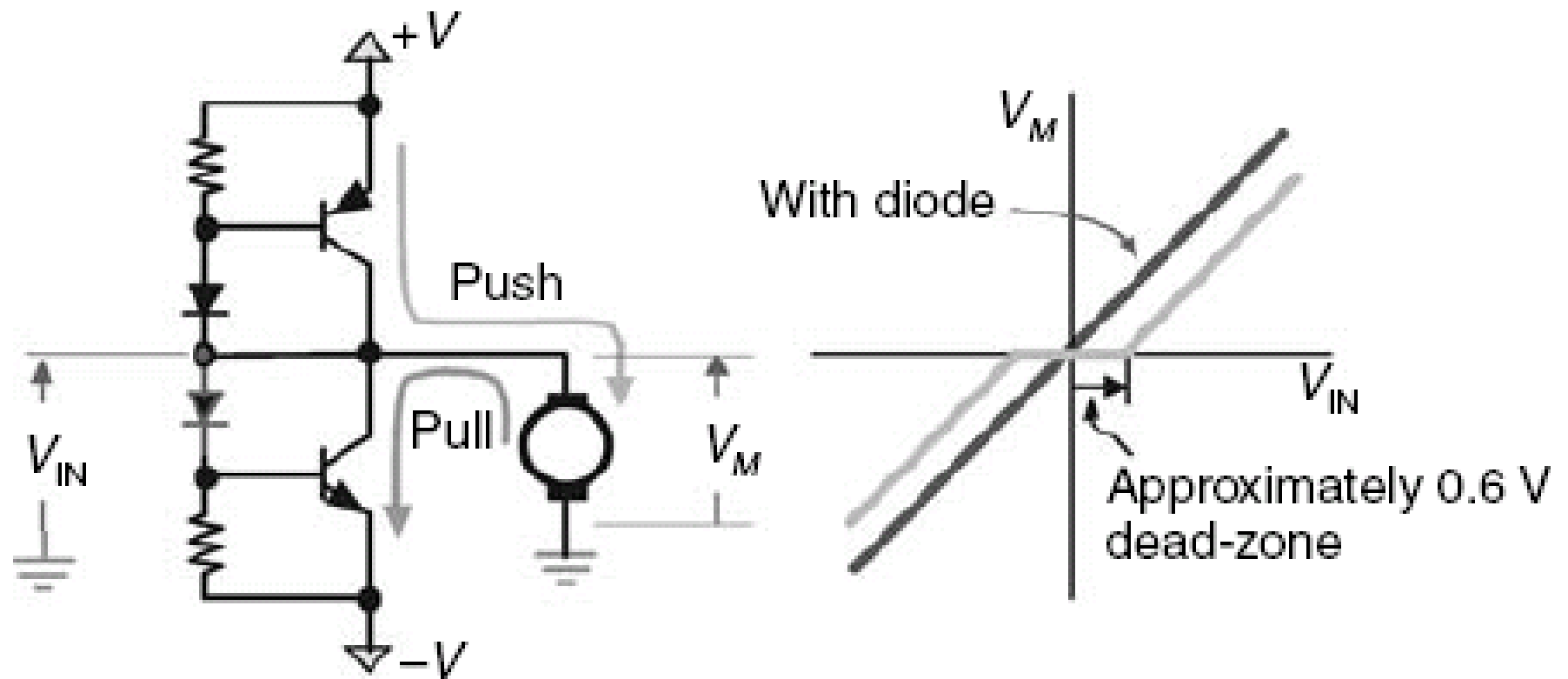
(a) Voltage-mode driver



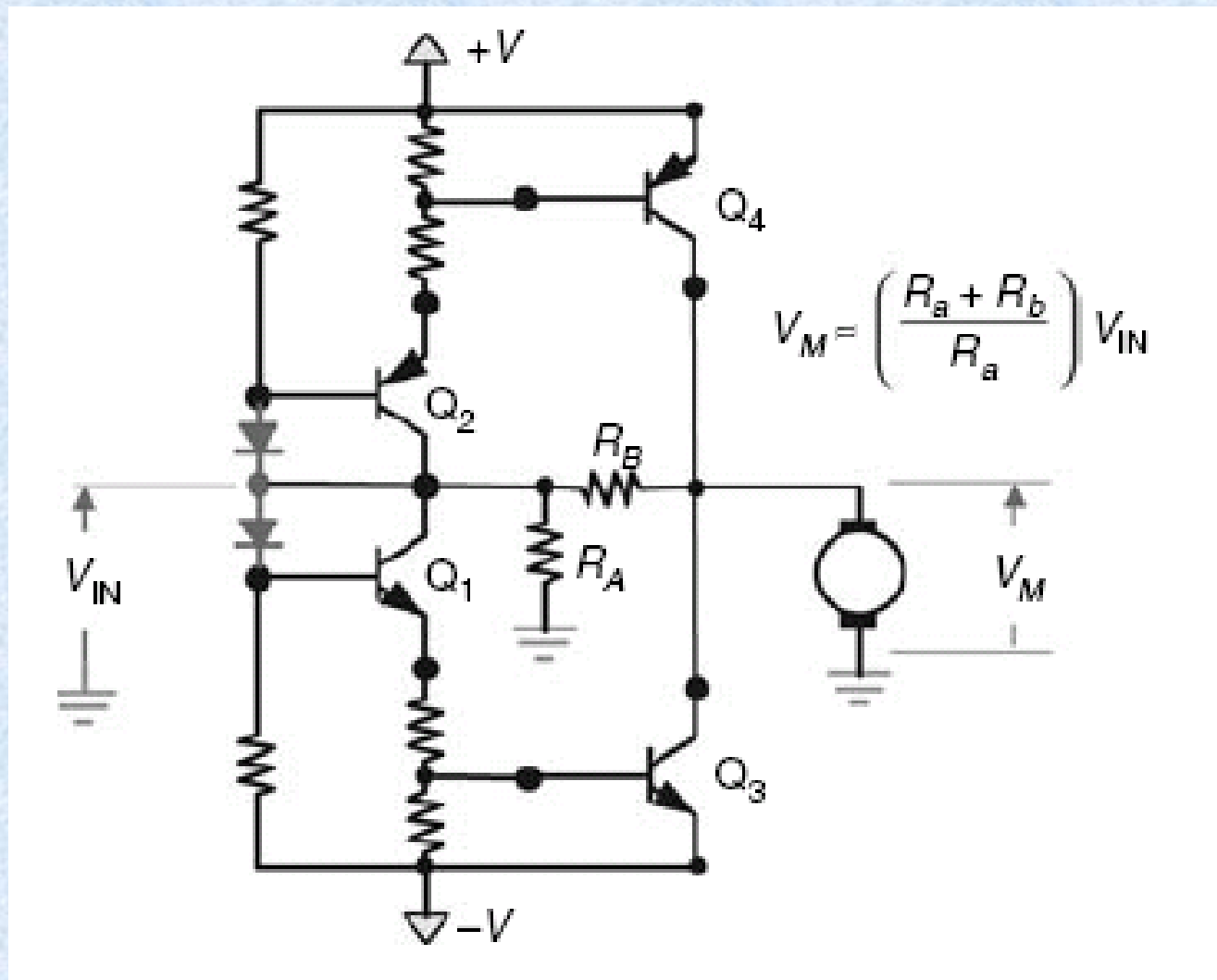
(b) Current-mode driver



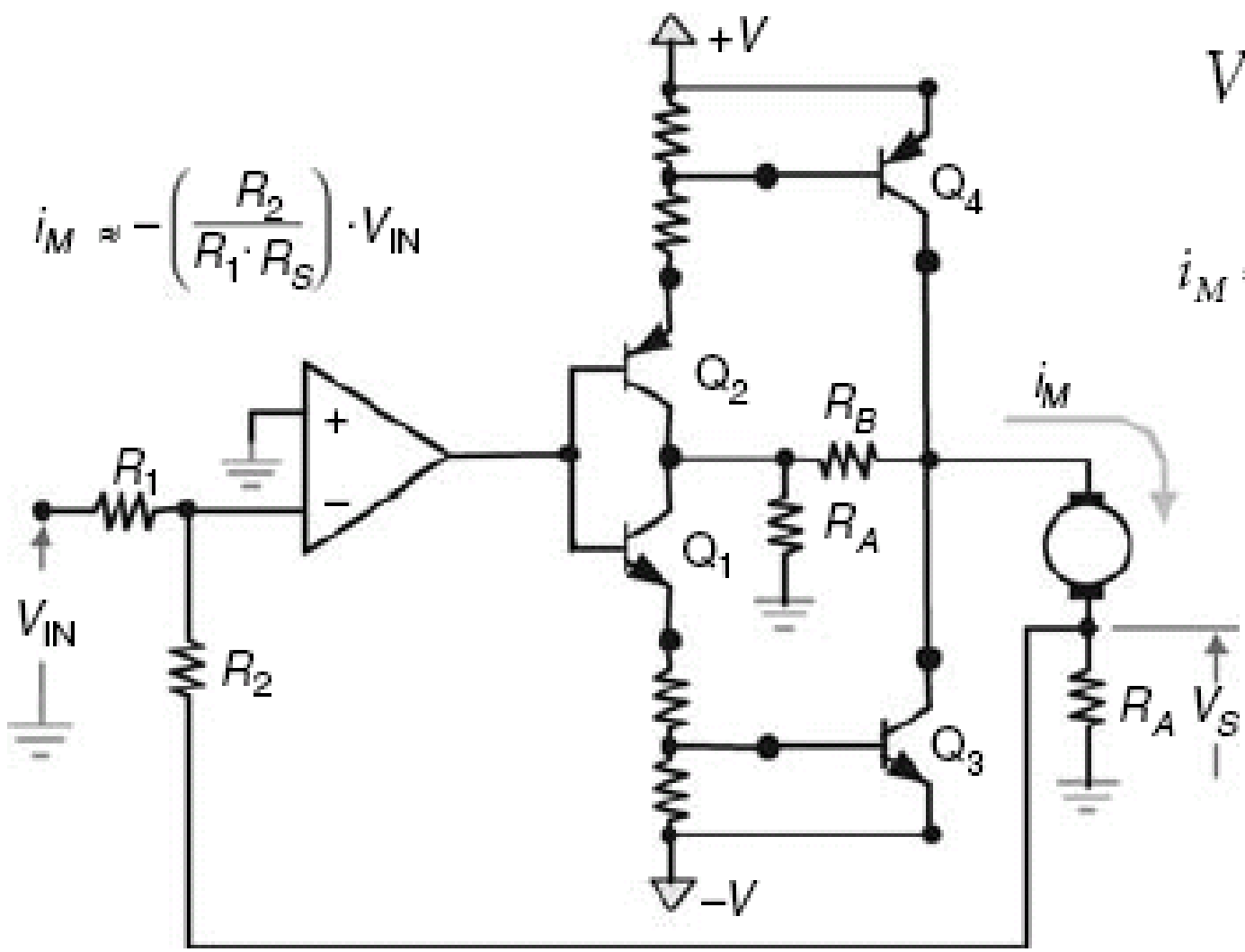
Variable gain voltage-mode amplifier.



Bipolar voltage-mode amplifier.



Bipolar variable gain voltage-mode amplifier.



$$i_M \approx -\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1 \cdot R_S}\right) \cdot V_{IN}$$

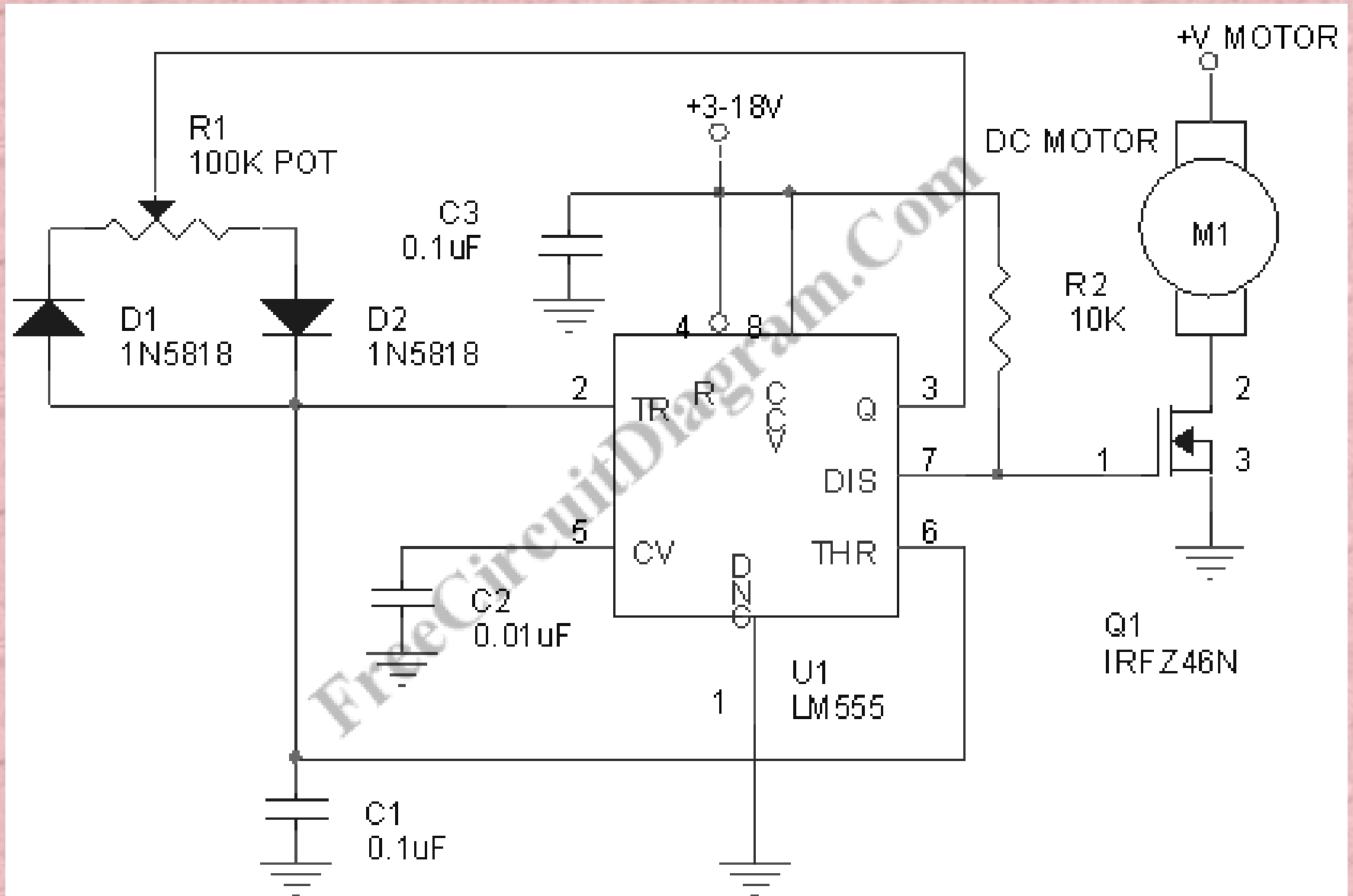
$$V_S \approx -\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right) \cdot V_{IN}$$

$$i_M \approx -\left(\frac{R_2}{R_S \cdot R_1}\right) \cdot V_{IN}$$

$$i_{MAX} < \frac{V}{R_M + R_S}$$

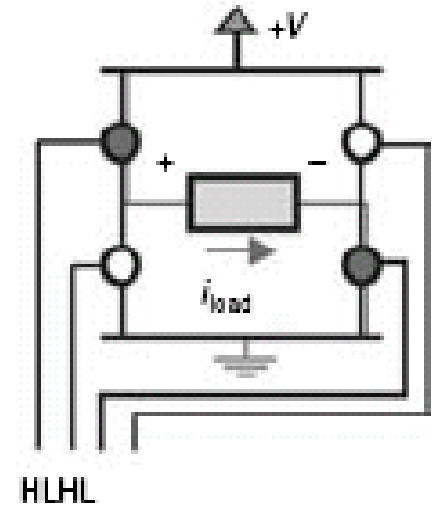
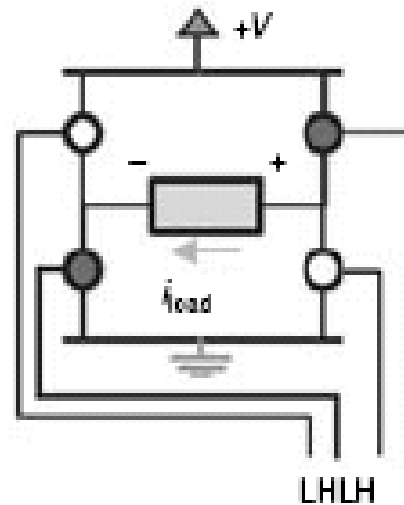
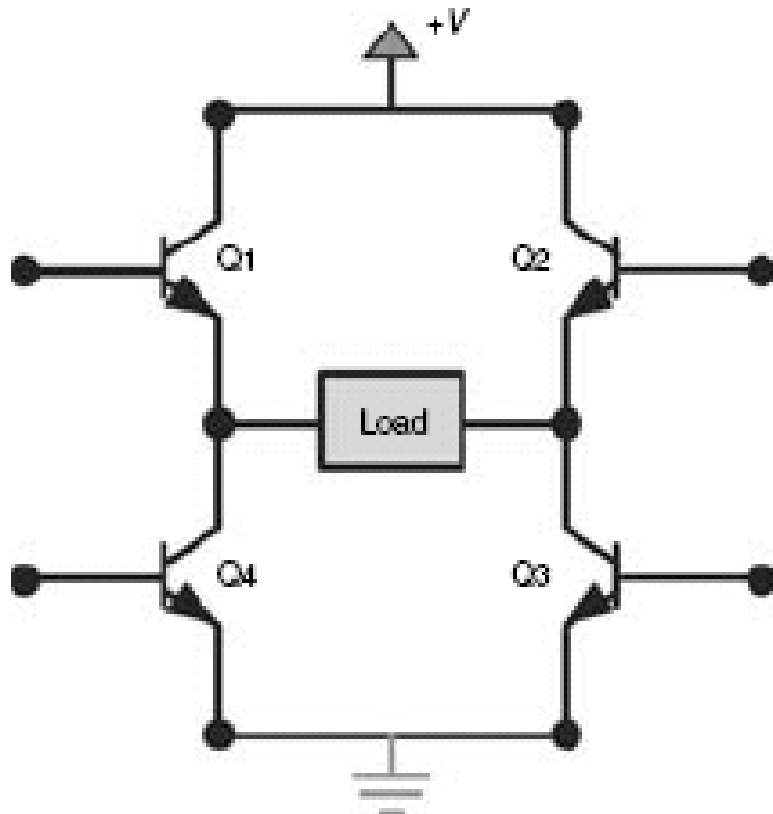
Bipolar variable gain current-mode amplifier.

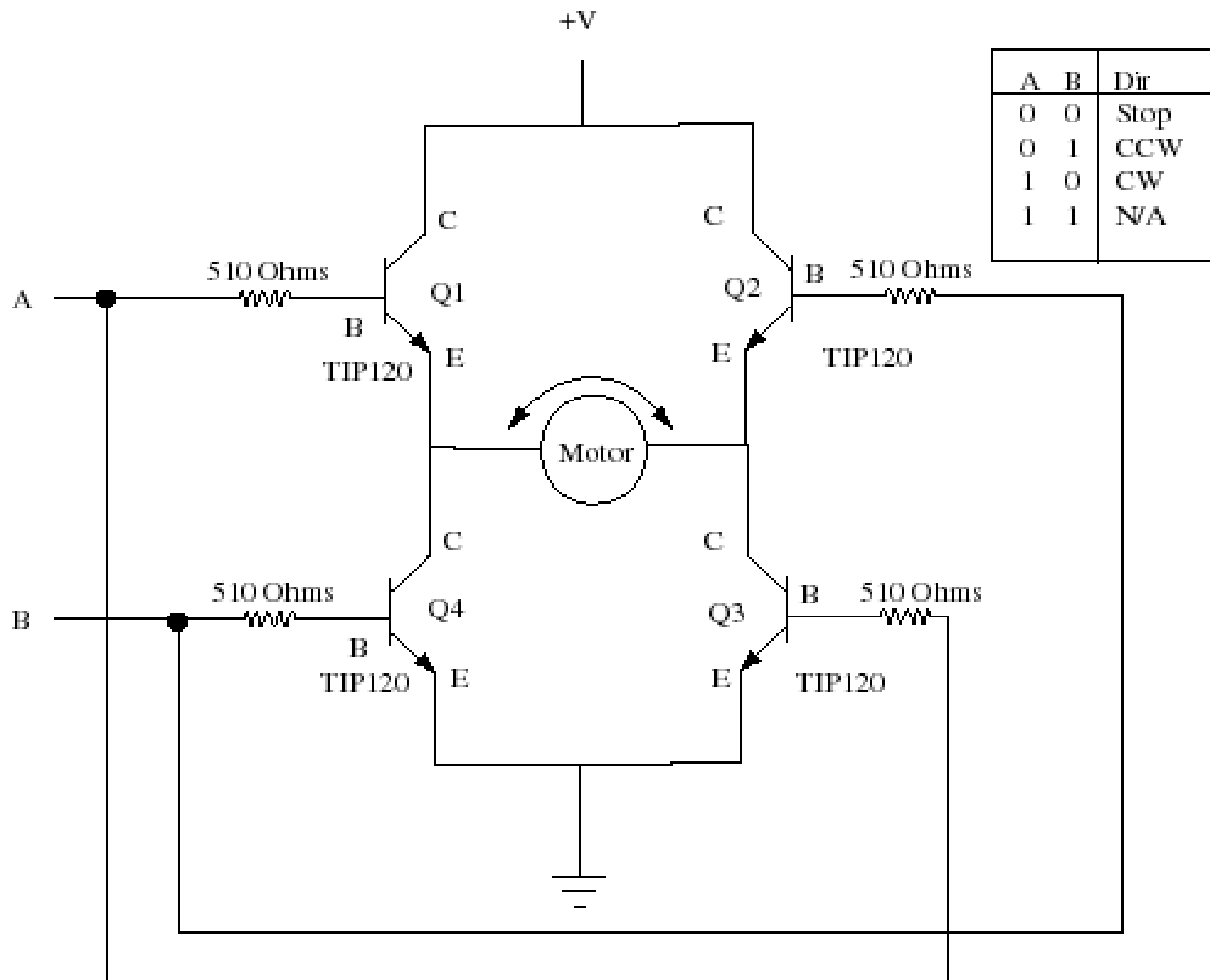
Điều khiển tốc độ động cơ bằng phương pháp điều chế độ rộng xung



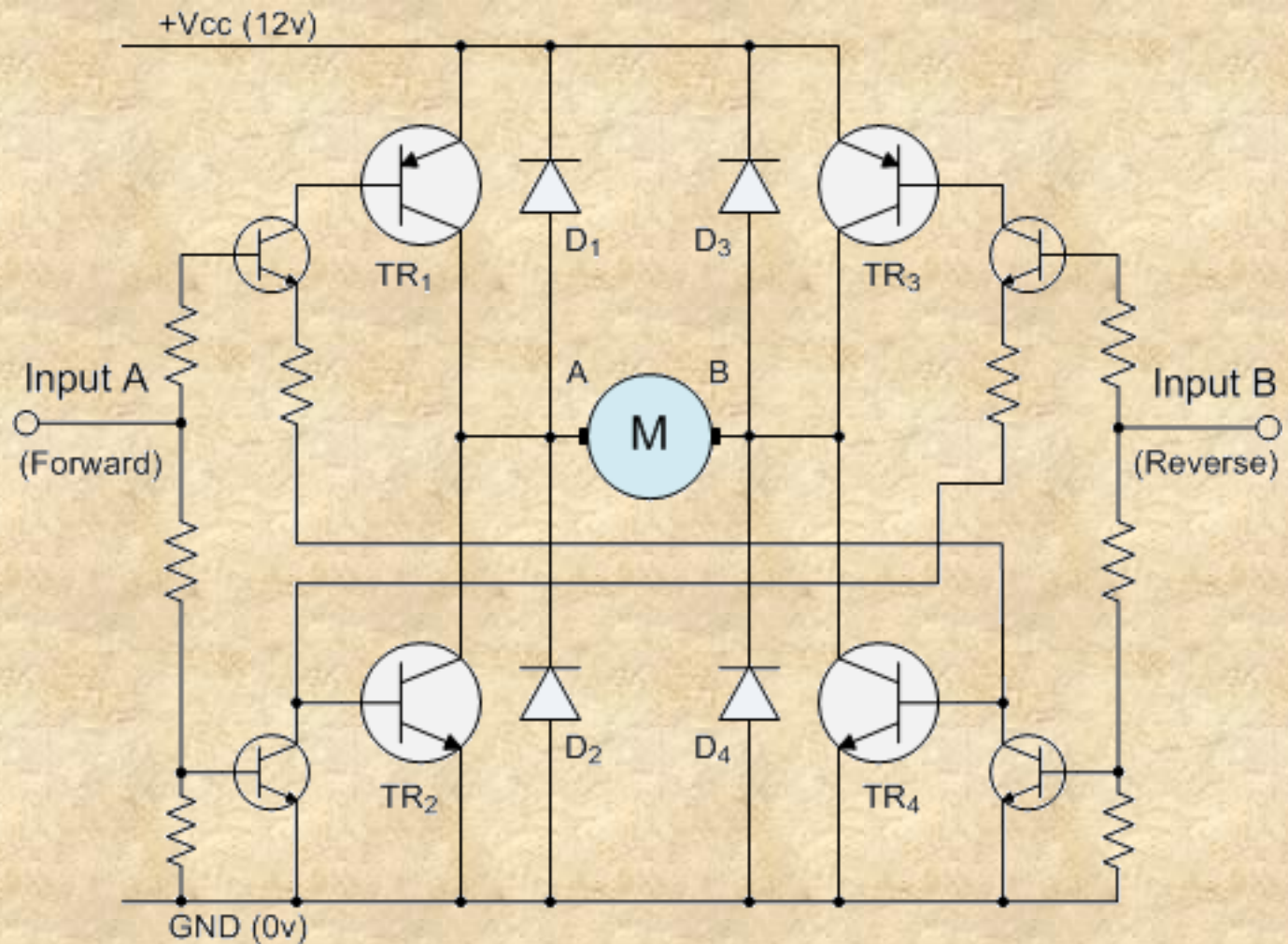
H-bridge driver.

An H bridge is an [electronic circuit](#) which enables a voltage to be applied across a load in either direction. These circuits are often used in [robotics](#) and other applications to allow DC motors to run forwards and backwards. H bridges are available as [integrated circuits](#), or can be built from [discrete components](#)

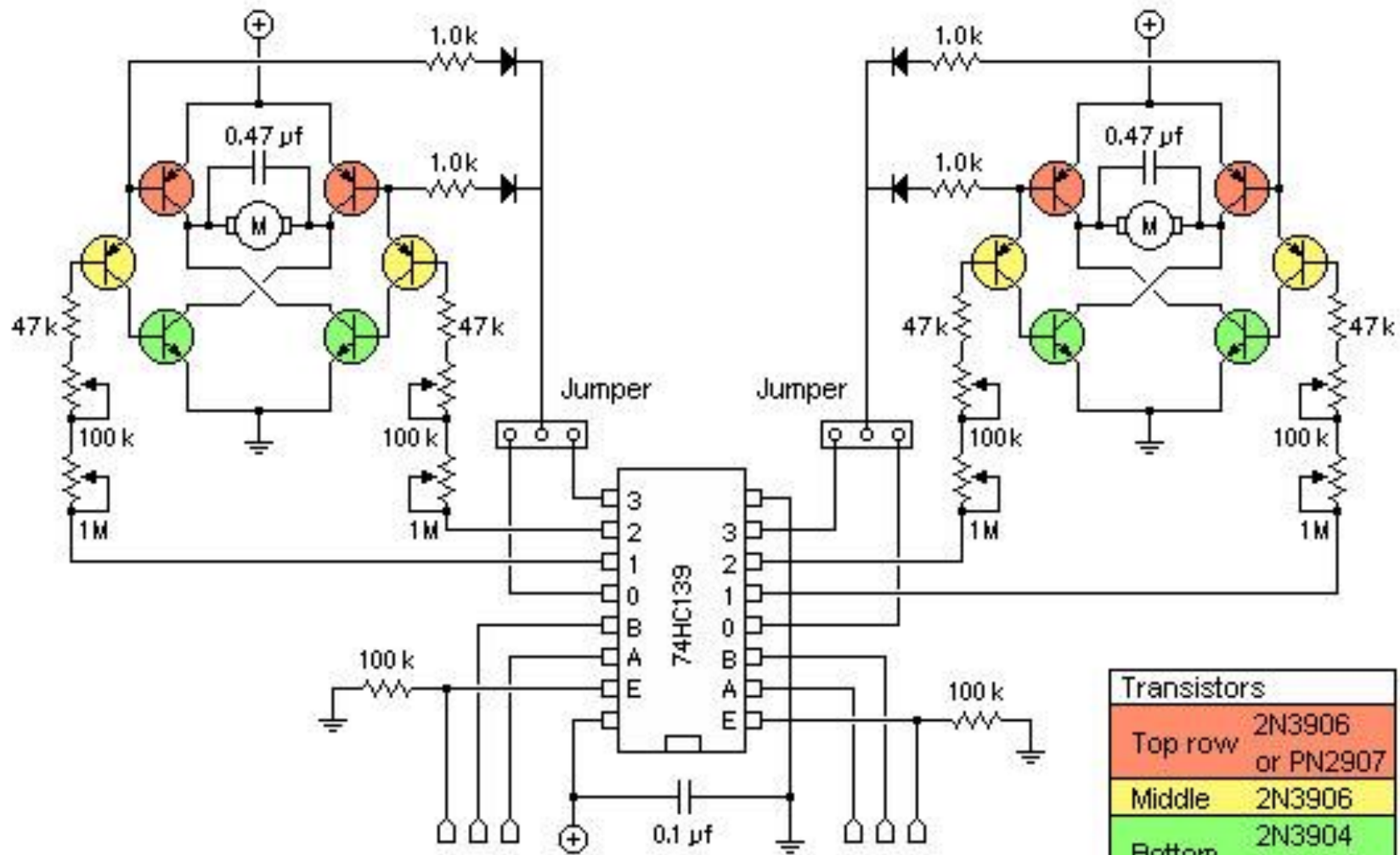




Basic Bi-directional H-bridge Circuit



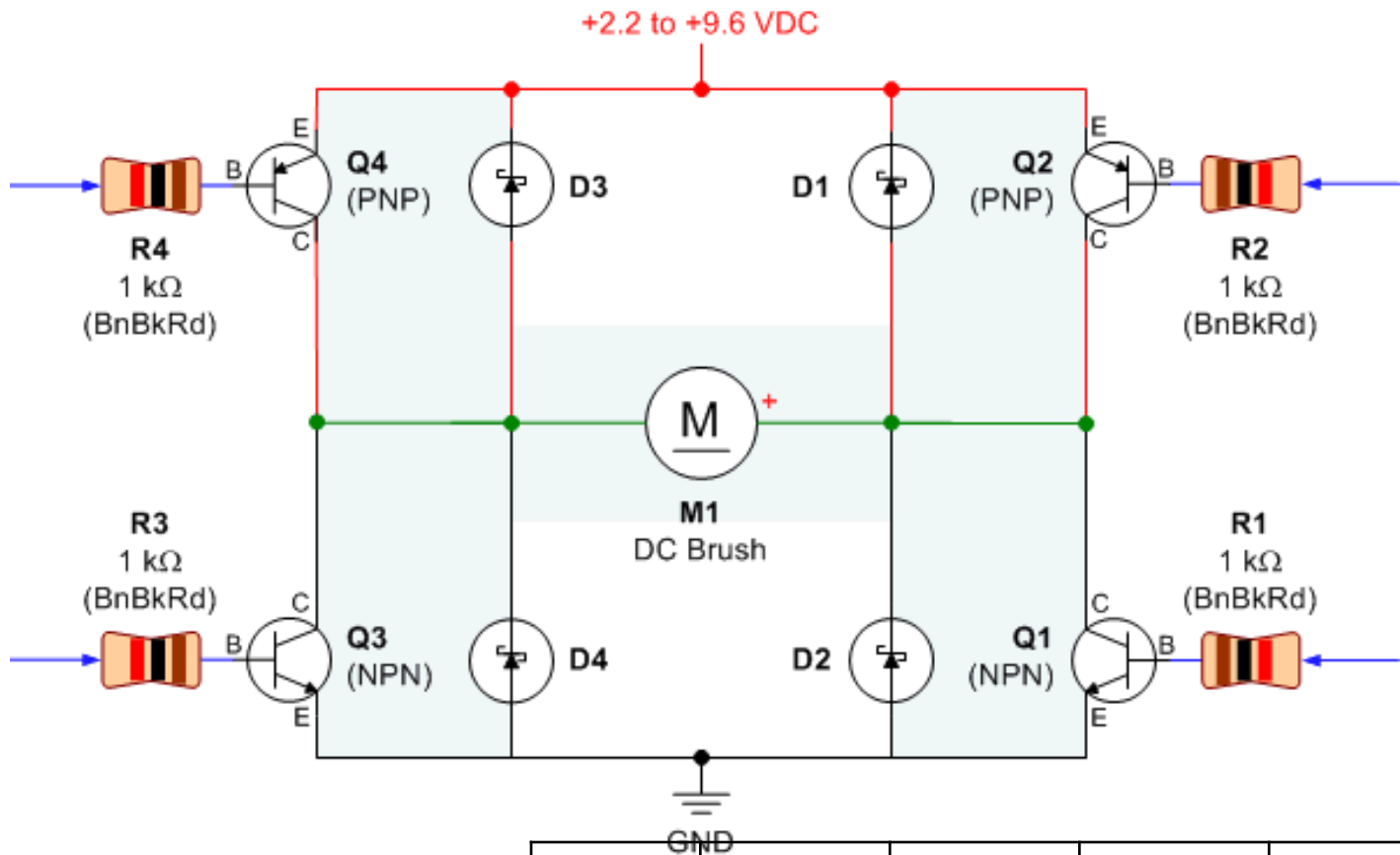
Control the speed of a DC motor with a single transistor has main disadvantage, the direction of rotation is always the same, its a "**Uni-directional**" circuit. In many applications we need to operate the motor in both directions forward and back. One very good way of achieving this is to connect the motor into a "**Transistor H-bridge**" circuit arrangement and this type of circuit will give us "**Bi-directional**" DC motor control



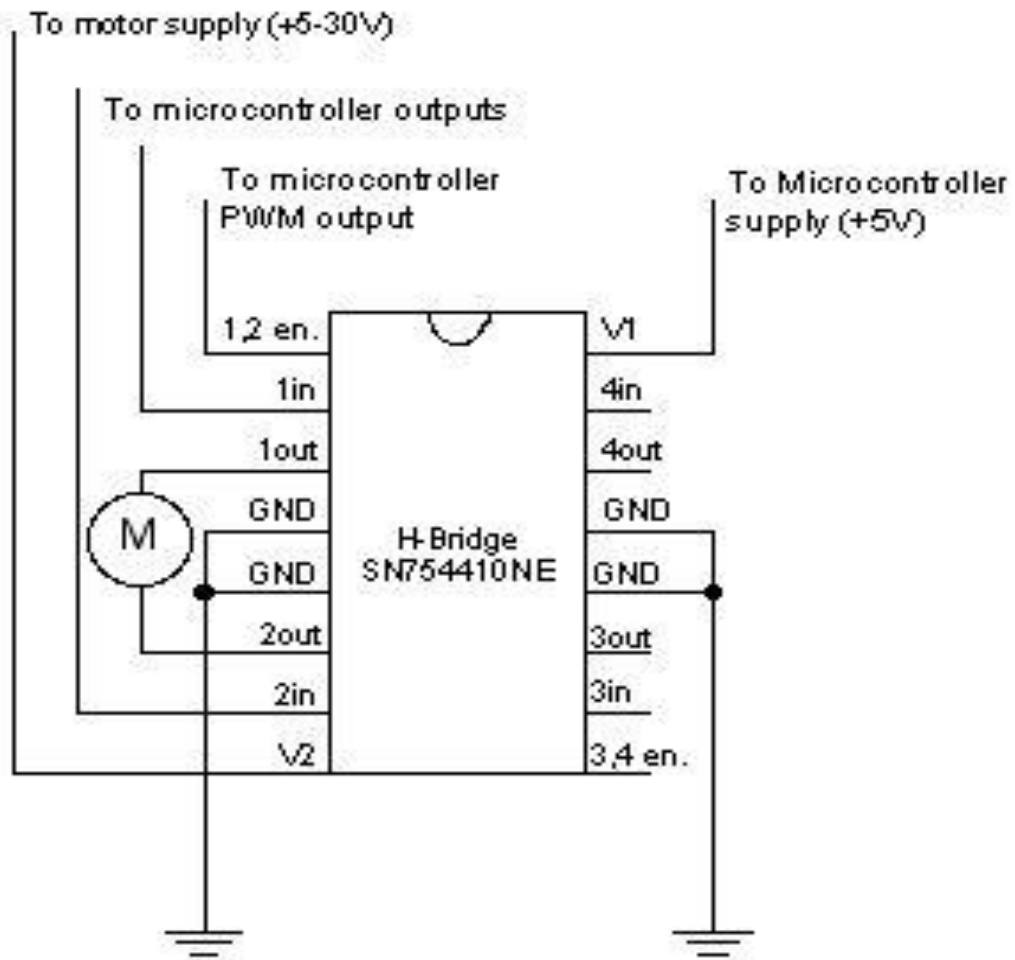
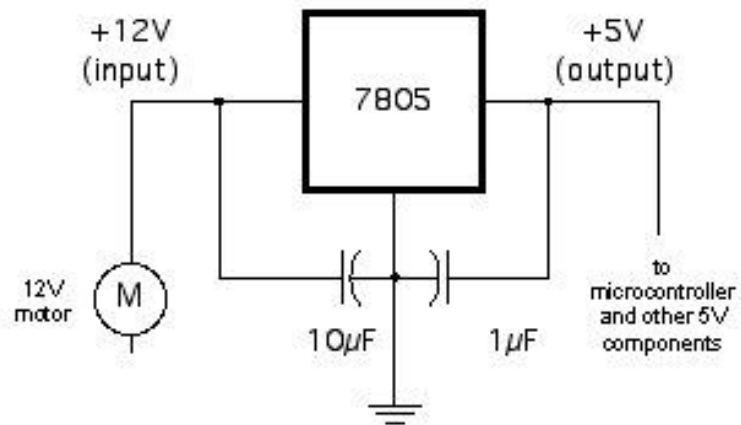
Dual non-shorting H-bridge with brake

Based on a design by Mark Tilden with modifications suggested by Wilf Rigter.

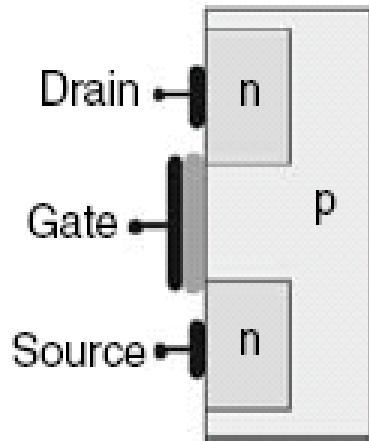
© 2000 Bruce N Robinson



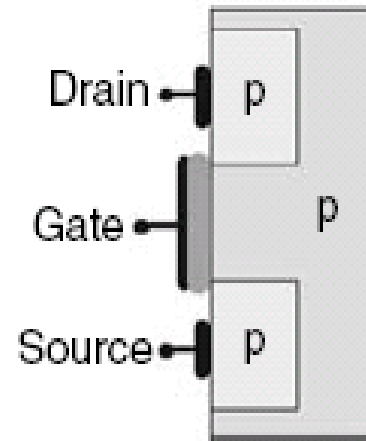
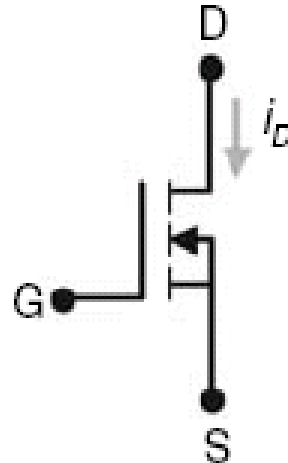
Command	R1	R2	R3	R4
Coast/Reverse/Off:	GND or disconnected	+VDC or disconnected	GND or disconnected	+VDC or disconnected
Forward:	GND or disconnected	GND	+VDC	+VDC or disconnected
Reverse:	+VDC	+VDC or disconnected	GND or disconnected	GND
Brake/Slow Down:	+VDC	+VDC or disconnected	+VDC	+VDC or disconnected



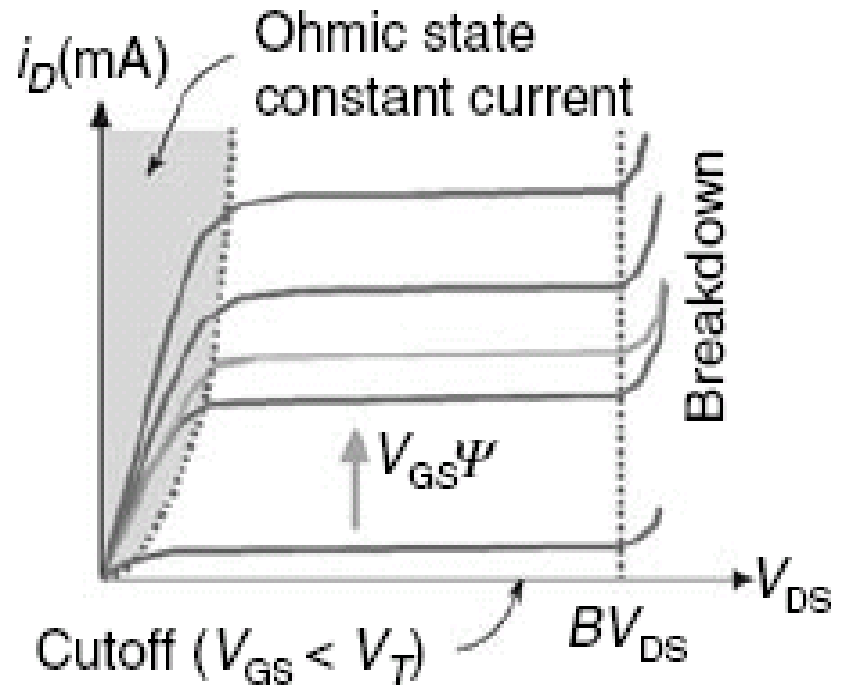
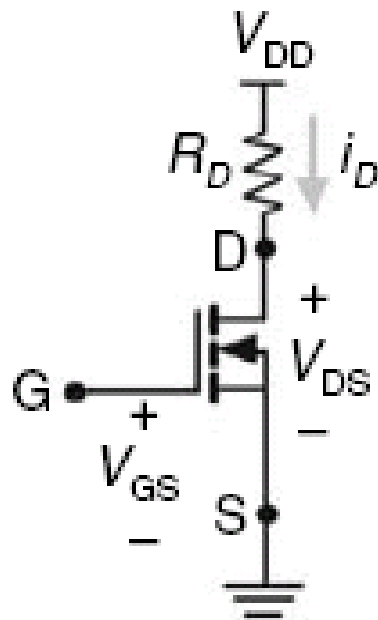
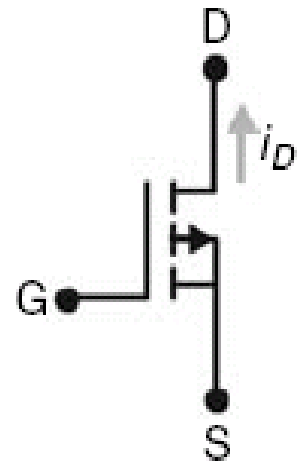
MOSFET transistor



n-channel MOSFET



p-channel MOSFET



1. *Cutoff*—When the potential across the gate and the substrate (source) V_{GS} is less than the turn-on (threshold) voltage V_T , the MOSFET is in the *cutoff* region and there is negligible current flow through the drain (D) terminal, i.e.,

$$\begin{cases} V_{GS} < V_T \\ i_G = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} i_D \approx 0 \\ V_{DS} \approx V_{DD} \end{cases}$$

Typically, $V_T \approx 1\text{--}2$ V. In this mode, the transistor from D to S can be viewed as an open connection.

2. *Active Region*—When the $V_{GS} > V_T$, the MOSFET is in the *active* region, where

$$V_{GS} > V_T \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{cases} i_D \propto (V_{GS} - V_T)^2 \\ V_{DS} > V_{GS} - V_T \end{cases}$$

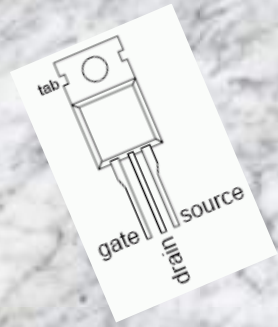
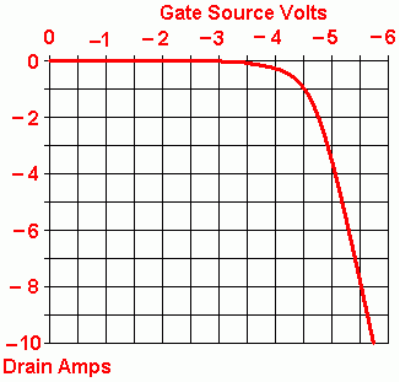
In this mode, the transistor can be viewed as a voltage-controlled current amplifier, where the drain current i_C is proportional to square of the difference between the gate-source voltage and the threshold voltage. The drain current is controlled by the gate-source voltage V_{GS} . The power dissipation across the transistor P_{FET} is

$$P_{FET} = i_D \cdot V_{DS}$$

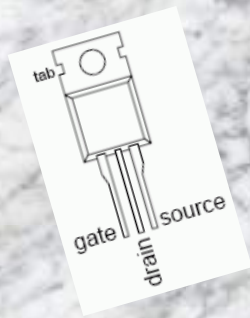
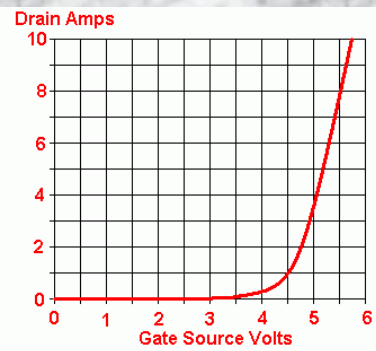
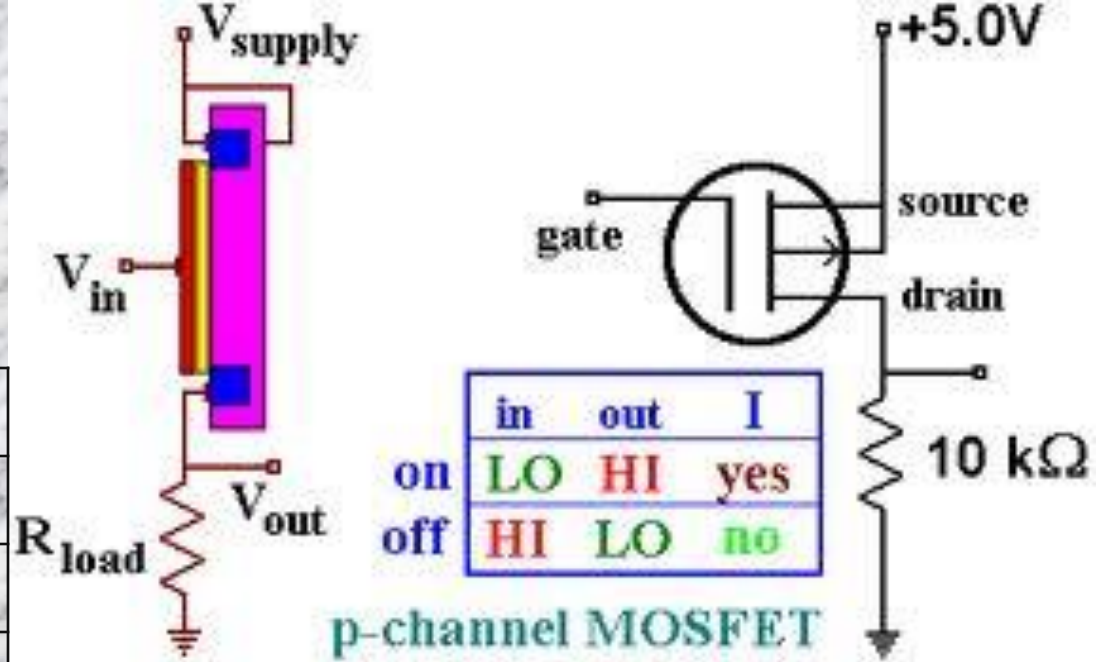
3. *Ohmic State*—When V_{GS} is large enough so that the drain current is determined by the drain source circuit, the MOSFET is in *saturation* and

$$V_{GS} \gg V_T \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{cases} i_D = V_{DD}/R_D \\ V_{DS} \approx i_D \cdot R_{ON}(V_{DS}) < V_{GS} - V_T \end{cases} \quad (21.14)$$

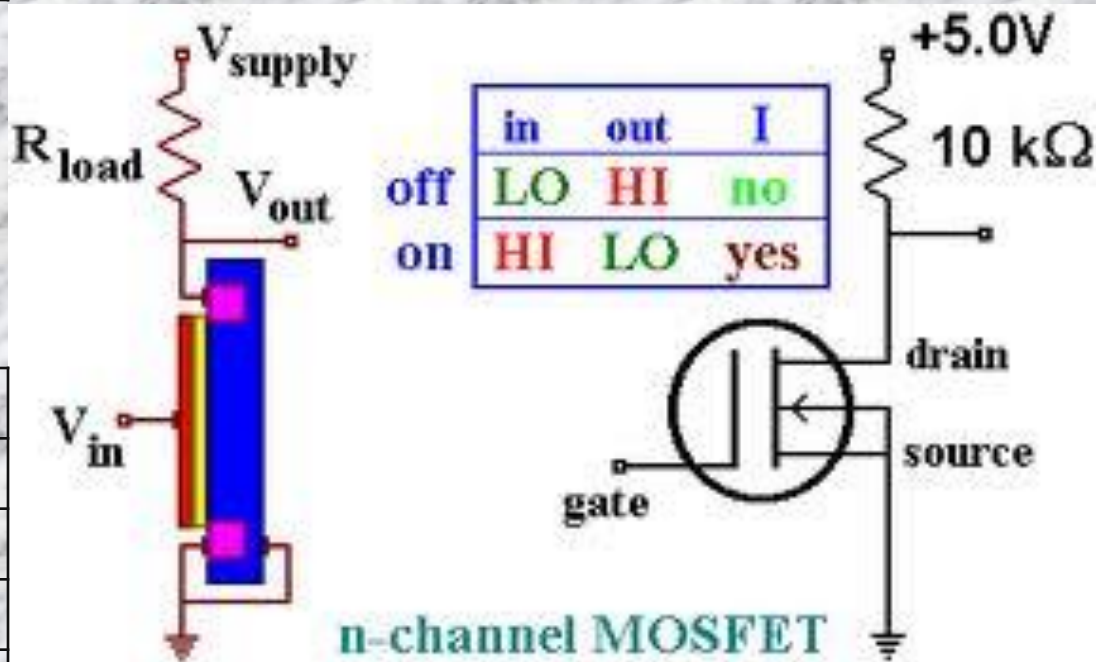
In this mode, the transistor can be viewed as a closed switch between the terminals D and S with a voltage controlled resistance R_{ON} . The drain current i_D is controlled (determined) by the drain circuit. At rate current, the V_{DS} drop during saturation ranges from 2 to 5 V.

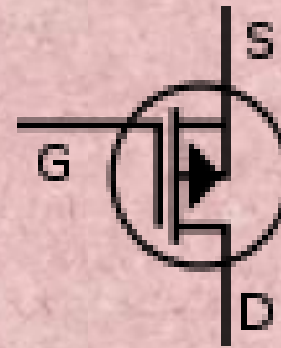


IRF 9610	P-Channel	2A,20W
IRF 9620	P-Channel	3A,40W
IRF 9630	P-Channel	6A,74W
IRF 9640	P-Channel	11A,125W

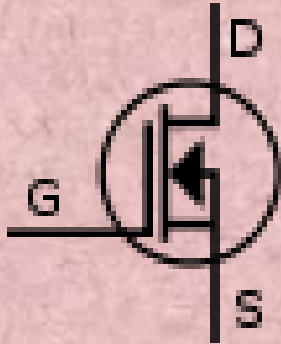
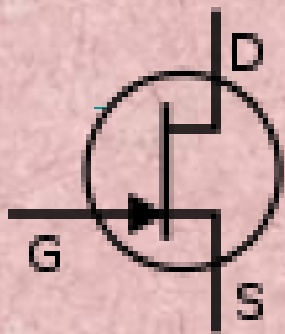


IRFI 510G	N-Channel	4A,27W
IRFI 520G	N-Channel	7A,37W
IRFI 530G	N-Channel	10A,42W
IRFI 540G	N-Channel	17A,48W
IRFI 620G	N-Channel	4A,30W





P-channel



N-channel

JFET

IGFET enh

IGFET dep



1. Bố trí các chân: chân G ở bên trái, chân S ở bên phải còn chân D ở giữa

2. Kiểm tra Mosfet bằng đồng hồ vạn năng

*** Kiểm tra Mosfet: ở trạng thái còn tốt, khi đo trở kháng giữa G với S và giữa G với D có điện trở bằng vô cùng (kim không lên cả hai chiều đo) và khi G đã được thoát điện thì trở kháng giữa D và S phải là vô cùng.**

Bước 1 : Chuẩn bị để thang x1KW

Bước 2 : Nạp cho G một điện tích (đề que đen vào G que đỏ vào S hoặc D)

Bước 3 : Sau khi nạp cho G một điện tích ta đo giữa D và S (que đen vào D que đỏ vào S) => kim sẽ lên.

Bước 4 : Chập G vào D hoặc G vào S để thoát điện chân G.

Bước 5 : Sau khi đã thoát điện chân G đo lại DS như bước 3 kim không lên.

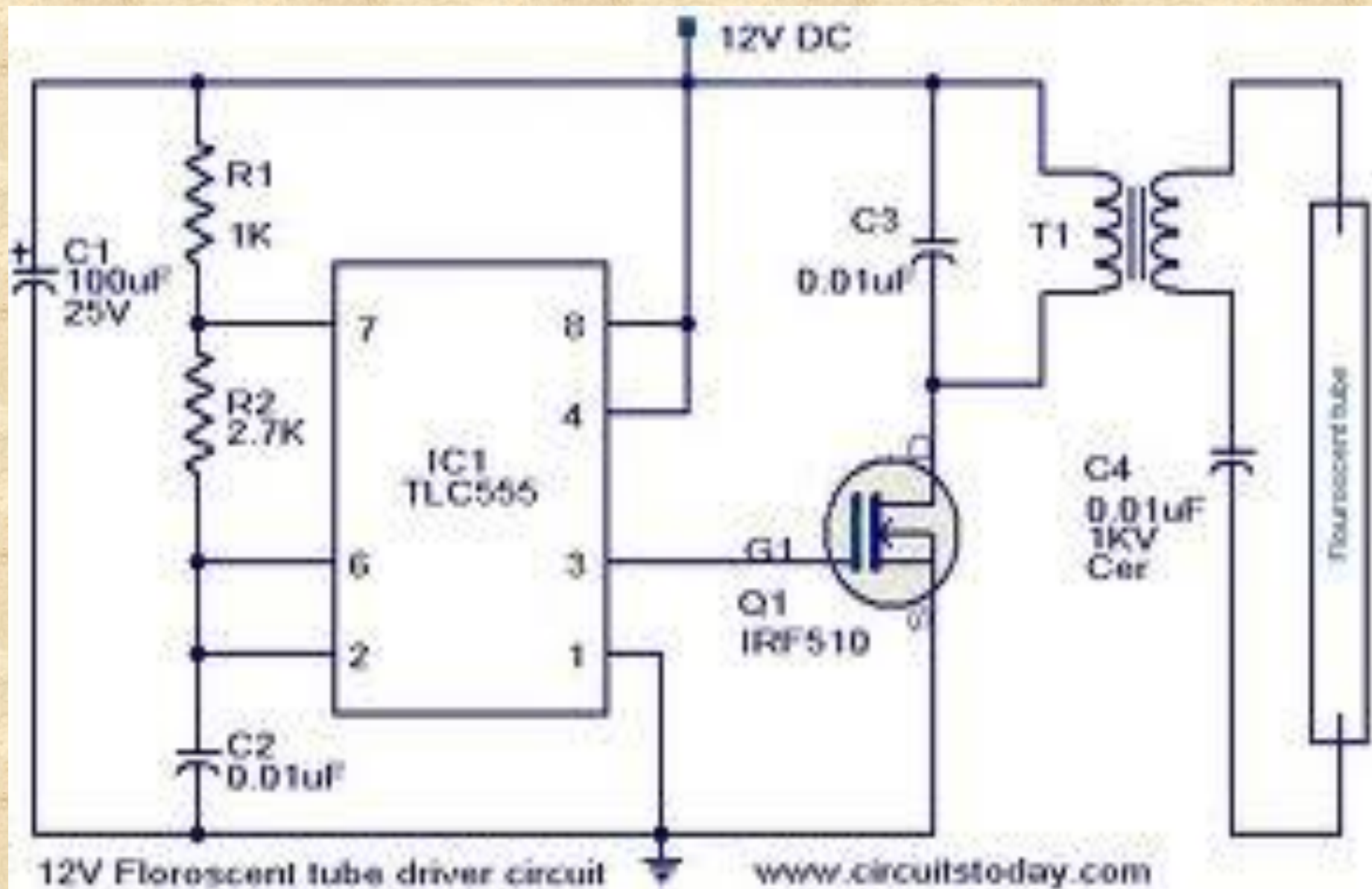
Với Mosfet hỏng khi đo giữa G và S hoặc giữa G và D nếu kim lên = 0 W là chập, đo giữa D và S mà cả hai chiều đo kim lên = 0 W là chập D S

3. Đo kiểm tra Mosfet trong mạch .

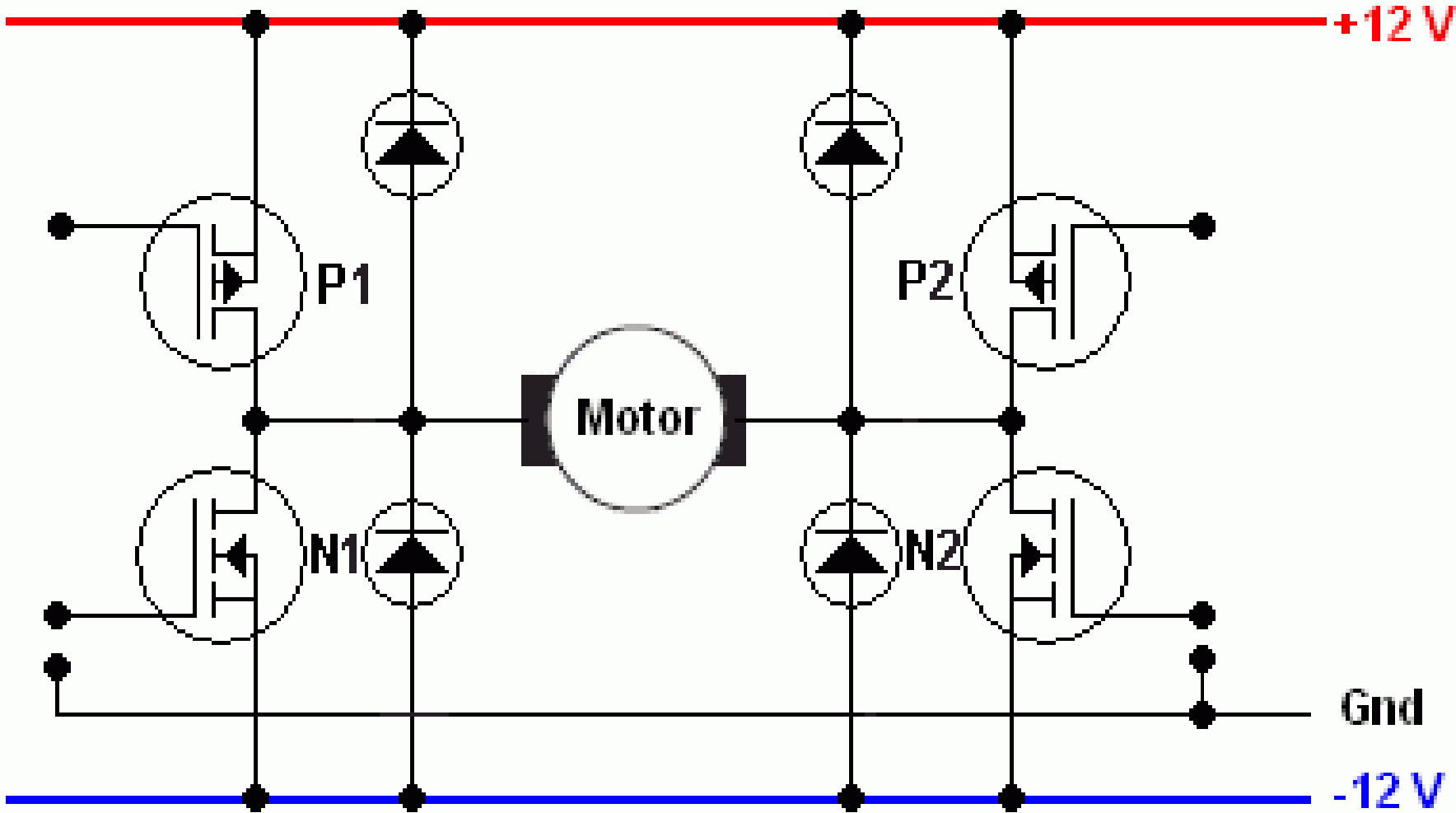
Khi kiểm tra Mosfet trong mạch, chỉ cần để thang x1W và đo giữa D và S =>

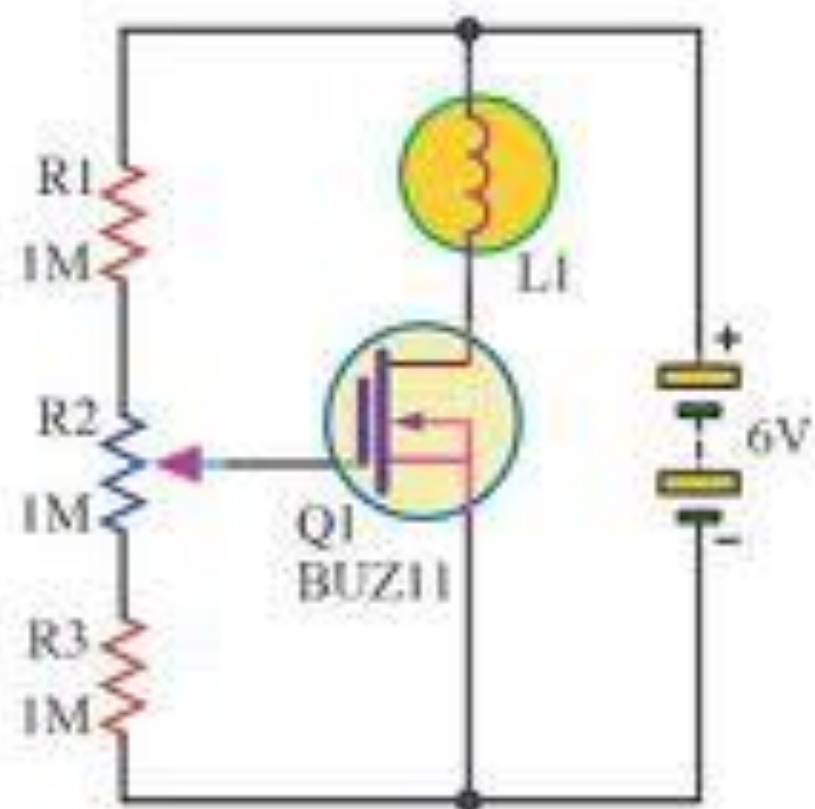
Nếu 1 chiều kim lên đảo chiều đo kim không lên => là Mosfet bình thường,

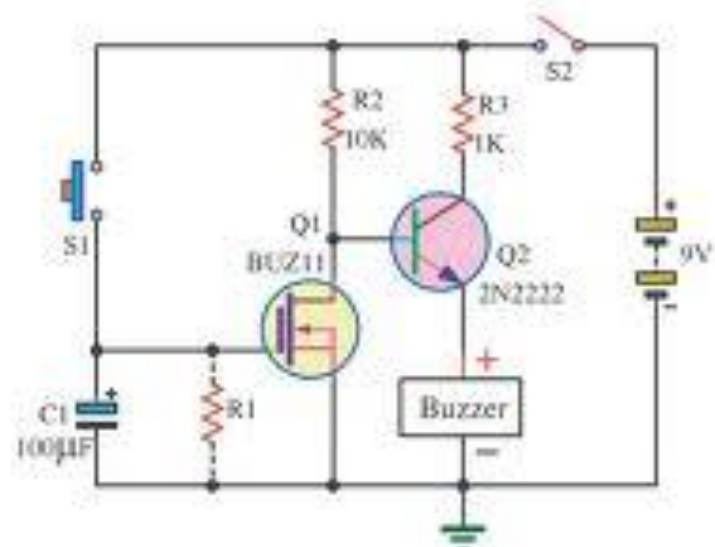
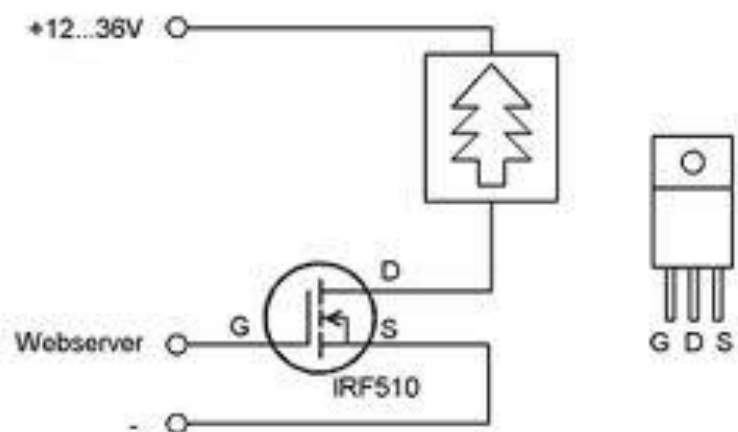
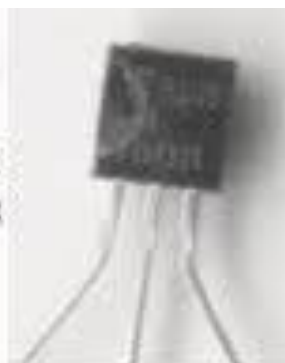
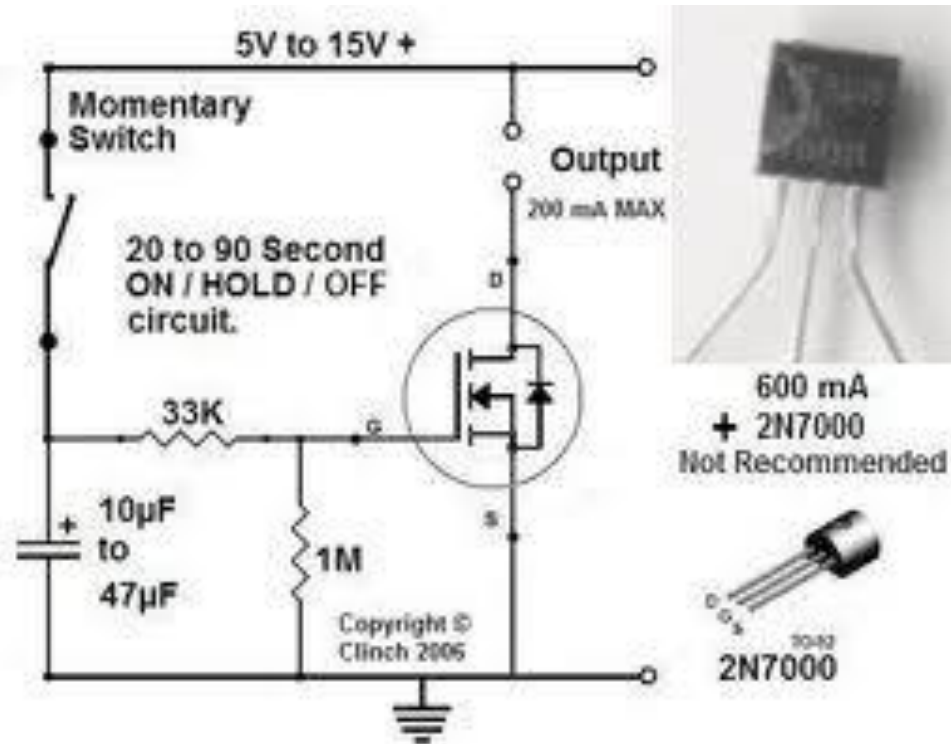
Nếu cả hai chiều kim lên = 0 W là Mosfet bị chập DS

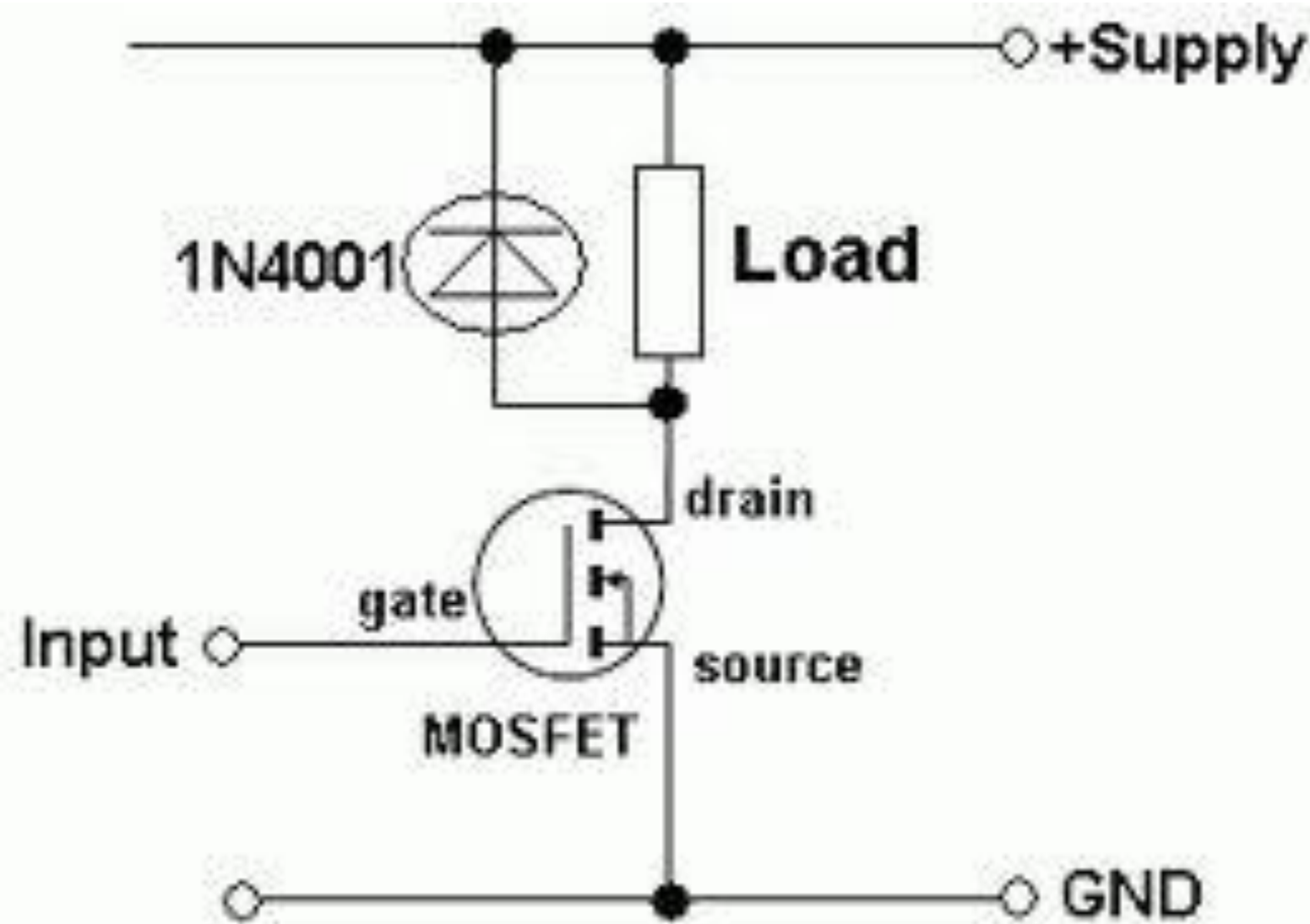


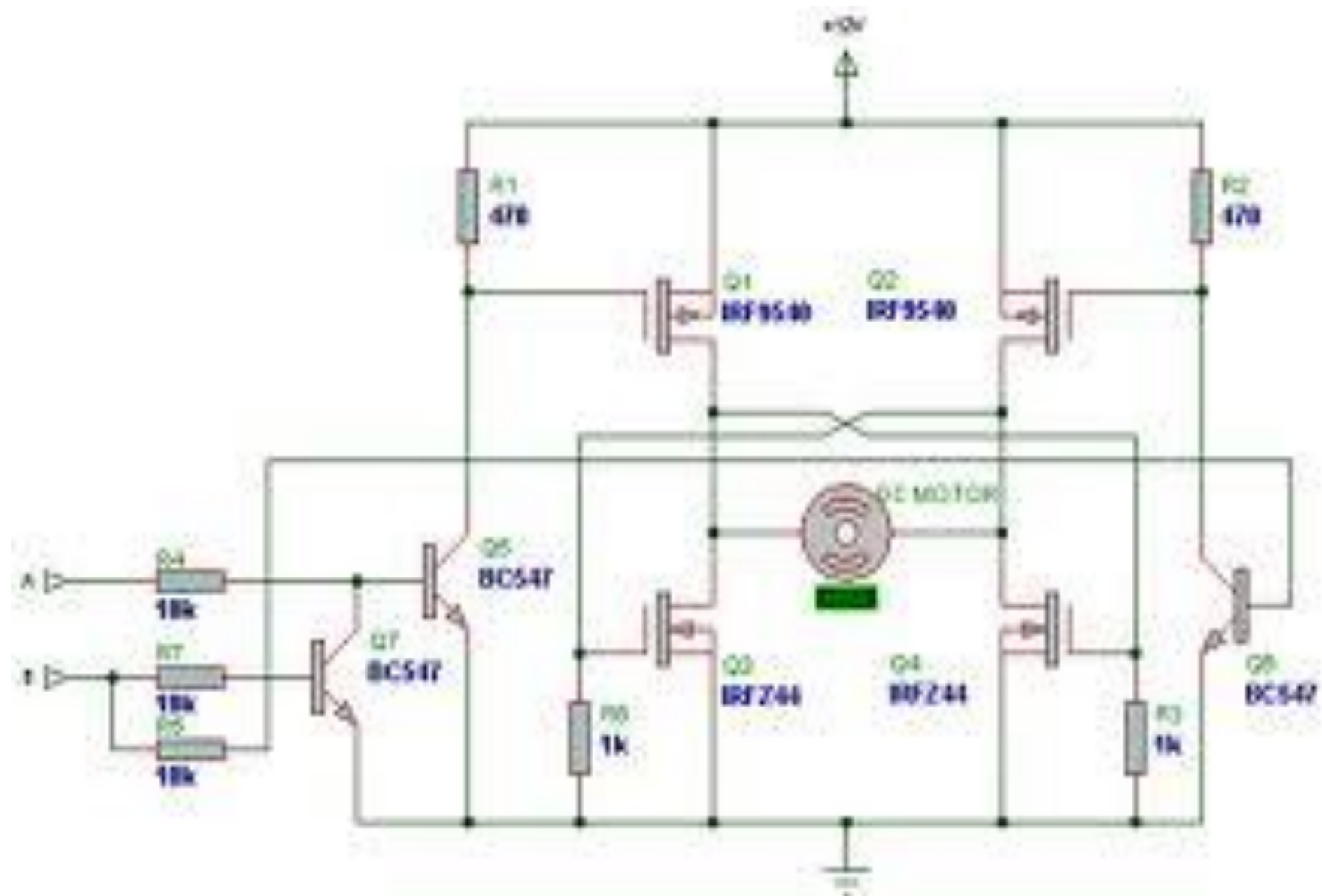
This arrangement is using MOSFETs as switches. This is called an H Bridge because of the H layout of the circuit. It's possible to buy H Bridge controller chips. These make motor control easier. If P1 and N2 are on, the motor runs forwards. If P2 and N1 are on, the motor runs backwards. If P1 and N1 are on, both MOSFETs are destroyed by the short circuit. If P1 and P2 are on, the motor, acting as a generator, brakes to a halt.









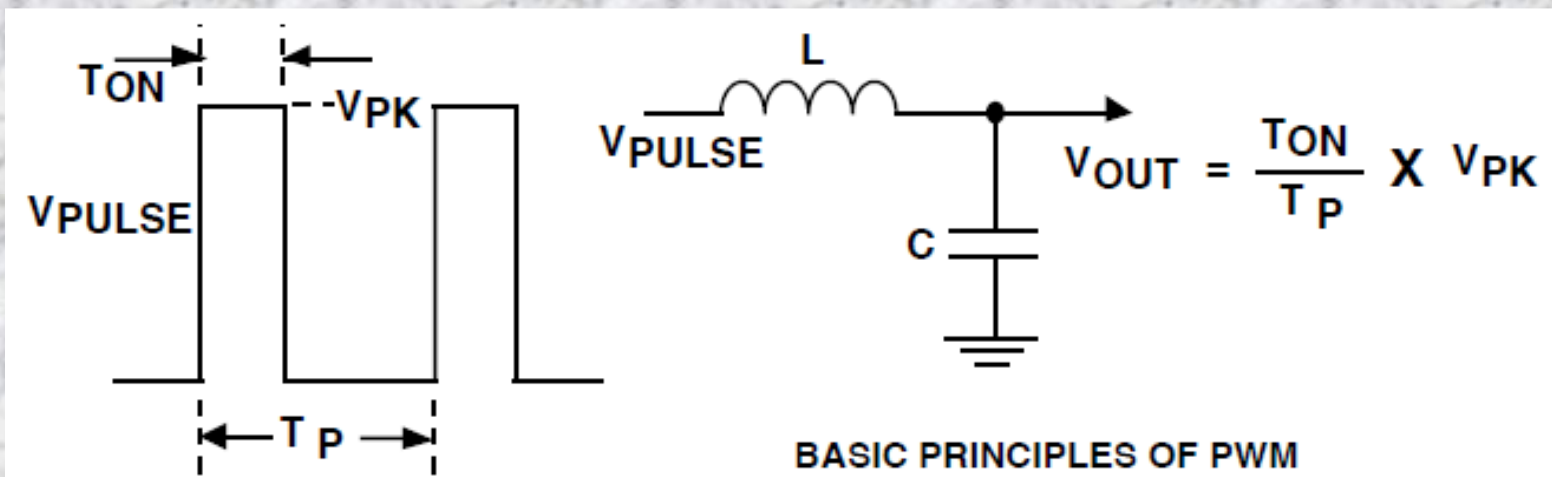


Comparing BJT with MOSFET, we can conclude the following:

- Both can be used as current amplifiers.
 - BJT is a current-controlled amplifier where the collector current i_C is proportional to the base current i_B .
 - MOSFET is a voltage-controlled amplifier where the drain current i_D is proportional to the square of the gate voltage V_G .
- Both can be used as three terminal switches or voltage inverters.
 - BJT: switching circuit give rise to TTL logics.
 - MOSFET: switching circuit give rise to CMOS logics.
- BJT usually has larger current capacity than similar sized MOSFET.
- MOSFET has much higher input impedance than BJT and is normally off, which translates to less operating power.
- MOSFETs are more easily fabricated into integrated circuit.
- MOSFETs are less prone to go into thermal runaway.
- MOSFETs are susceptible to static voltage (exceed gate breakdown voltage ~ 50 V).
- BJT has been replaced by MOSFET in low-voltage (< 500 V) applications and is being replaced by IGBT in applications at voltages above 500 V.

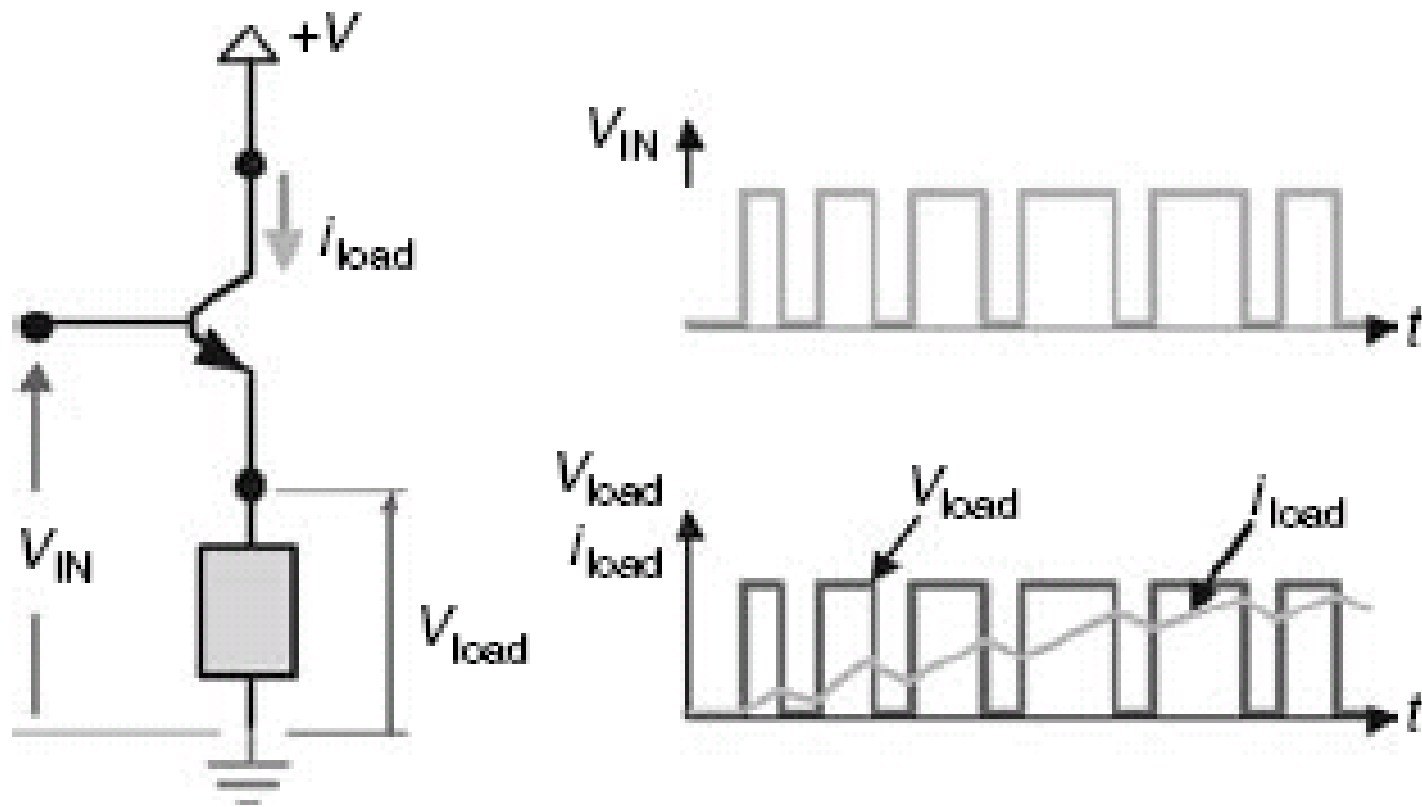
Mạch điều chế độ rộng xung (PWM)

PWM, or Pulse Width Modulation, is a method of controlling the amount of power to a load without having to dissipate any power in the load driver



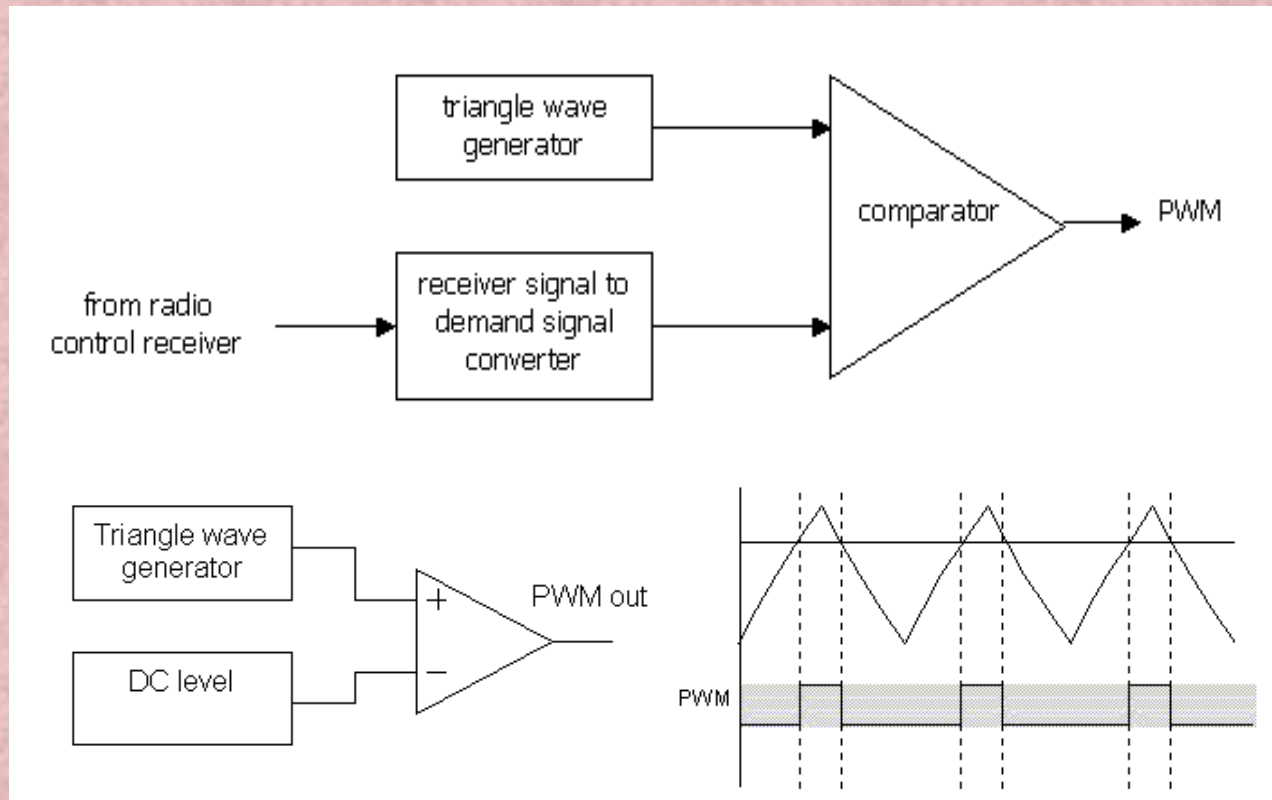
The PWM signals can be generated in a number of ways:

1. Analogue method
2. Digital method
3. Discrete IC
4. Onboard microcontroller



Simple switching amplifier with switching input.

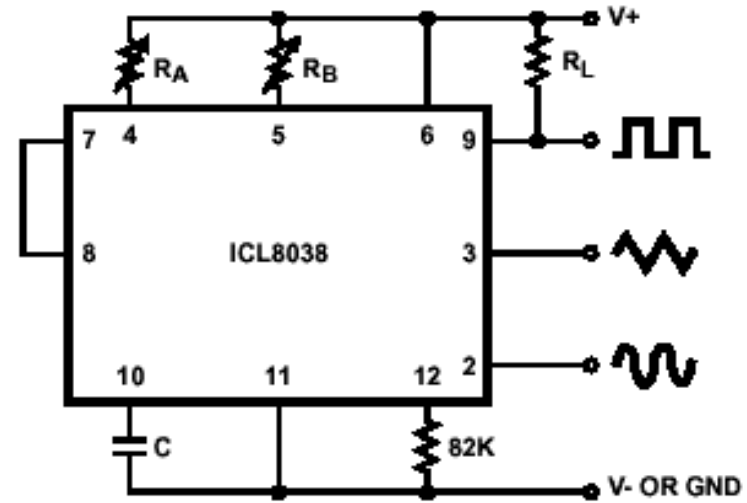
A block diagram of an analogue PWM generator



The DC signal can range between the minimum and maximum voltages of the triangle wave.

When the triangle waveform voltage is greater than the DC level, the output of the op-amp swings high, and when it is lower, the output swings low

ICs specially designed for generating triangle waves are available. Perhaps the most commonly known is the [ICL8038](#), which is quite long in the tooth now but is still perfectly adequate

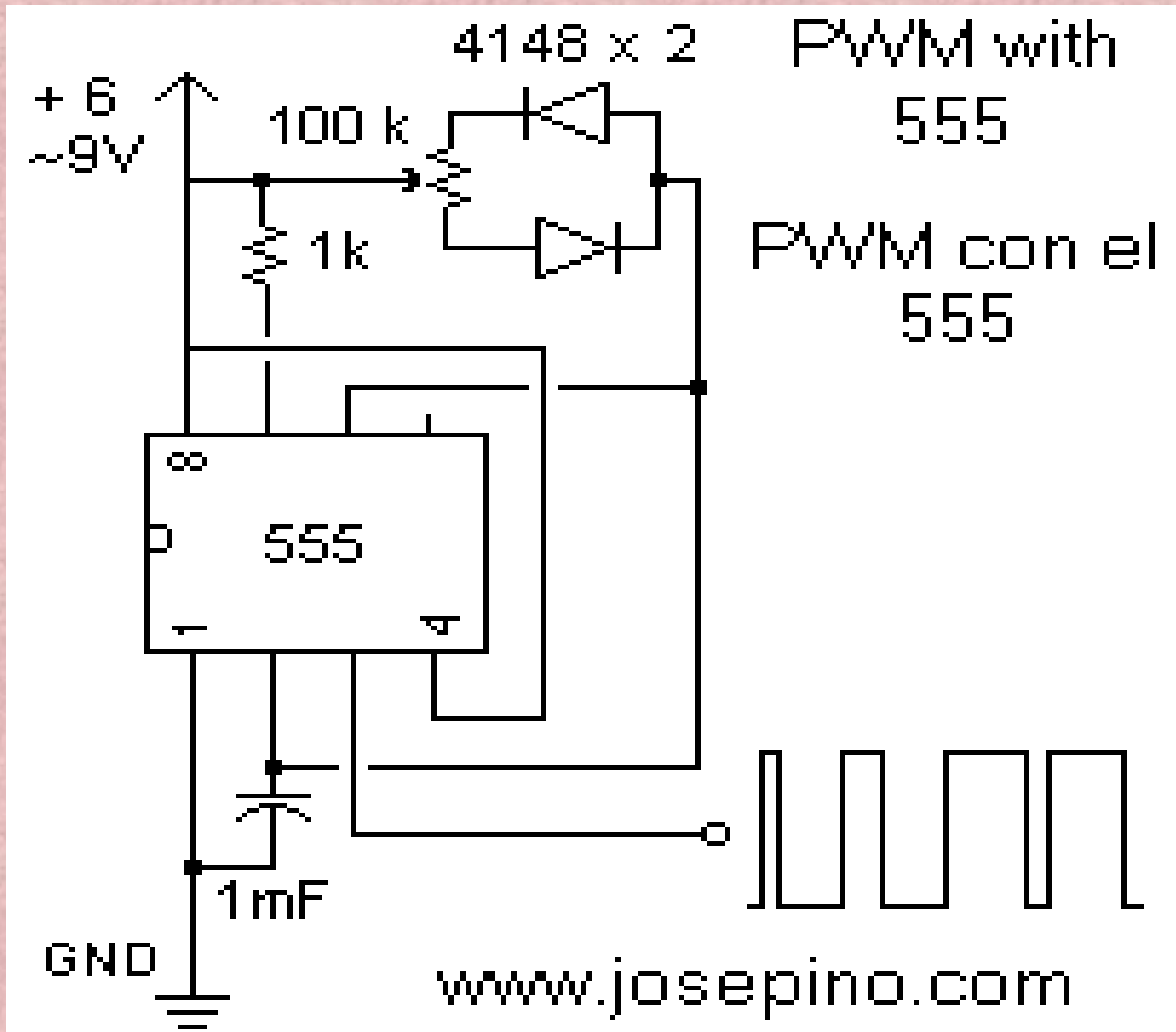


Set R_A equal to R_B for a regular triangle wave (equal rising and falling edges). The frequency of the triangle wave is then given by the equation:

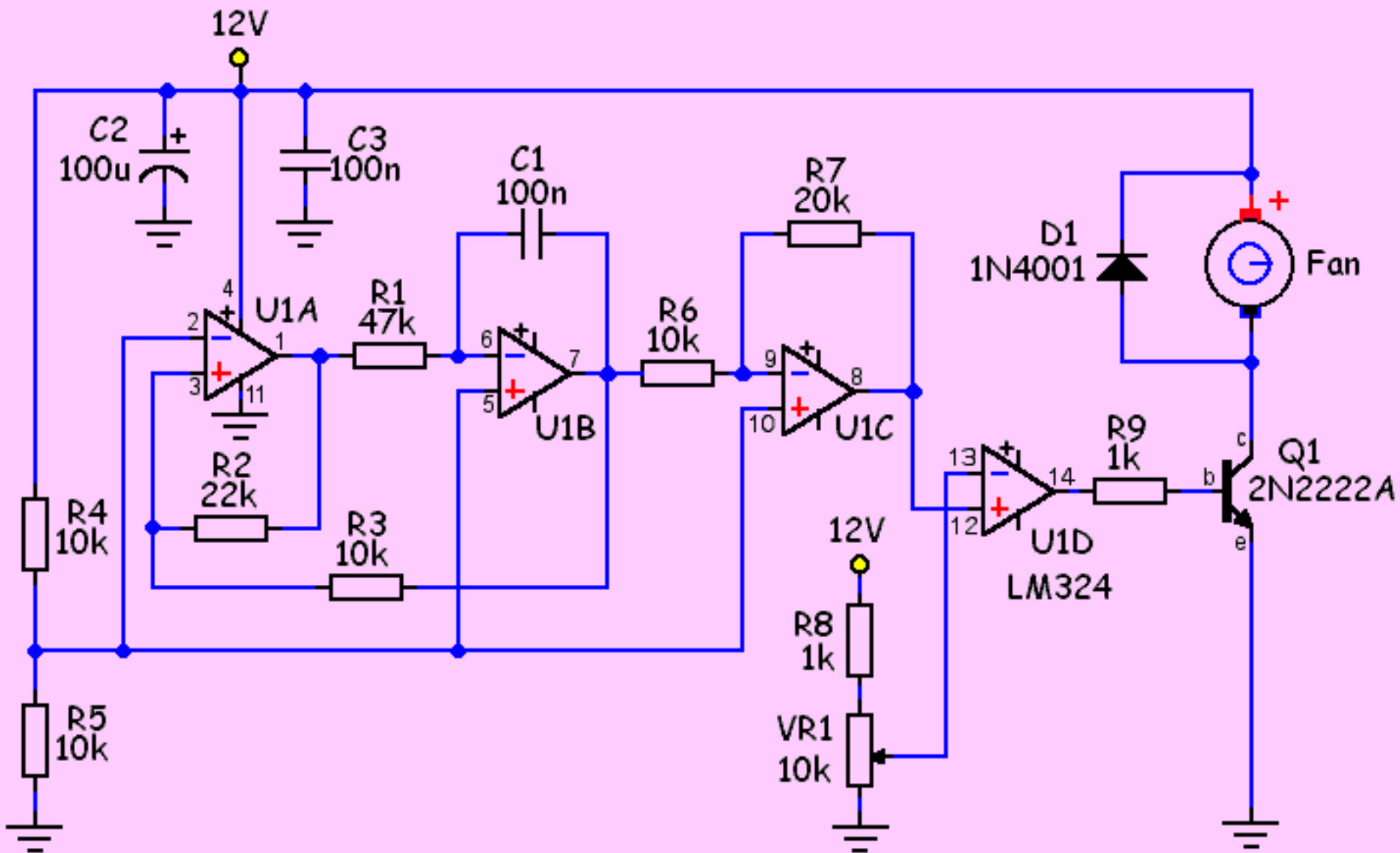
$$f = \frac{0.33}{R_A C}$$

The capacitor value should be chosen at the upper end of its possible range. The waveform generator can be operated either from a single power supply (10V to 30V) or a dual power supply (+/-5V to +/-15V). The triangle wave swings from 1/3 of the supply voltage up to 2/3 of the supply voltage, so on a +12V single supply it would swing from 4V to 8V

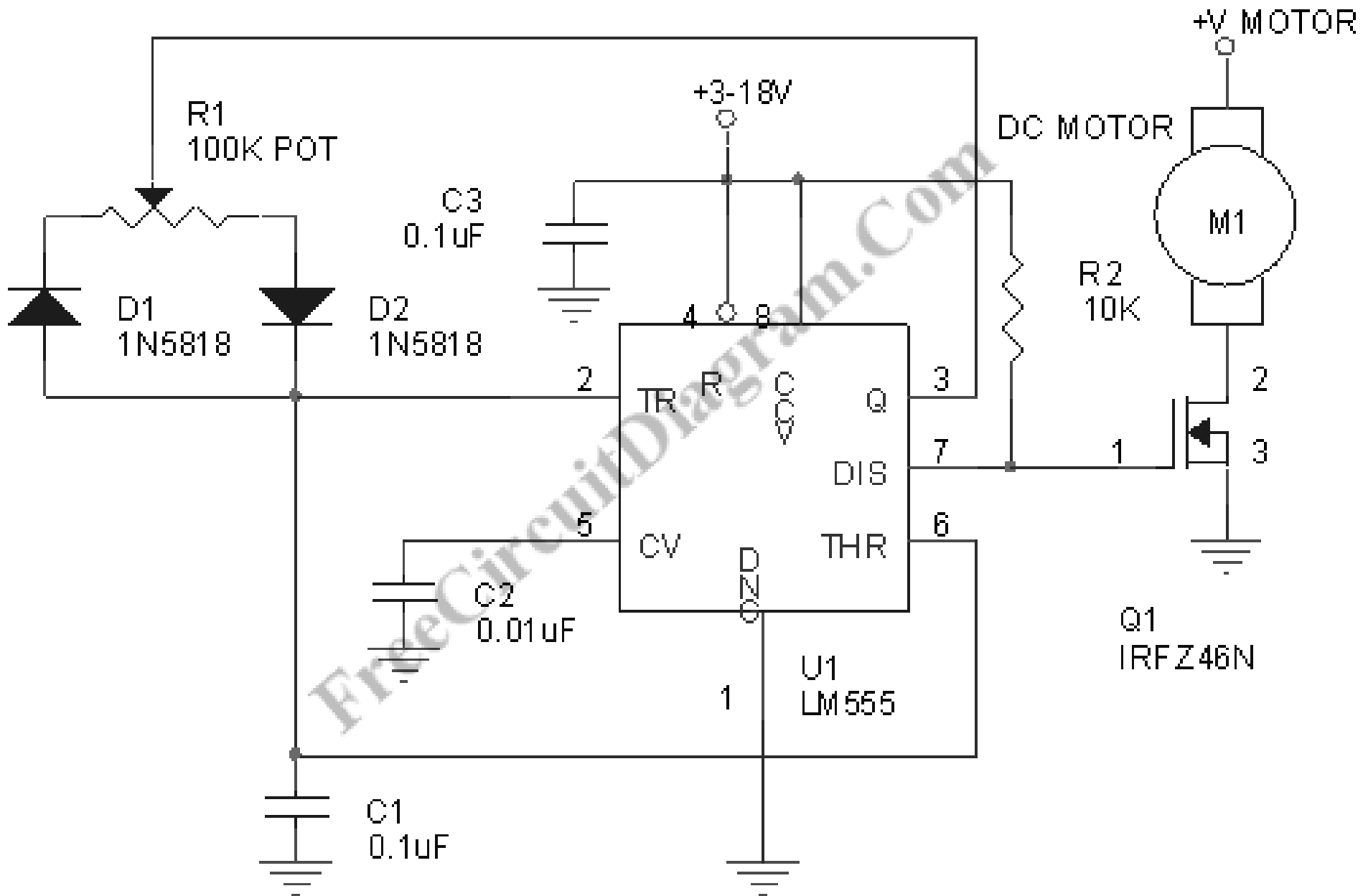
Sử dụng Timer 555 điều chế PWM



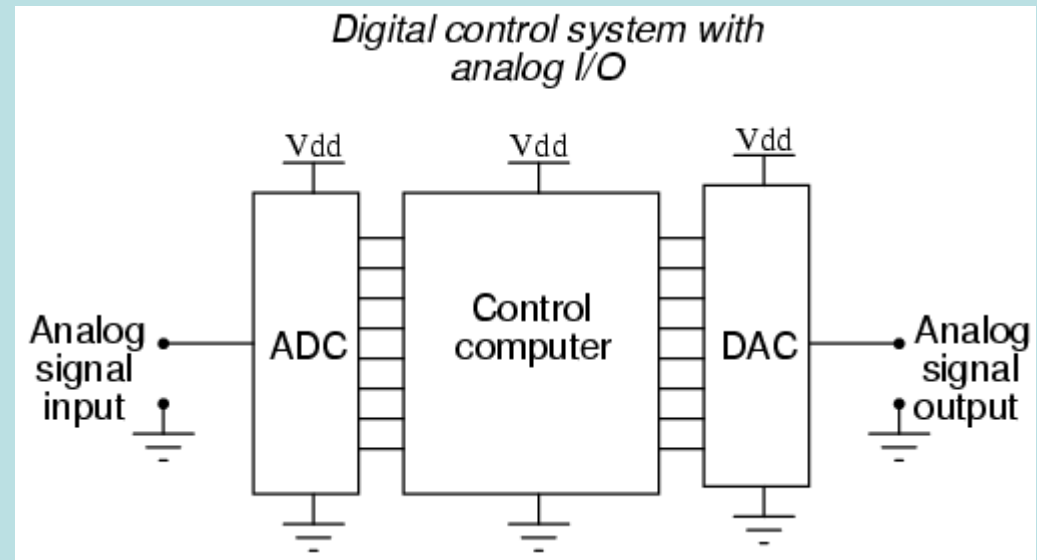
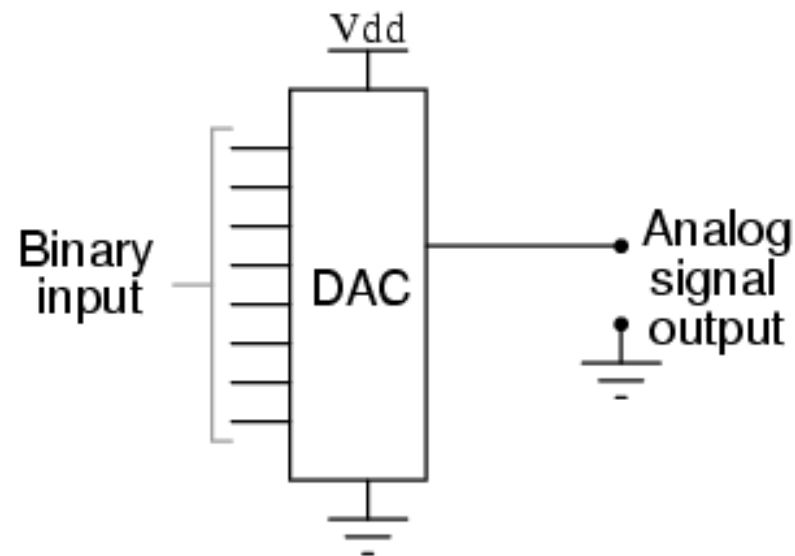
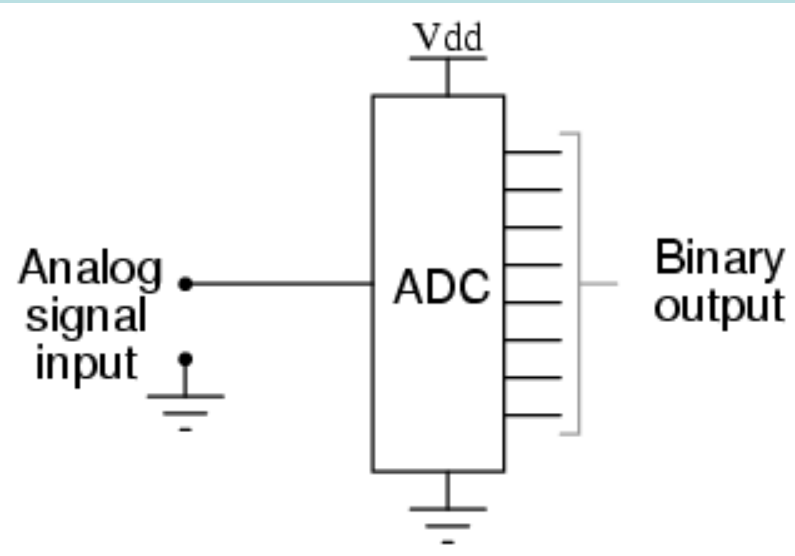
Sử dụng LM324 trong mạch PWM điều khiển động cơ



Sử dụng Timer 555 trong mạch PWM điều khiển động cơ

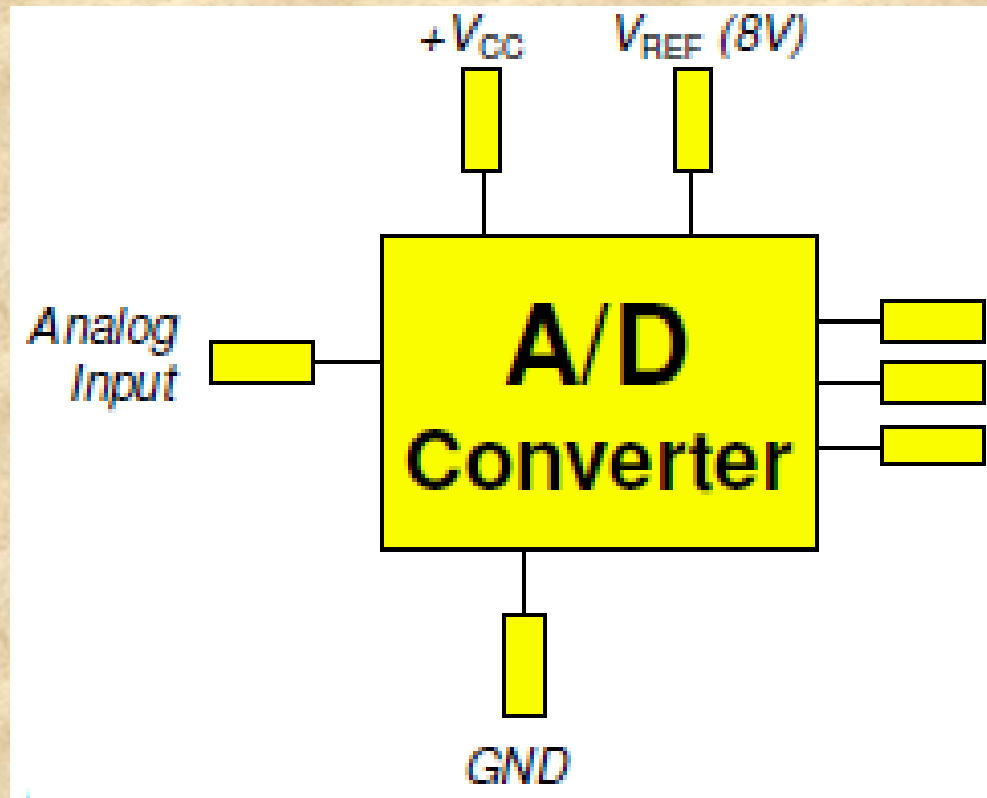


Mạch biến đổi ADC



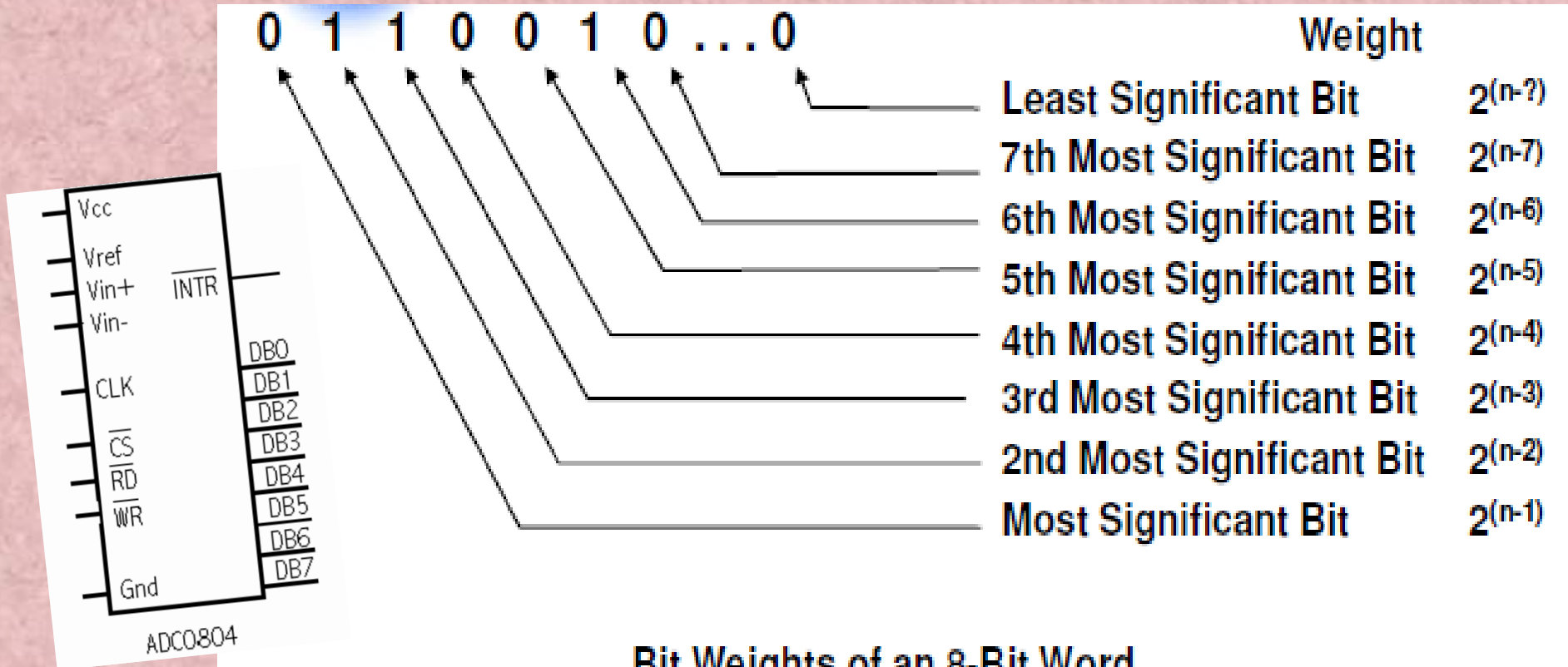
For a 3-bit ADC, there are 8 possible output codes.

- In this example, if the input voltage is 5.5V and the reference is 8V, then the output will be 101.
- More bits give better resolution and smaller steps.
- A lower reference voltage gives smaller steps, but can be at the expense of noise



$0V < 000 < 1V$
 $1V < 001 < 2V$
 $2V < 010 < 3V$
 $3V < 011 < 4V$
 $4V < 100 < 5V$
 $5V < 101 < 6V$
 $6V < 110 < 7V$
 $7V < 111 < 8V$

Least Significant Bit (LSB) and Most Significant Bit (MSB)

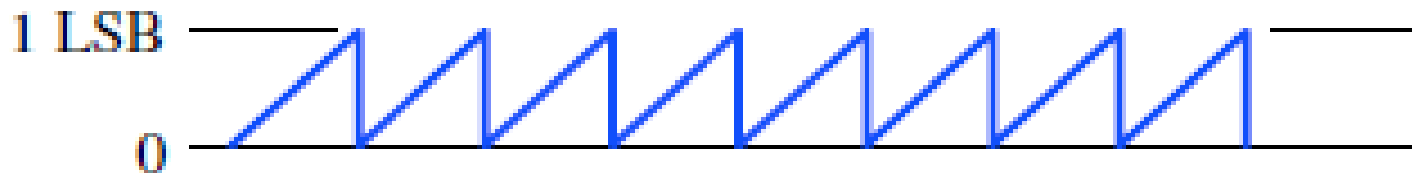
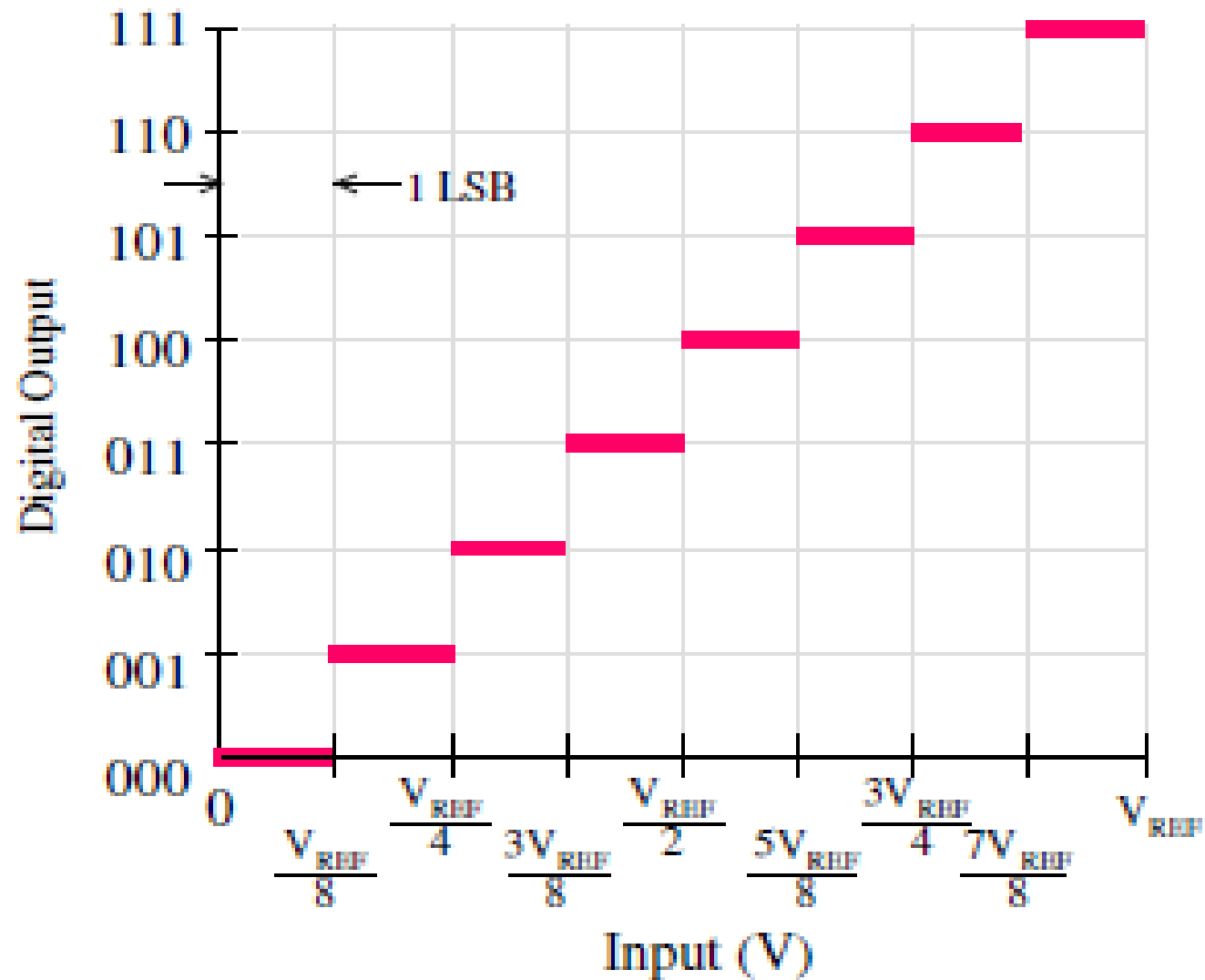


Bit Weights of an 8-Bit Word

MSB								LSB
B7	B6	B5	B4	B3	B2	B1	B0	
128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1	

The value of an LSB depends upon the ADC Reference Voltage and Resolution

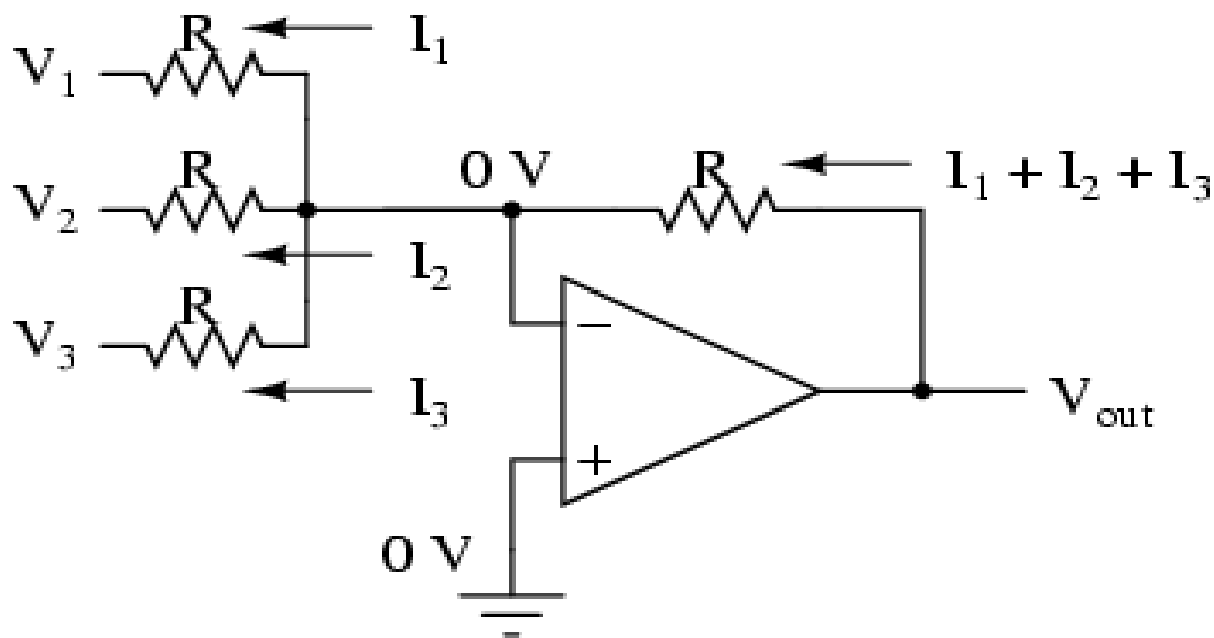
V_{REF}	Resolution	1 LSB
1.00V	8	3.9062 mV
1.00V	12	244.14 μ V
2.00V	8	7.8125 mV
2.00V	10	1.9531 mV
2.00V	12	488.28 μ V
2.048V	10	2.0000 mV
2.048V	12	500.00 μ V
4.00V	8	15.625 mV
4.00V	10	3.9062 mV
4.00V	12	976.56 μ V



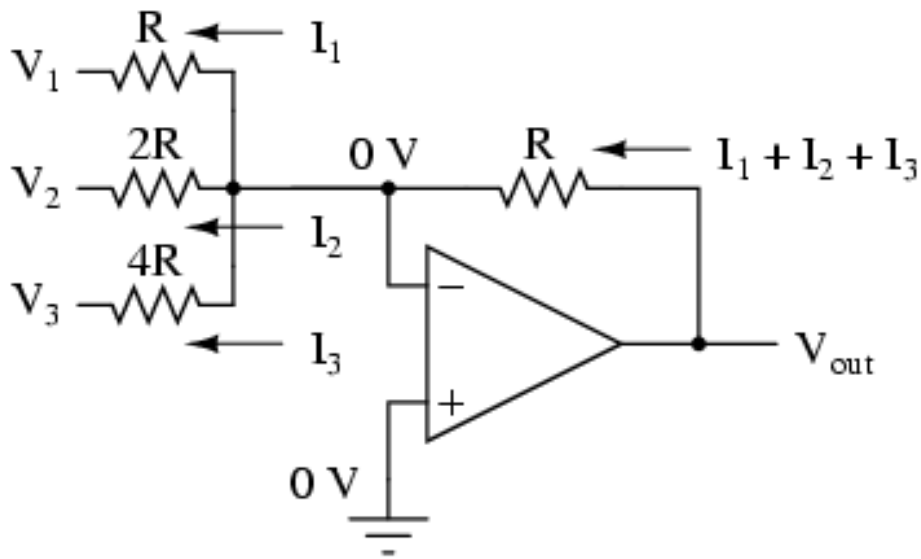
The Magnitude of the Error Ranges from Zero to 1 LSB

This DAC circuit, otherwise known as the *binary-weighted-input* DAC, is a variation on the inverting summer op-amp circuit. If you recall, the classic inverting summer circuit is an operational amplifier using negative feedback for controlled gain, with several voltage inputs and one voltage output. The output voltage is the inverted (opposite polarity) sum of all input voltages

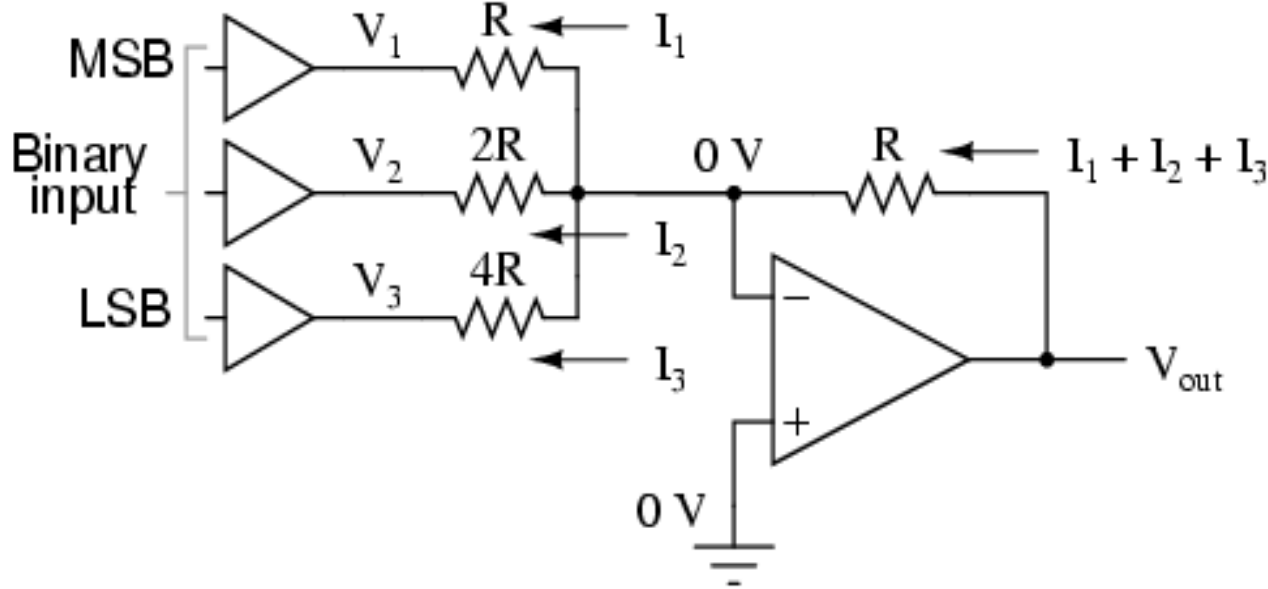
Inverting summer circuit



$$\mathbf{V_{out} = - (V_1 + V_2 + V_3)}$$

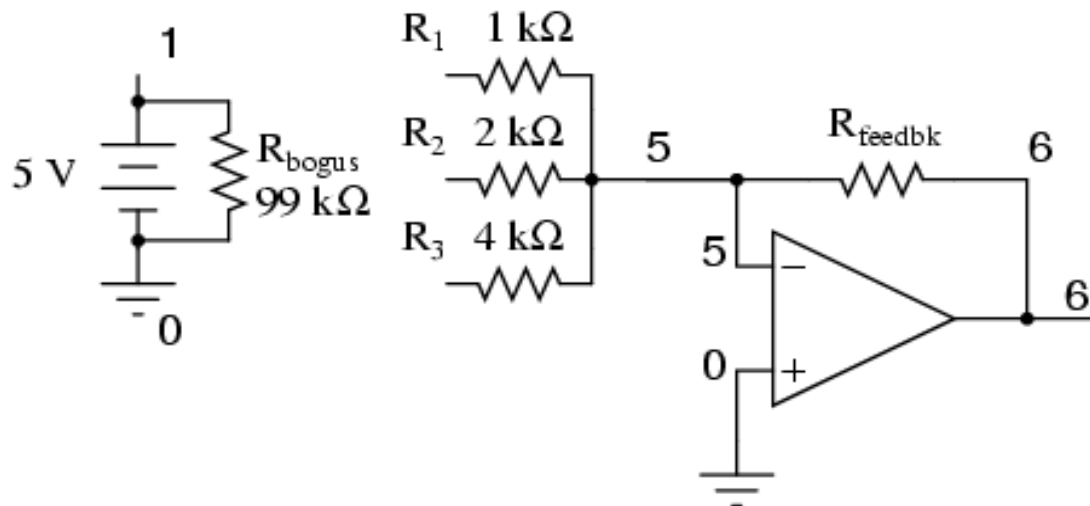


$$V_{\text{out}} = - \left(V_1 + \frac{V_2}{2} + \frac{V_3}{4} \right)$$

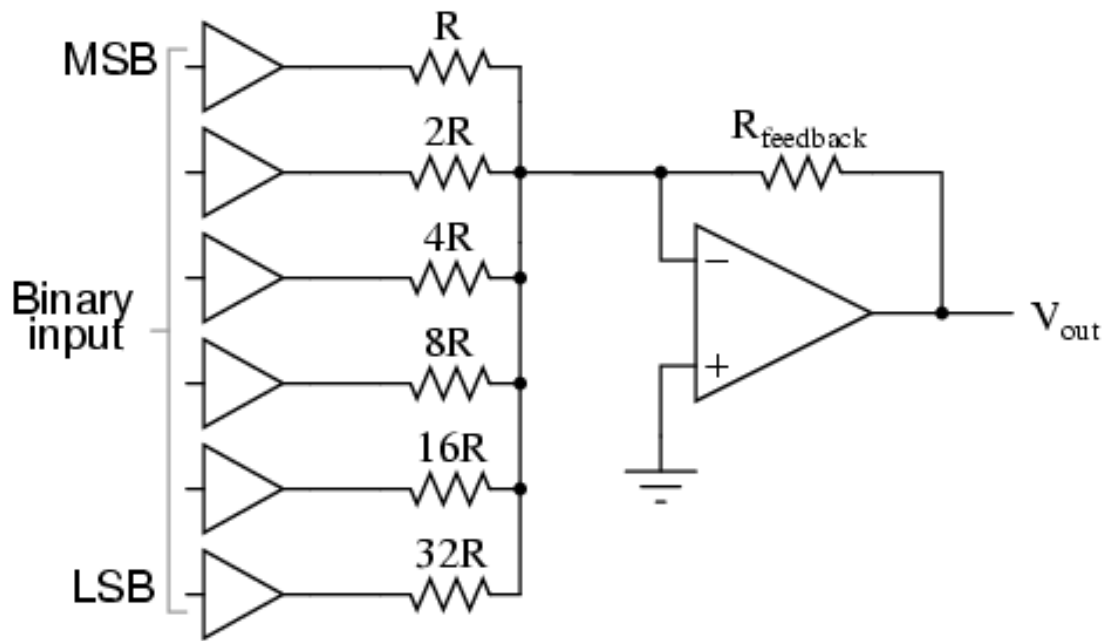


| Binary | Output voltage |

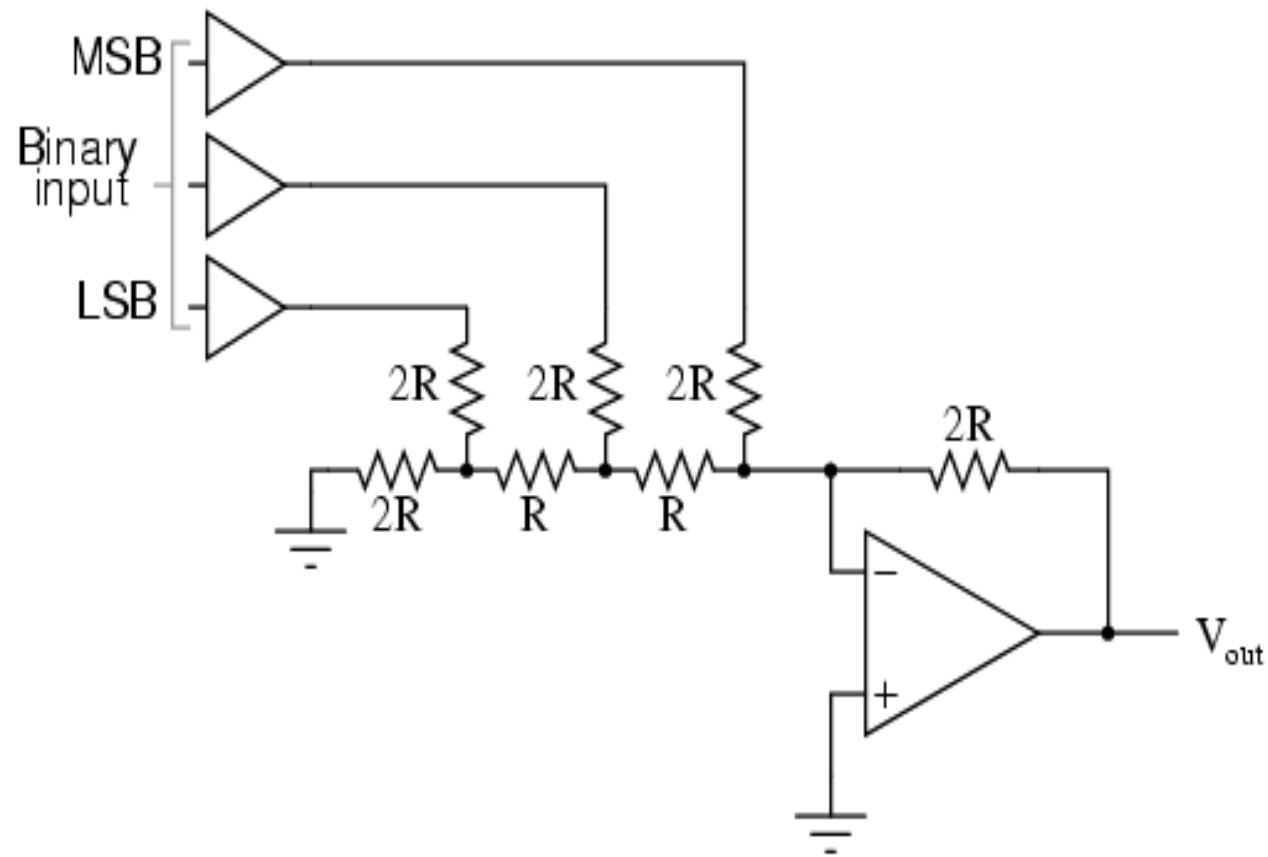
000	0.00 V
001	-1.25 V
010	-2.50 V
011	-3.75 V
100	-5.00 V
101	-6.25 V
110	-7.50 V
111	-8.75 V



6-bit binary-weighted DAC



R/2R "ladder" DAC



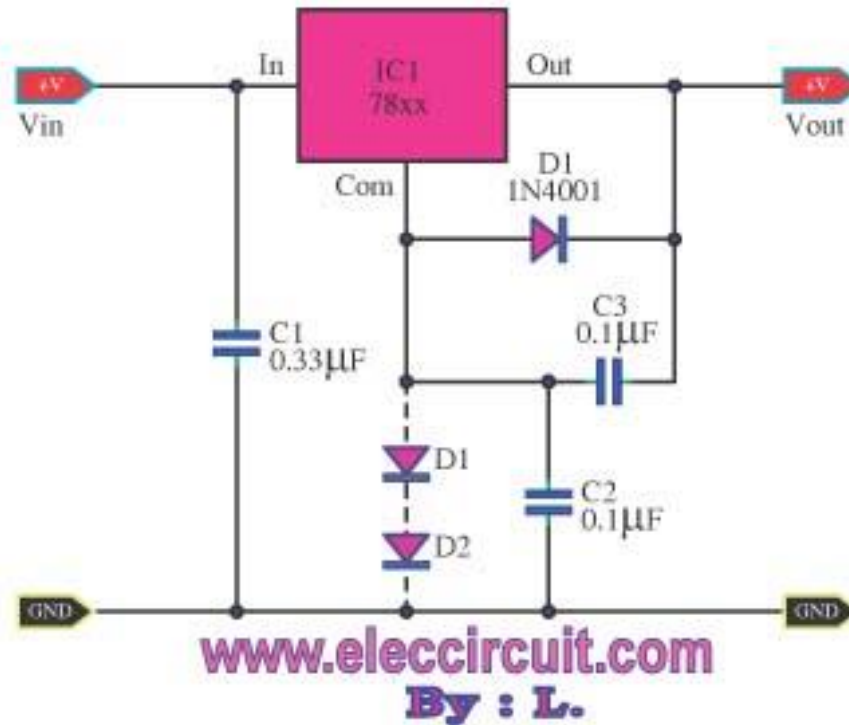
Binary	Output voltage
000	0.00 V
001	-1.25 V
010	-2.50 V
011	-3.75 V
100	-5.00 V
101	-6.25 V
110	-7.50 V
111	-8.75 V

Mạch ổn định điện áp

- Sử dụng diode zener
- Mạch lọc
- Mạch R-C
- Sử dụng vi mạch 78xx và 79xx

Mạch biến đổi điện áp

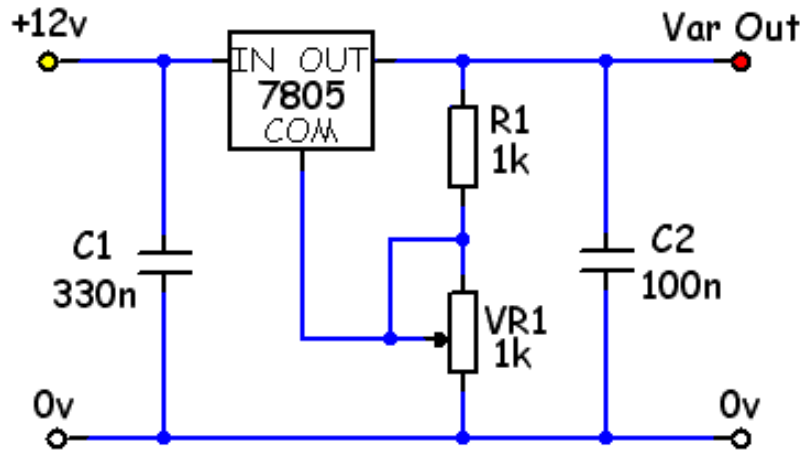
- Mạch hạ áp
- Mạch tăng áp
- Mạch tạo nhiều mức điện áp
- Mạch đẩy-kéo
- Mạch cầu



Then, to improve the output voltage of voltage regulator better.

By placing a diode German Niam D1, to protect the Commonwealth to prevent the reverse bias exceeds 0.2 volt when the short-circuit. , that is, not to prevent regulator damage.

In addition, adding a capacitor C2 to, it also ensures that the circuit will have a better image stability. The diodes D1 and D2 (for example) increases the output voltage to rise about 1.3 volts.



$$V_{out} = 5(1 + VR1/R1) + (I_q * VR1)$$

I_q is typically about 4mA

Four most commonly used switching converter types:

Buck: used to reduce a DC voltage to a lower DC voltage.

Boost: provides an output voltage that is higher than the input.

Buck-Boost (invert): an output voltage is generated opposite in polarity to the input.

Flyback: an output voltage that is less than or greater than the input can be generated, as well as multiple outputs.

Some multiple-transistor converter topologies will be presented:

Push-Pull: A two-transistor converter that is especially efficient at low input voltages.

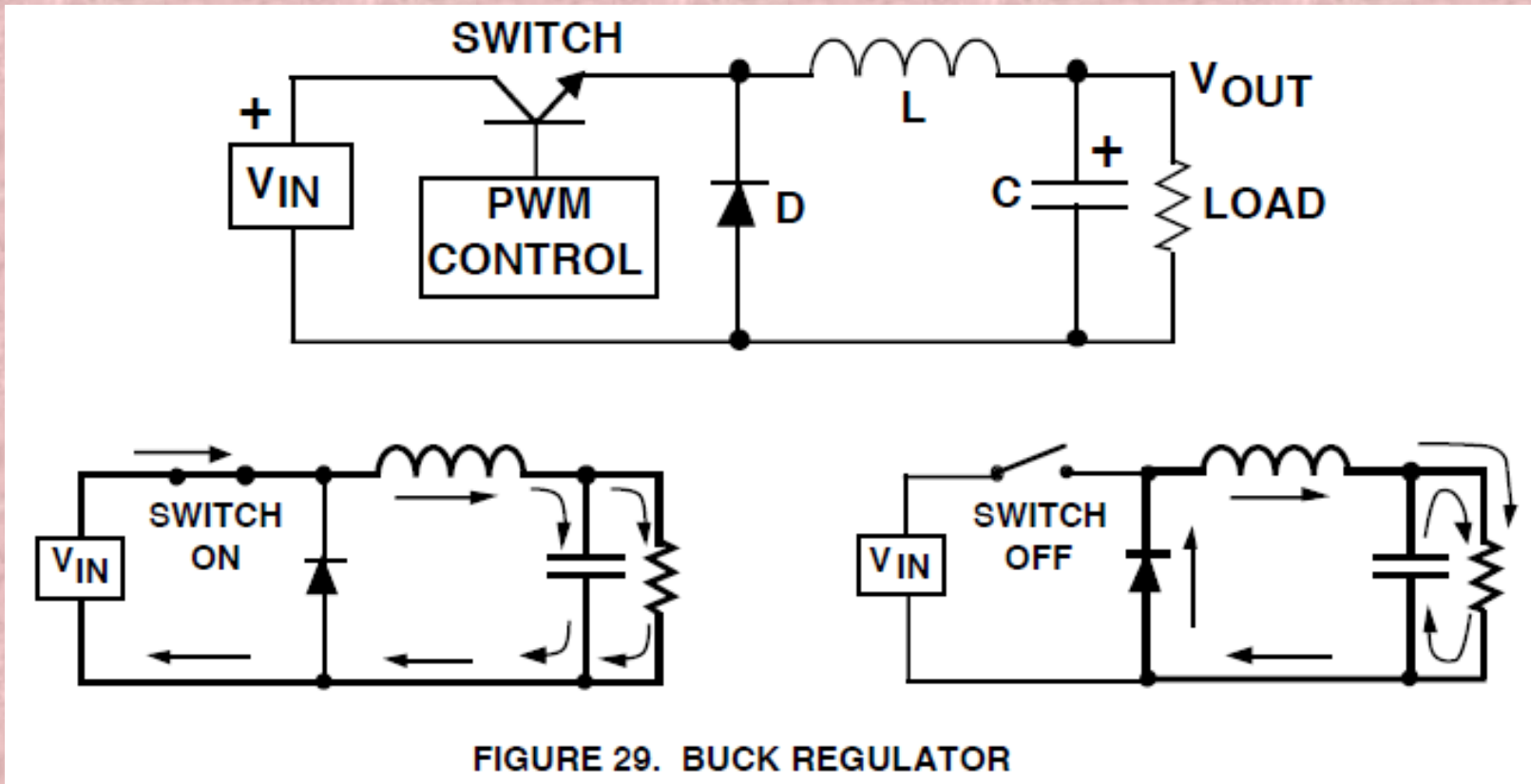
Half-Bridge: A two-transistor converter used in many off-line applications.

Full-Bridge: A four-transistor converter (usually used in off-line designs) that can generate the highest output power of all the types listed.

BUCK REGULATOR

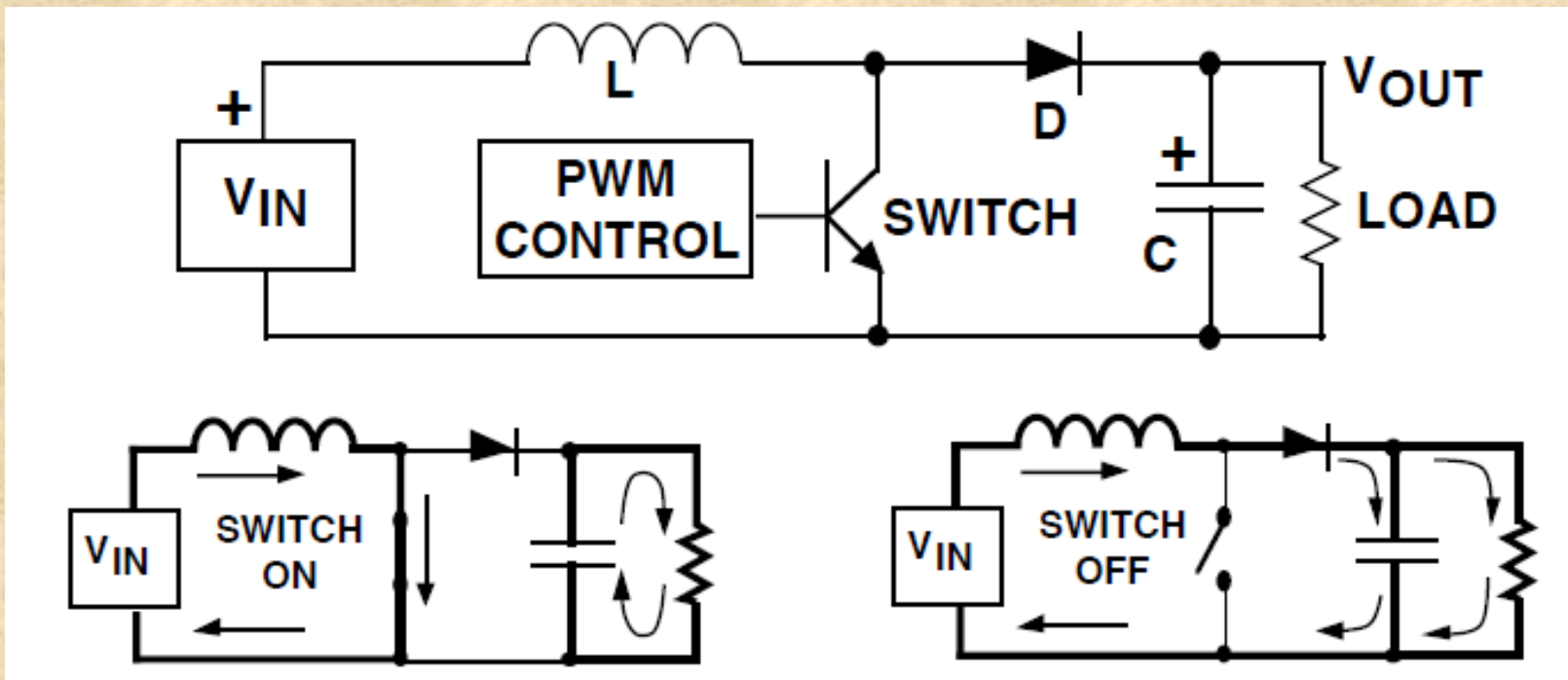
The most commonly used switching converter is the Buck, which is used to down-convert a DC voltage to a lower DC voltage of the same polarity. This is essential in systems that use distributed power rails (like 24V to 48V), which must be locally converted to 15V, 12V or 5V with very little power loss.

The Buck converter uses a transistor as a switch that alternately connects and disconnects the input voltage to an inductor



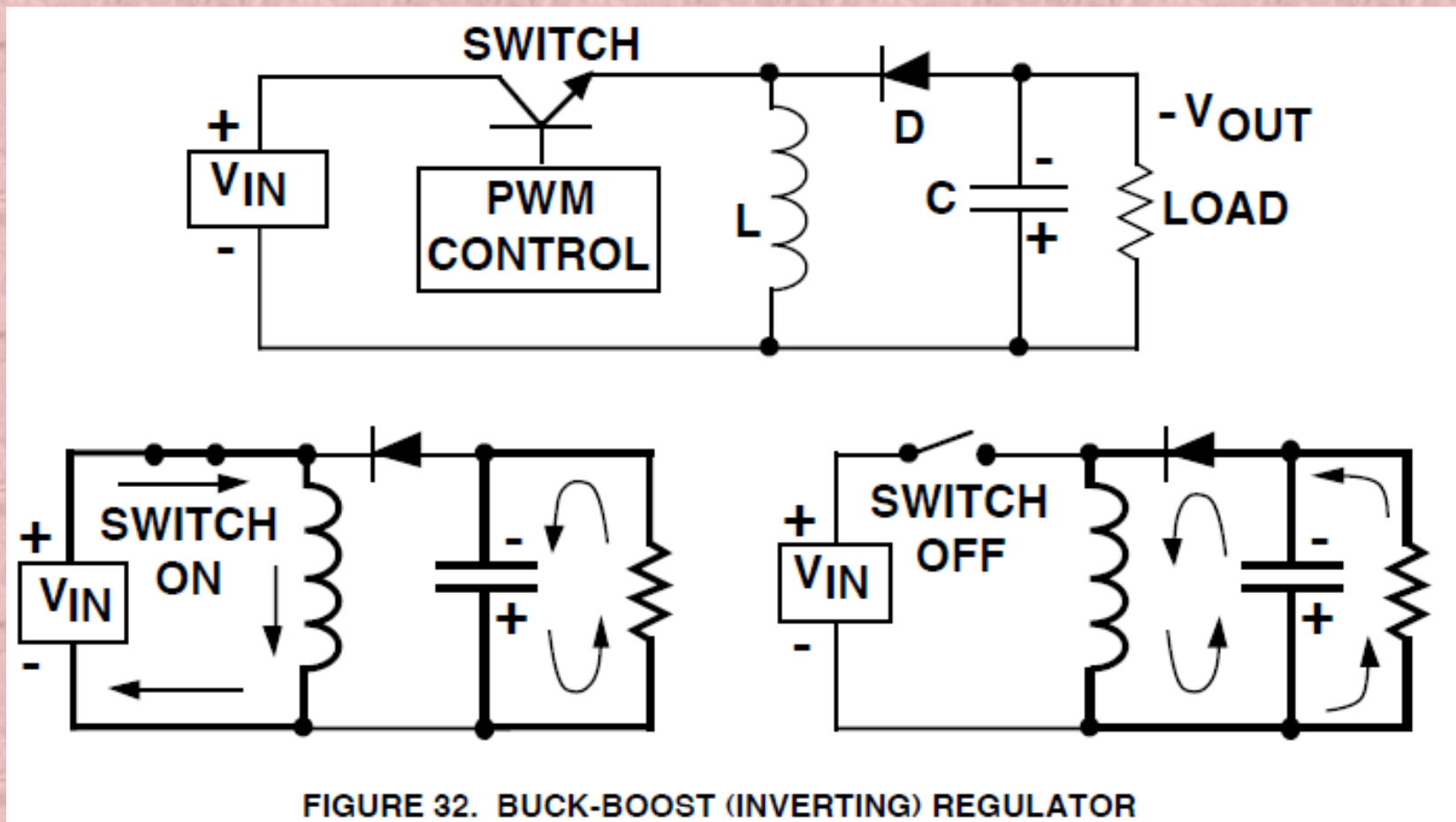
BOOST REGULATOR

The Boost regulator takes a DC input voltage and produces a DC output voltage that is higher in value than the input (but of the same polarity). The Boost regulator is shown in Figure 31, along with details showing the path of current flow during the switch on and off time.



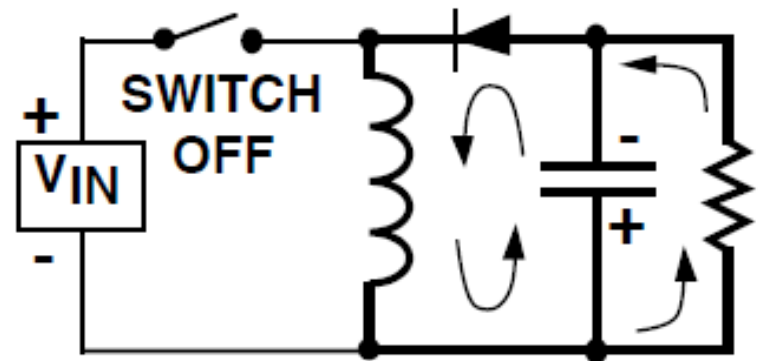
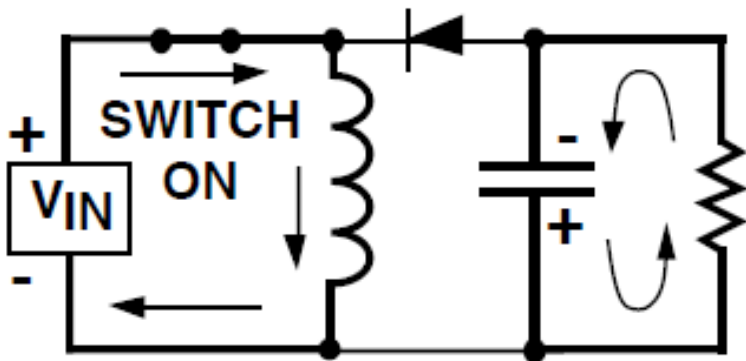
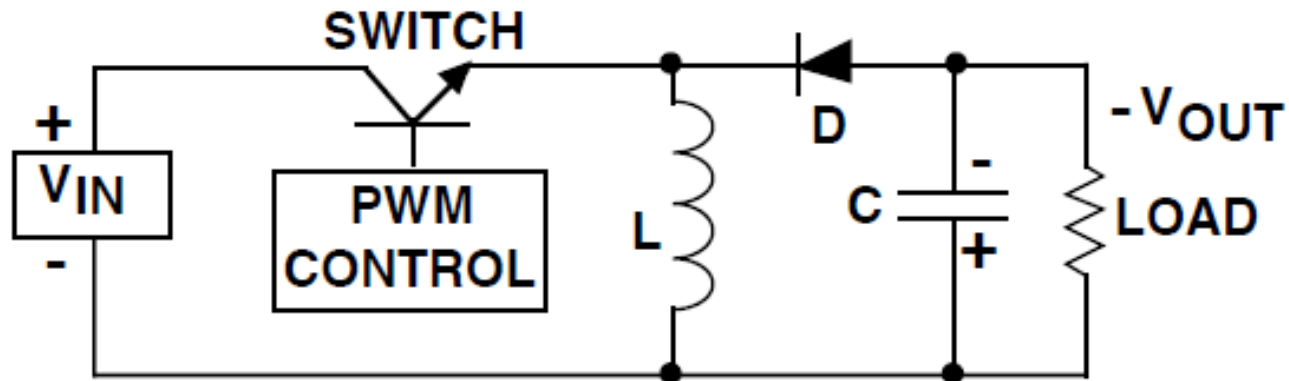
BUCK-BOOST (INVERTING) REGULATOR

The Buck-Boost or Inverting regulator takes a DC input voltage and produces a DC output voltage that is opposite in polarity to the input. The negative output voltage can be either larger or smaller in magnitude than the input voltage.



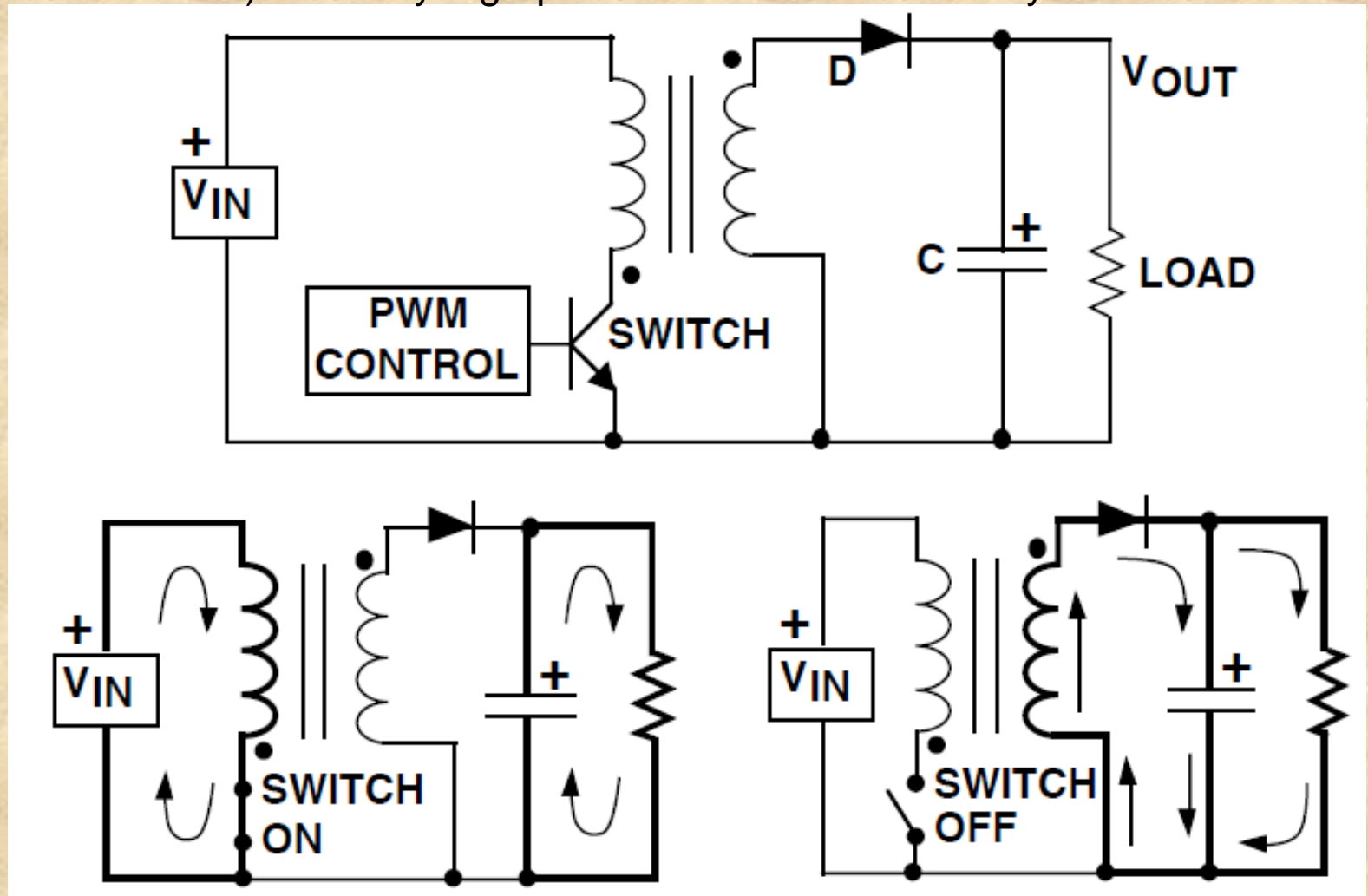
BUCK-BOOST (INVERTING) REGULATOR

The Buck-Boost or Inverting regulator takes a DC input voltage and produces a DC output voltage that is opposite in polarity to the input. The negative output voltage can be either larger or smaller in magnitude than the input voltage.



FLYBACK REGULATOR

The Flyback is the most versatile of all the topologies, allowing the designer to create one or more output voltages, some of which may be opposite in polarity. Flyback converters have gained popularity in battery-powered systems, where a single voltage must be converted into the required system voltages (for example, +5V, +12V and -12V) with very high power conversion efficiency



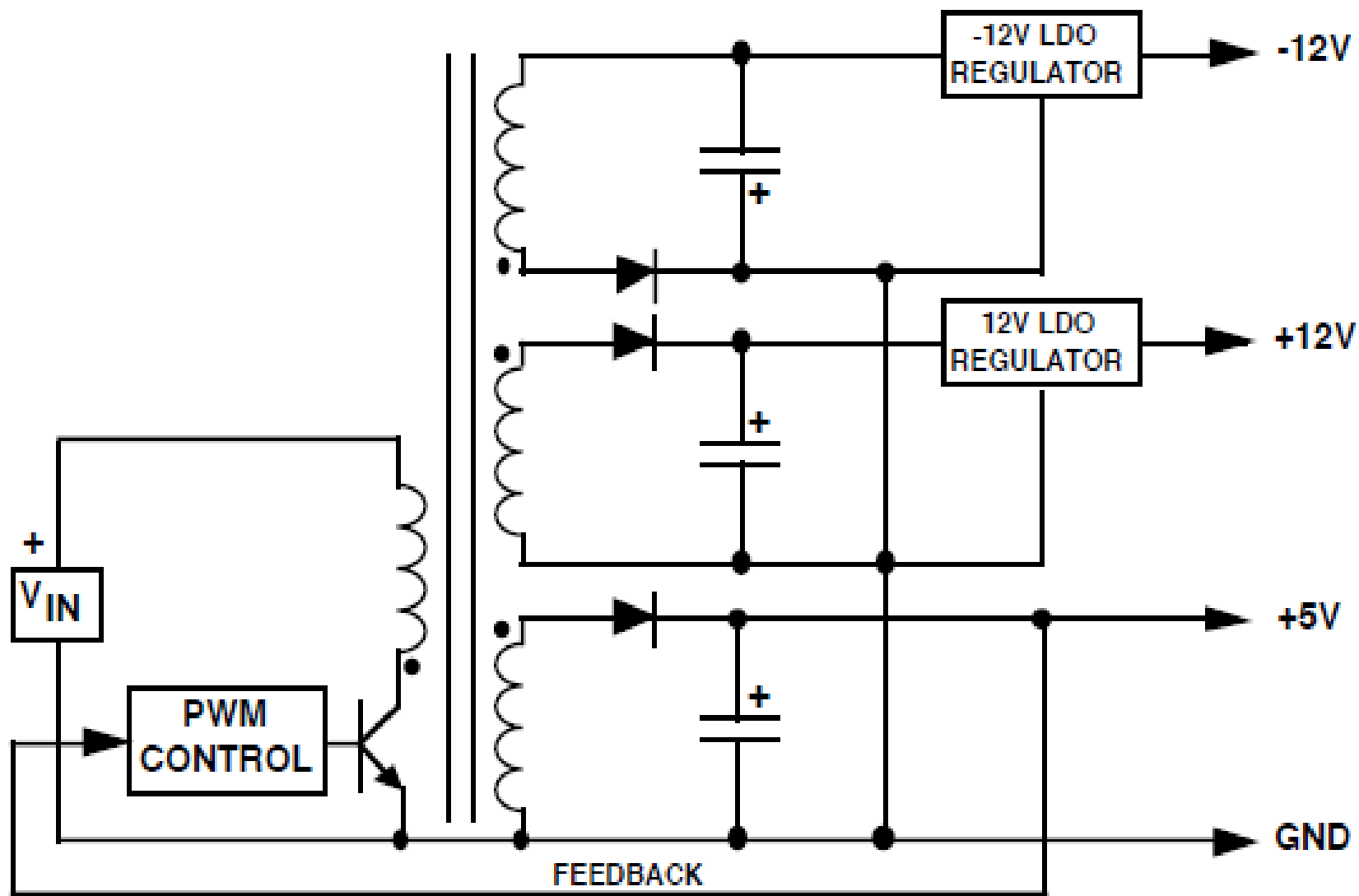


FIGURE 34. TYPICAL MULTIPLE-OUTPUT FLYBACK

PUSH-PULL CONVERTER

The Push-Pull converter uses two to transistors perform DC-DC conversion

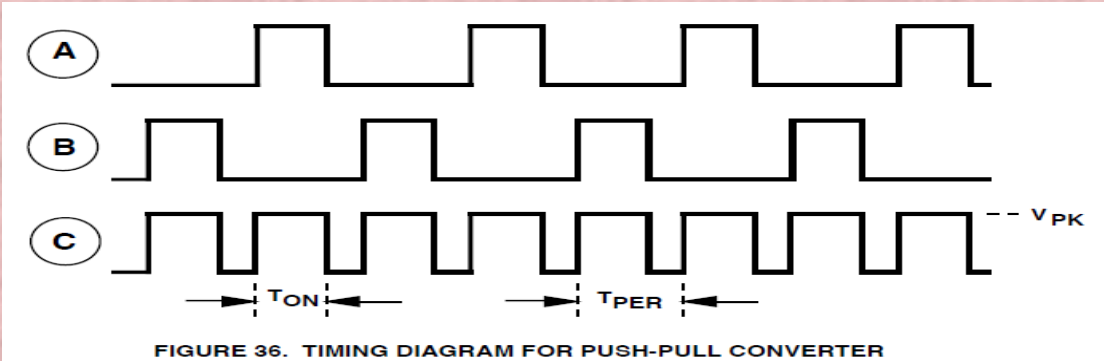
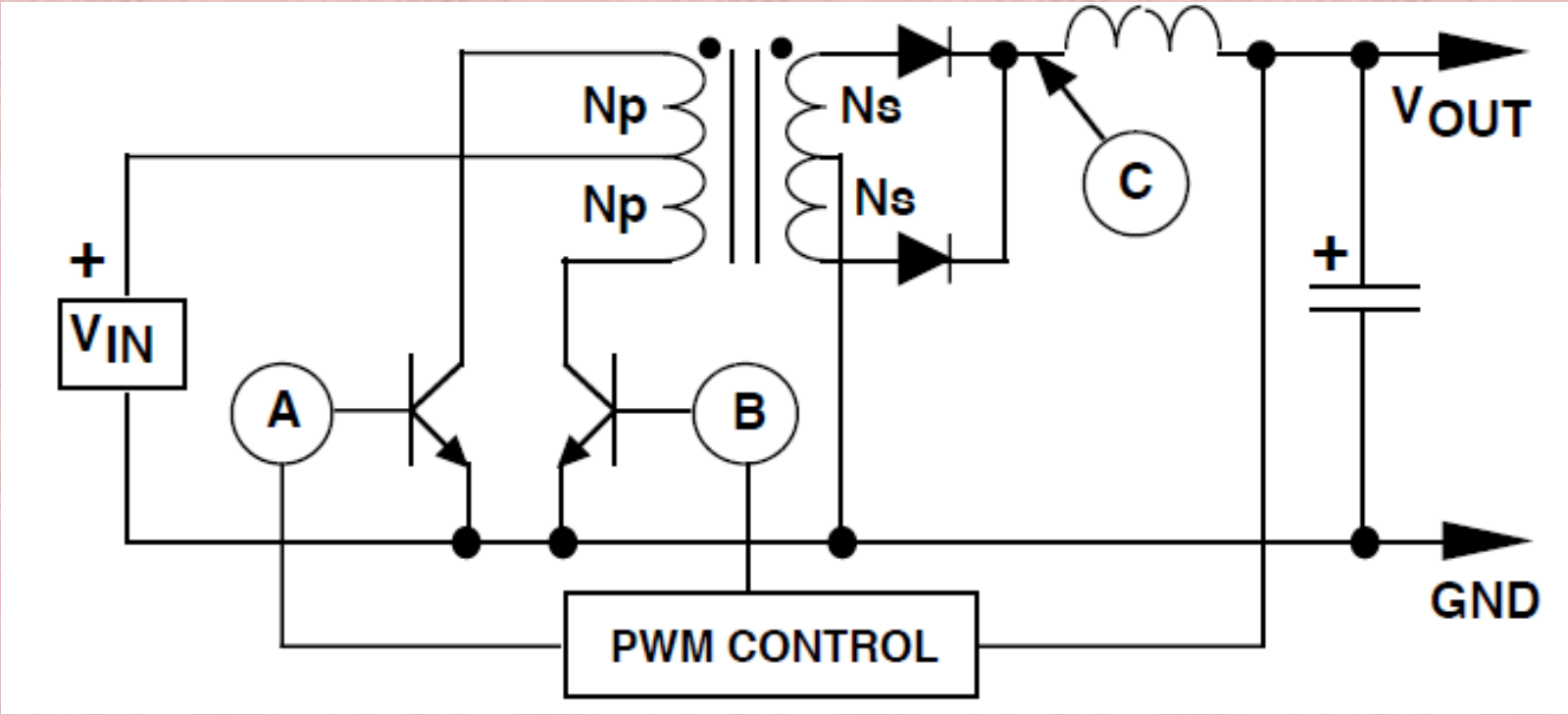


FIGURE 36. TIMING DIAGRAM FOR PUSH-PULL CONVERTER

HALF-BRIDGE CONVERTER

The Half-Bridge is a two-transistor converter frequently used in high-power designs. It is well-suited for applications requiring load power in the range of 500W to 1500W, and is almost always operated directly from the AC line.

Off-line operation means that no large 60 Hz power transformer is used, eliminating the heaviest and costliest component of a typical transformer-powered supply. All of the transformers in the Half-Bridge used for power conversion operate at the switching frequency (typically 50 kHz or higher) which means they can be very small and efficient.

A very important advantage of the Half-Bridge is **input-to-output isolation** (the regulated DC output is electrically isolated from the AC line). But, this means that all of the PWM control circuitry must be referenced to the DC output ground.

If a 230 VAC line voltage is rectified by a full-wave bridge and filtered by a capacitor, an unregulated DC voltage of about 300V will be available for DC-DC conversion. If 115 VAC is used, a voltage doubler circuit is typically used to generate the 300V rail.

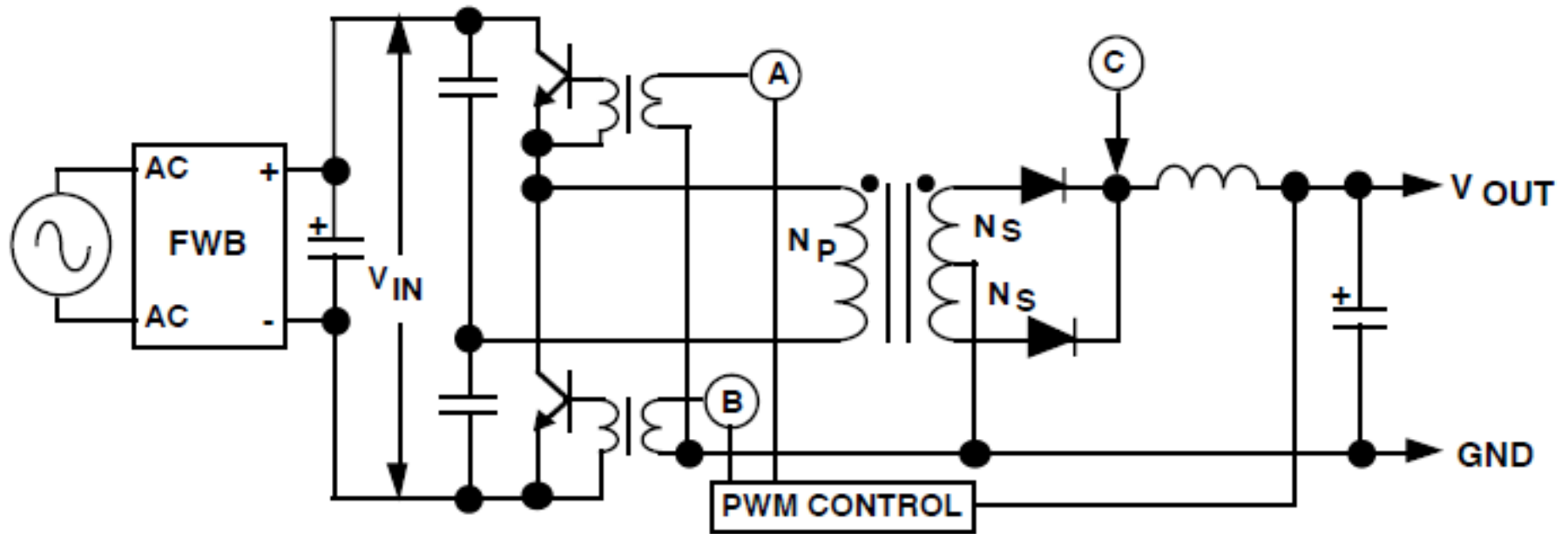


FIGURE 37. HALF-BRIDGE CONVERTER

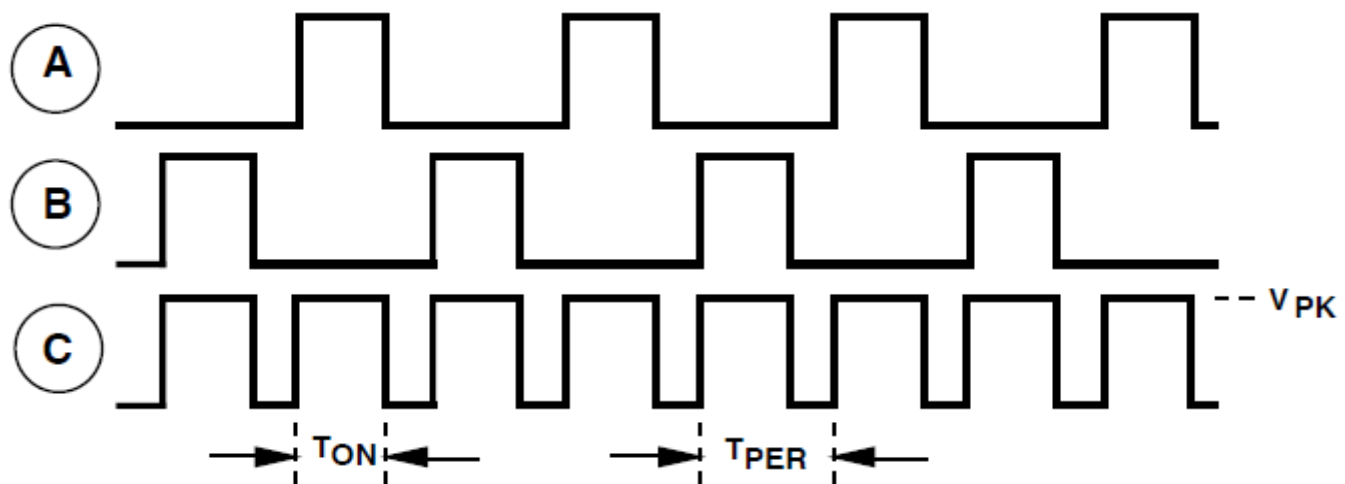


FIGURE 38. TIMING DIAGRAM FOR HALF-BRIDGE CONVERTER

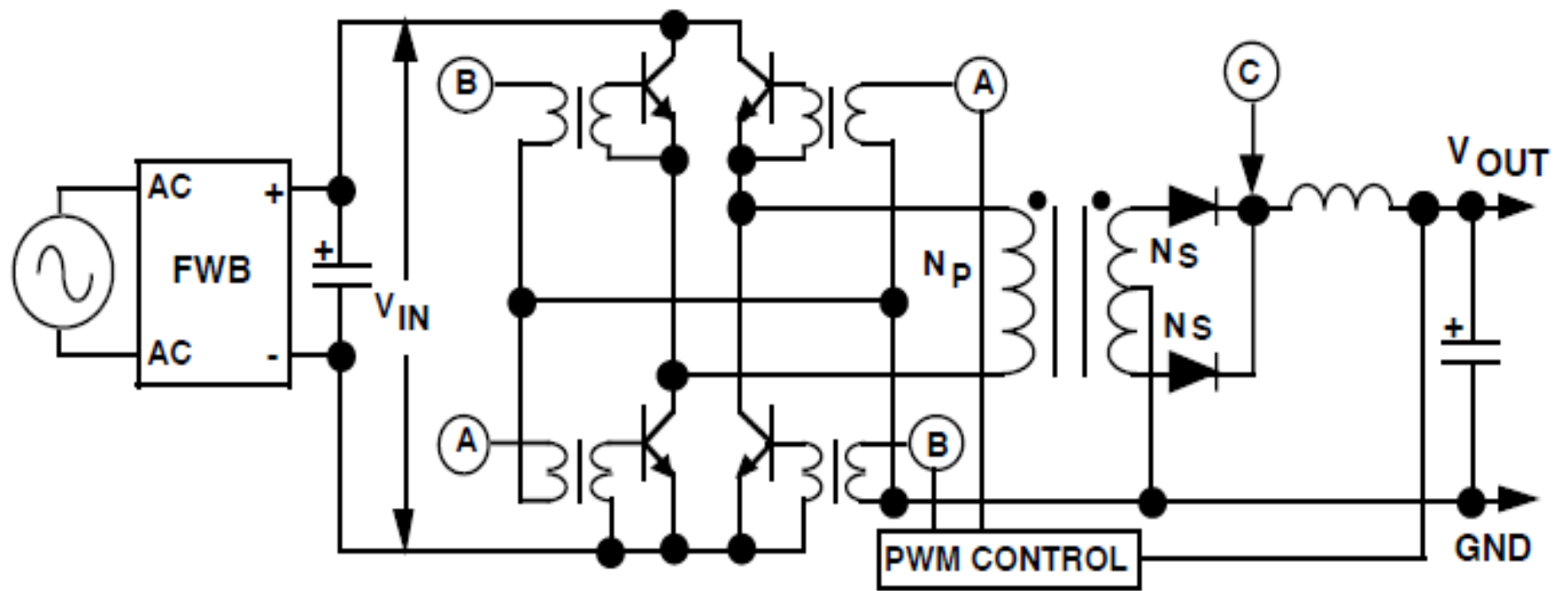
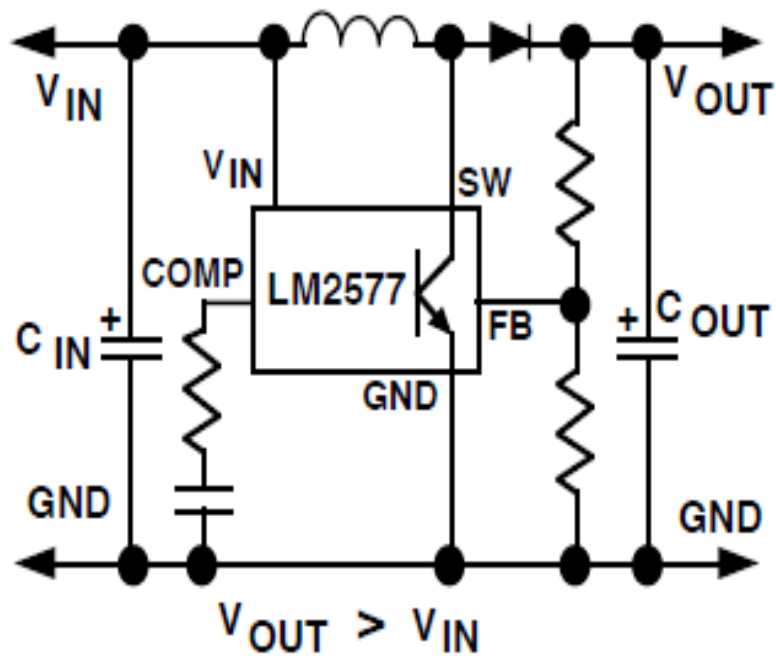
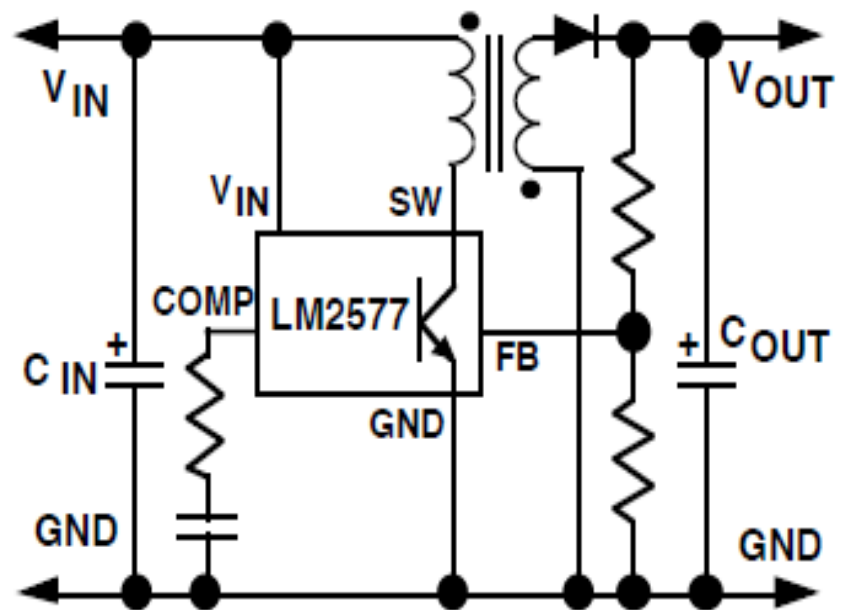


FIGURE 39. FULL BRIDGE CONVERTER



BOOST REGULATOR



FLYBACK REGULATOR

FIGURE 49. BASIC APPLICATION CIRCUITS FOR THE LM2577

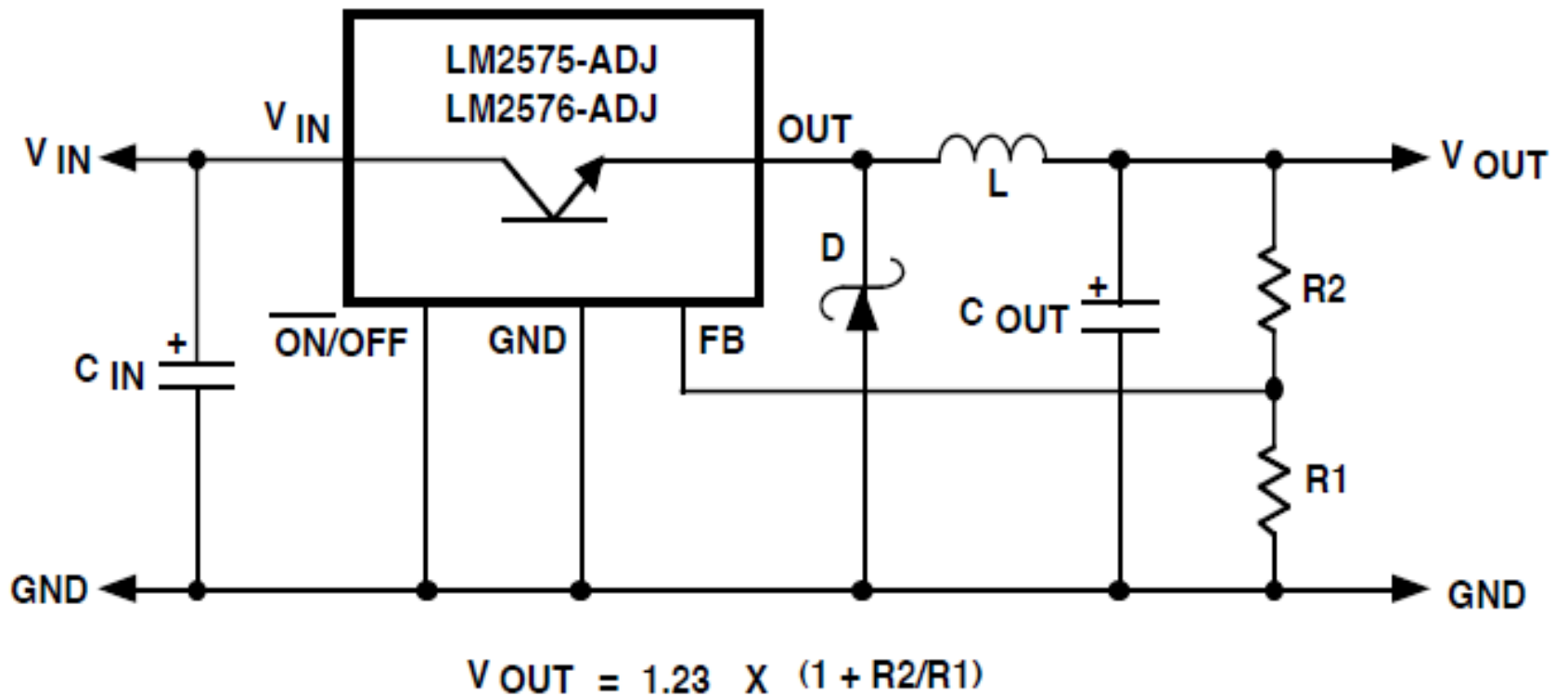


FIGURE 53. LM2575 AND LM2576 BUCK REGULATOR APPLICATION

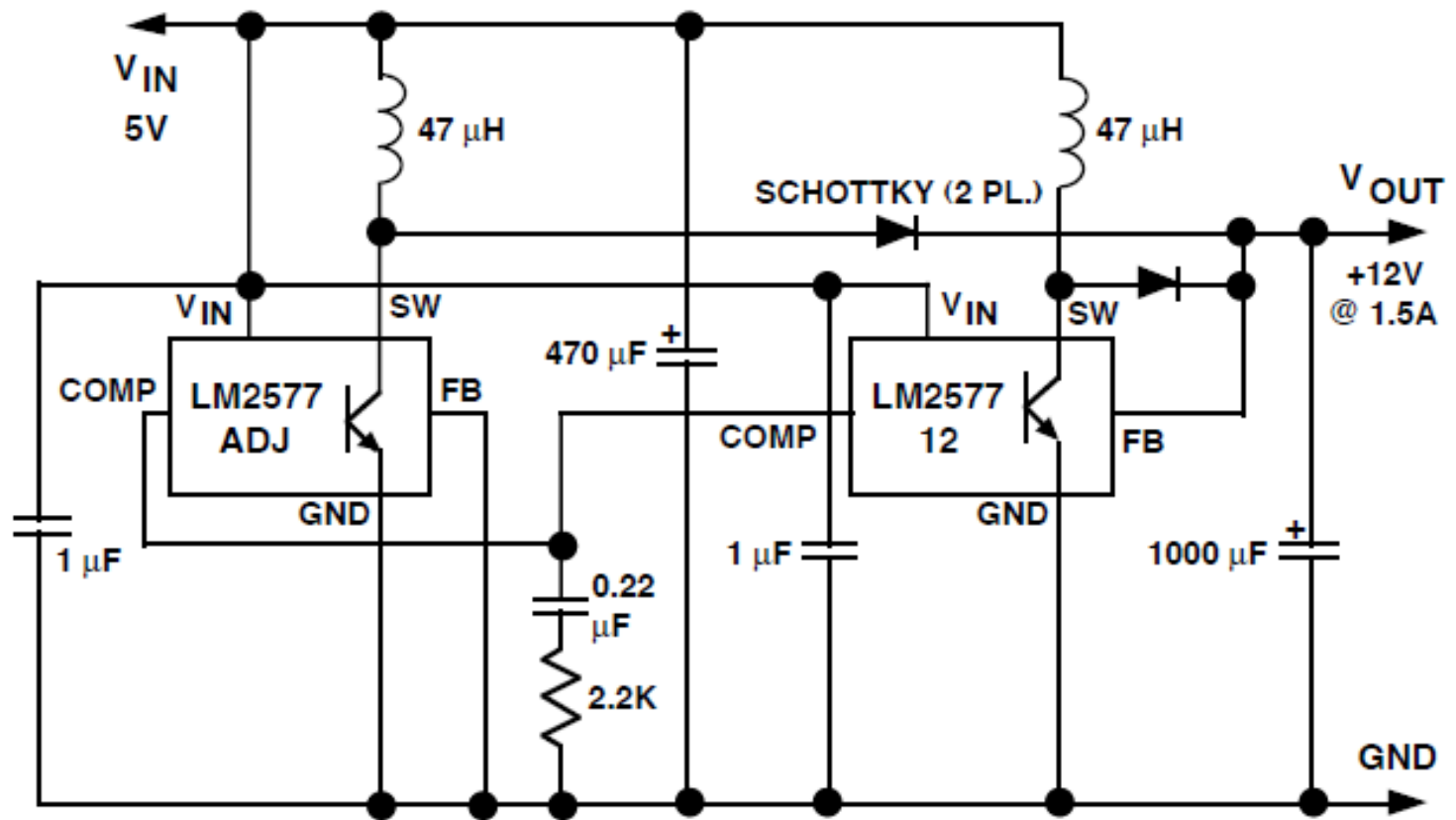
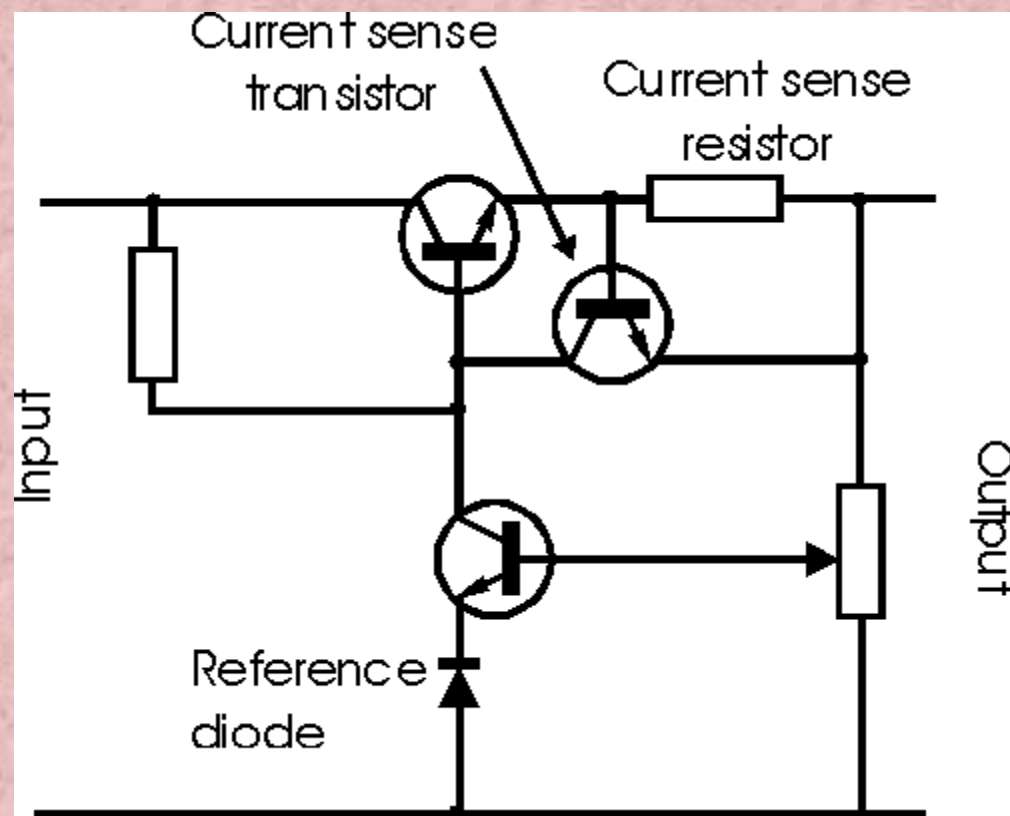


FIGURE 50. DUAL LM2577 BOOST CIRCUIT

Mạch hạn chế dòng điện



When the power supply is supplying current below the maximum level, current flows through the sense resistor and a small potential difference develops across it. The value of the resistor is chosen so that at when the maximum allowable current flows from the power supply, a voltage equal to the turn on voltage of the current sense transistor is developed across it. This is typically 0.6 volts, assuming that a silicon transistor is used.

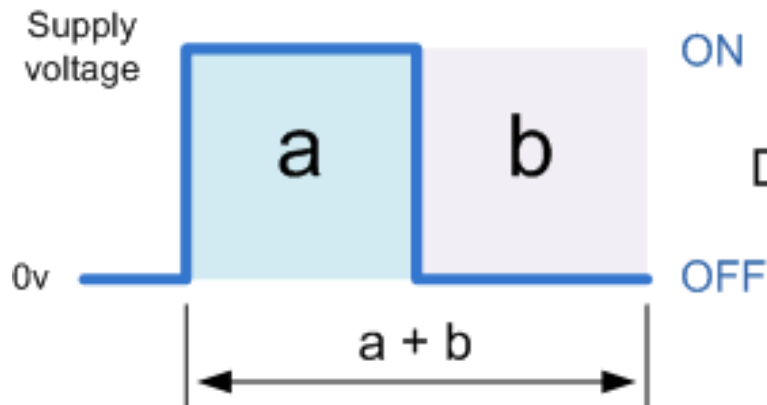
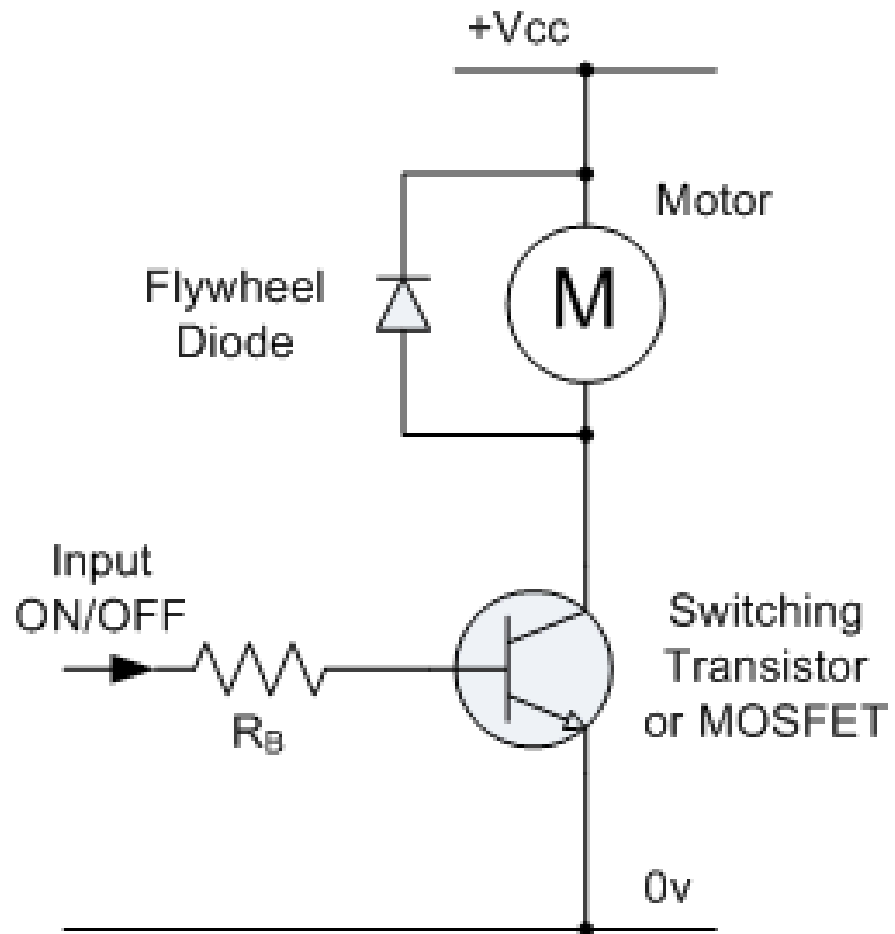
As the voltage across the current sense resistor reaches 0.6 volts, so the current sense transistor starts to turn on. When it does this, the voltage at the base of the main power supply pass transistor is pulled down, thereby preventing any increase in the output current of the power supply. In this way it is very easy to calculate the value for the sense resistor using Ohms Law. It is simply $0.6 / \text{maximum current}$. The current sense transistor should have a sufficiently large current capacity to be able to take the current the base of the main series pass transistor.

Mạch điều khiển động cơ bước

- BJT transistors
- MOFET transistor

Stepper motors can be controlled directly using transistor switching techniques .

The speed and position of a stepper motor can be accurately controlled using pulses so can operate in an Open-loop mode

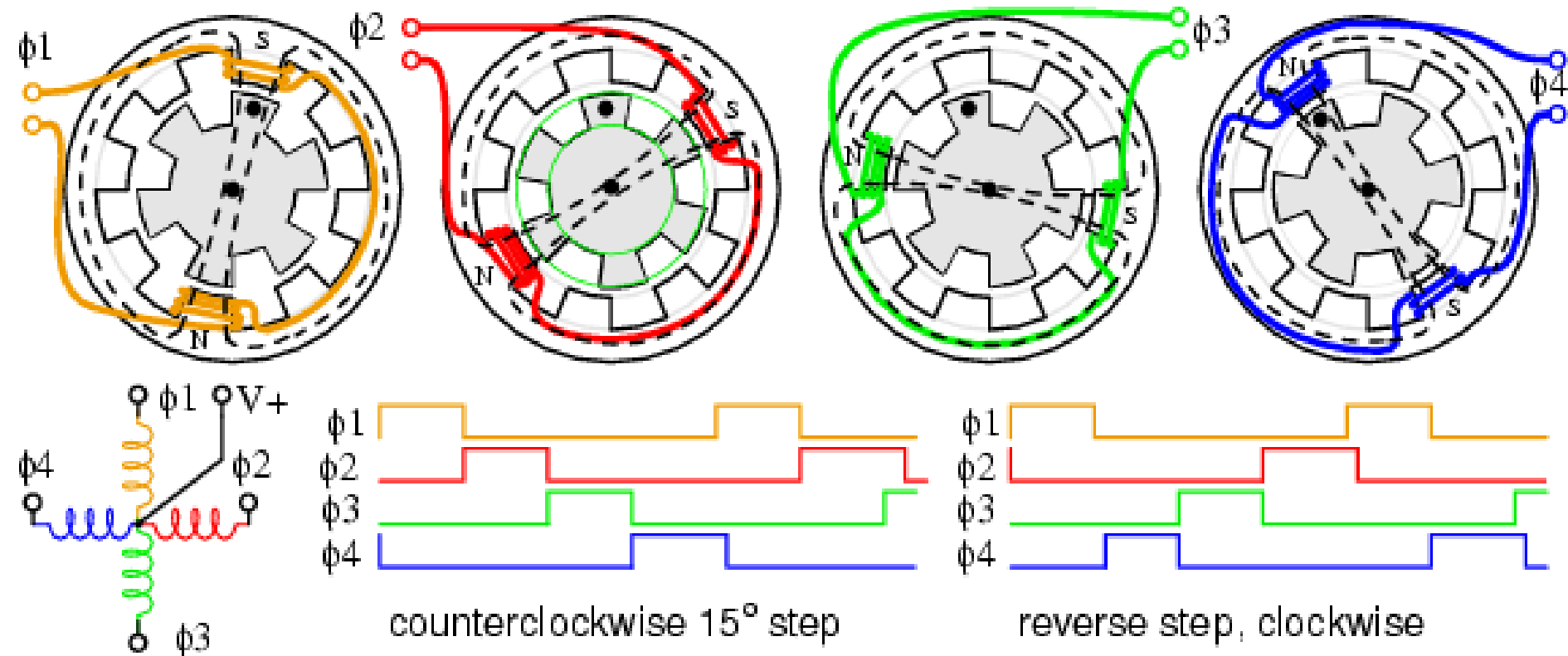


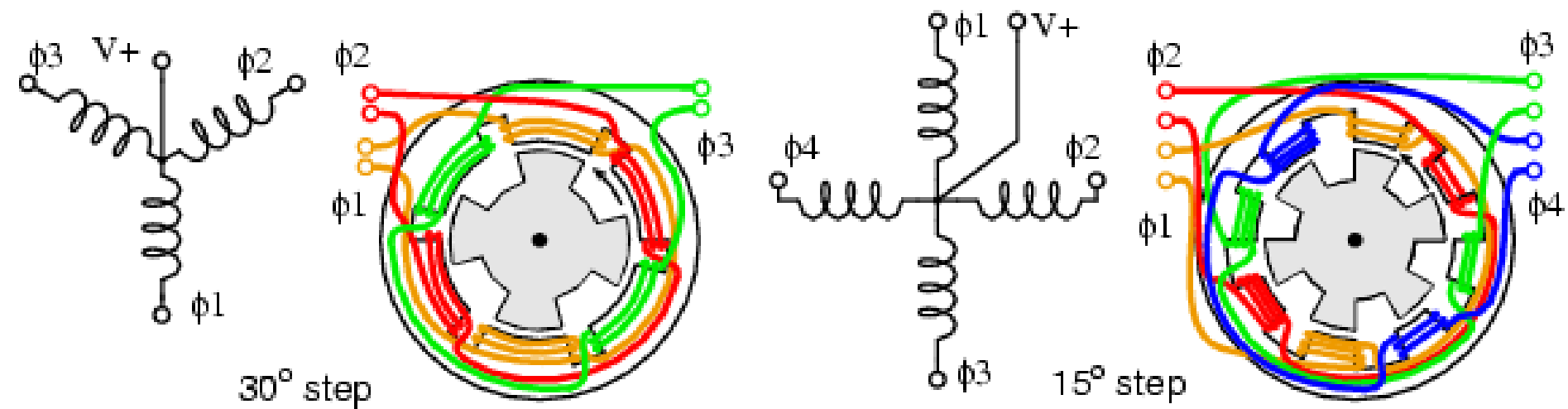
$$\text{Duty Ratio } \beta = \frac{a}{a + b}$$

Động cơ bước kiểu từ trở thay đổi (Variable reluctance stepper)

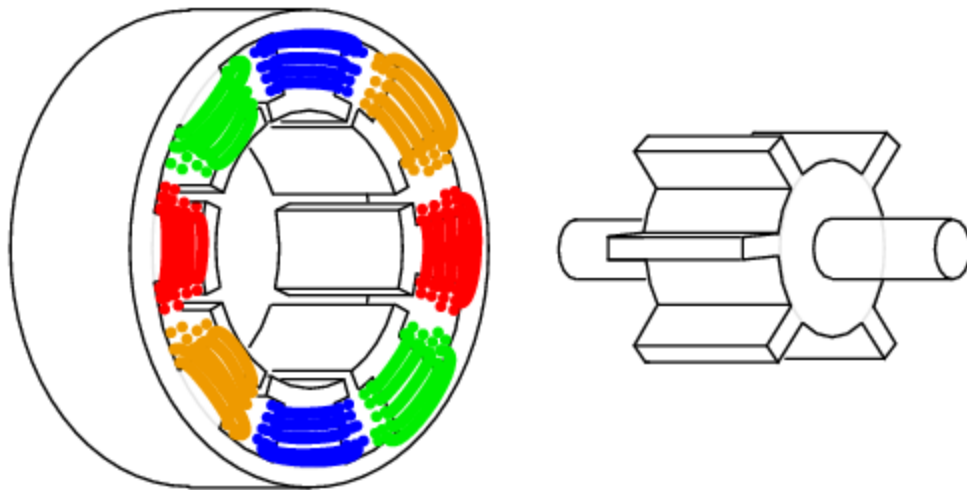
$$\theta_S = 360^\circ/N_S \quad \theta_R = 360^\circ/N_R \quad \theta_{ST} = \theta_R - \theta_S$$

where: θ_S = stator angle, θ_R = Rotor angle, θ_{ST} = step angle
 N_S = number stator poles, N_P = number rotor poles

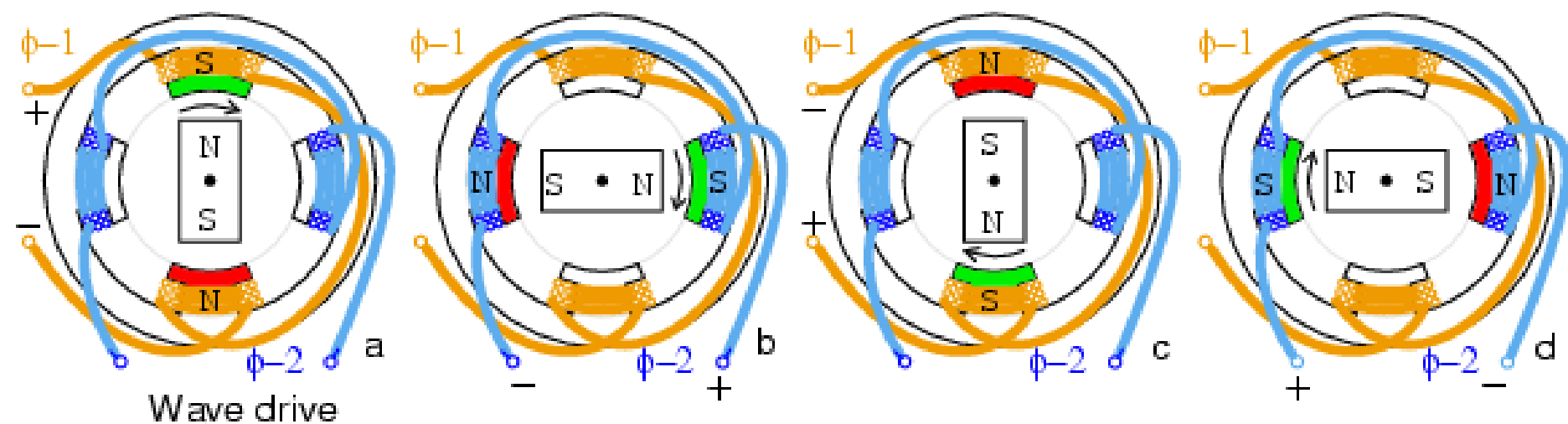




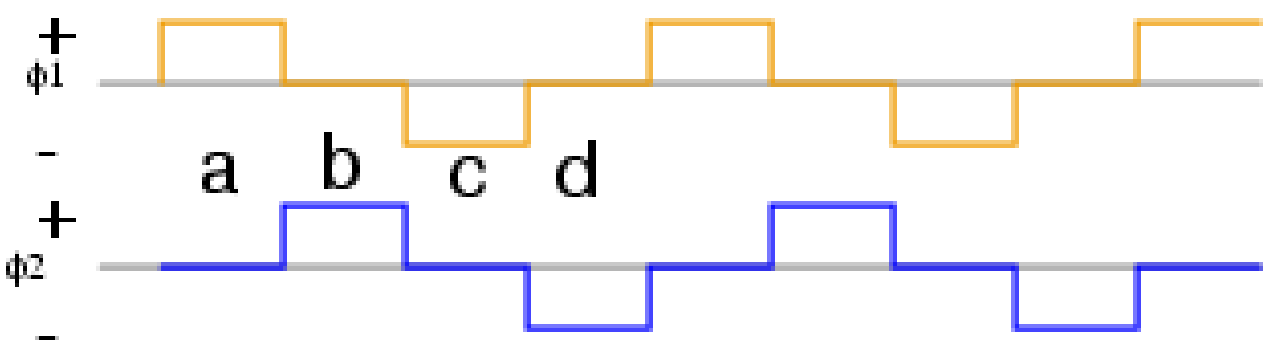
Three phase and four phase variable reluctance stepper motors



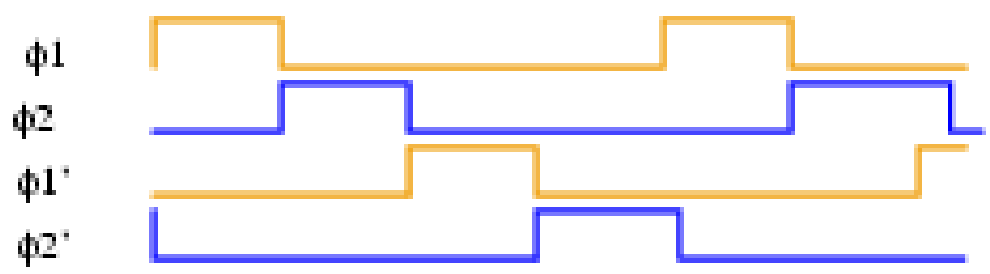
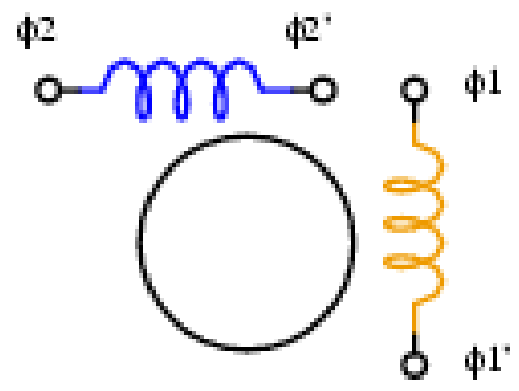
Động cơ bước có rotor nam châm vĩnh cửu Permanent magnet stepper



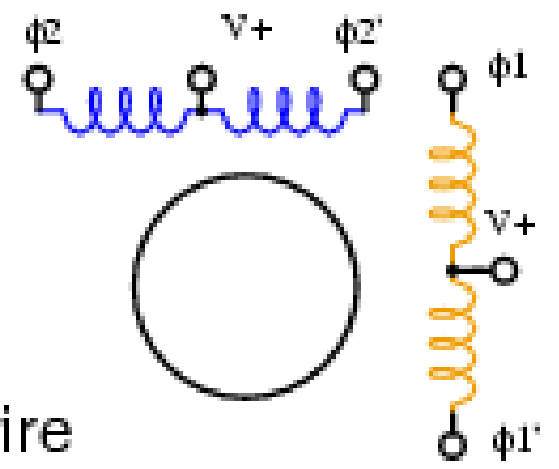
PM wave drive sequence (a) $\phi1+$, (b) $\phi2+$, (c) $\phi1-$, (d) $\phi2-$.



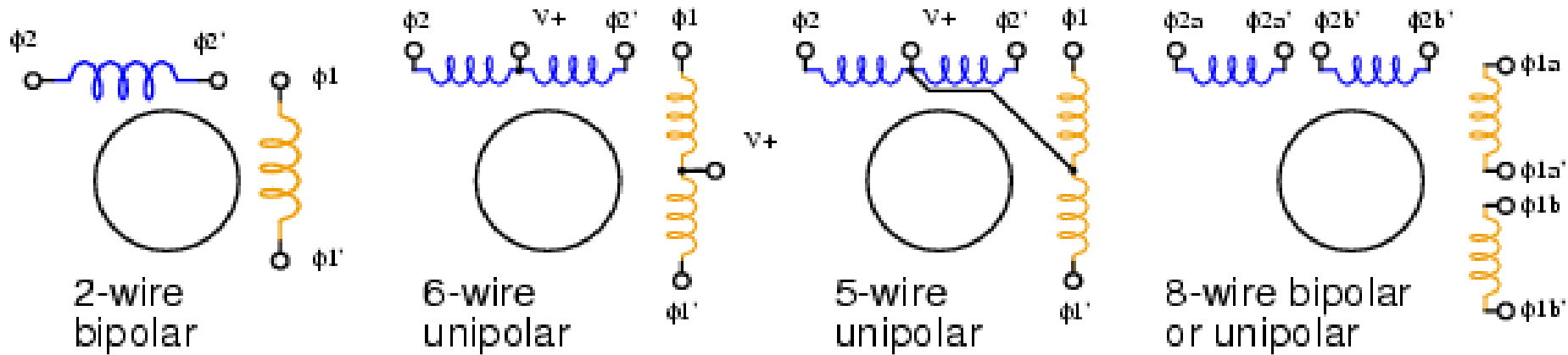
Waveforms: bipolar wave drive



6-wire



Waveforms: unipolar wave drive.



Stepper motor wiring diagrams

The 4-wire motor can only be driven by bipolar waveforms.

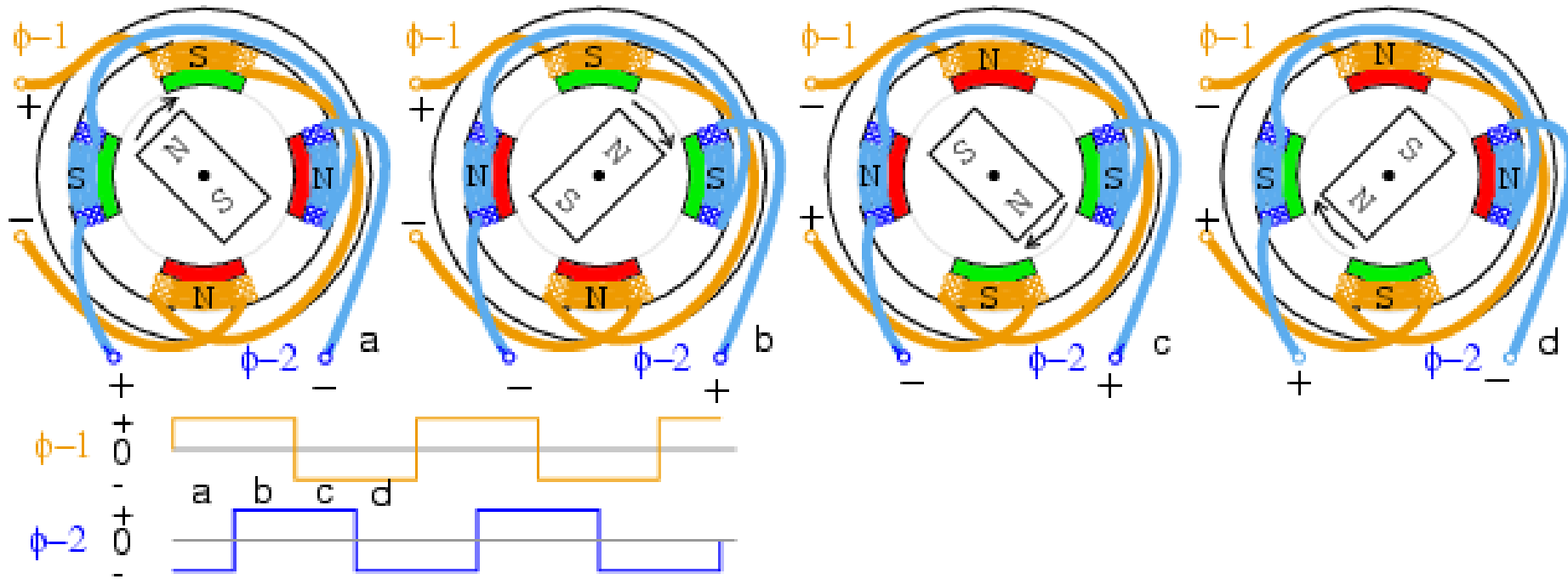
The 6-wire motor, the most common arrangement, is intended for unipolar drive because of the center taps. May be driven by bipolar waves if the center taps are ignored.

The 5-wire motor can only be driven by unipolar waves, as the common center tap interferes if both windings are energized simultaneously.

The 8-wire configuration is rare, but provides maximum flexibility. It may be wired for unipolar drive as for the 6-wire or 5-wire motor.

A pair of coils may be connected in series for high voltage bipolar low current drive, or in parallel for low voltage high current drive.

Full step, bipolar drive



Full step drive provides more torque than wave drive because both coils are energized at the same time. This attracts the rotor poles midway between the two field poles.

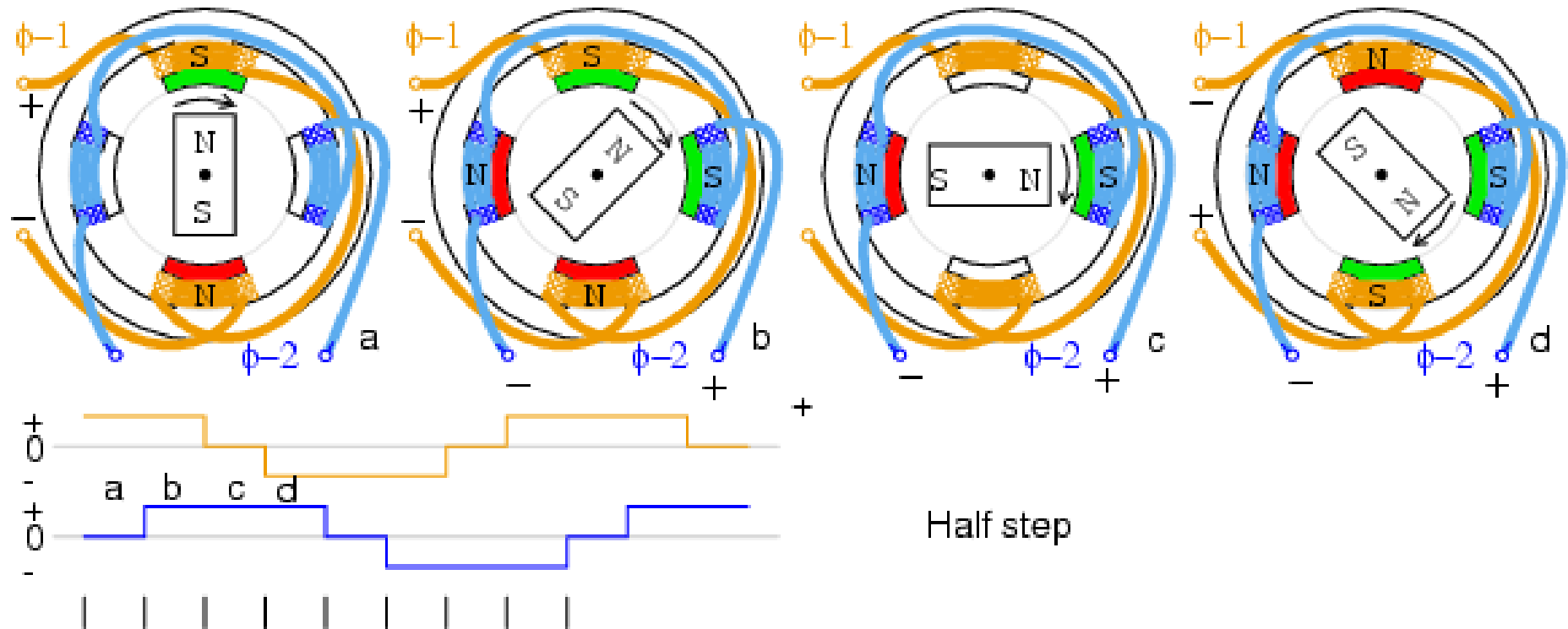
Full step bipolar drive has the same step angle as wave drive.

Unipolar drive (not shown) would require a pair of unipolar waveforms for each of the above bipolar waveforms applied to the ends of a center tapped winding.

Unipolar drive uses a less complex, less expensive driver circuit.

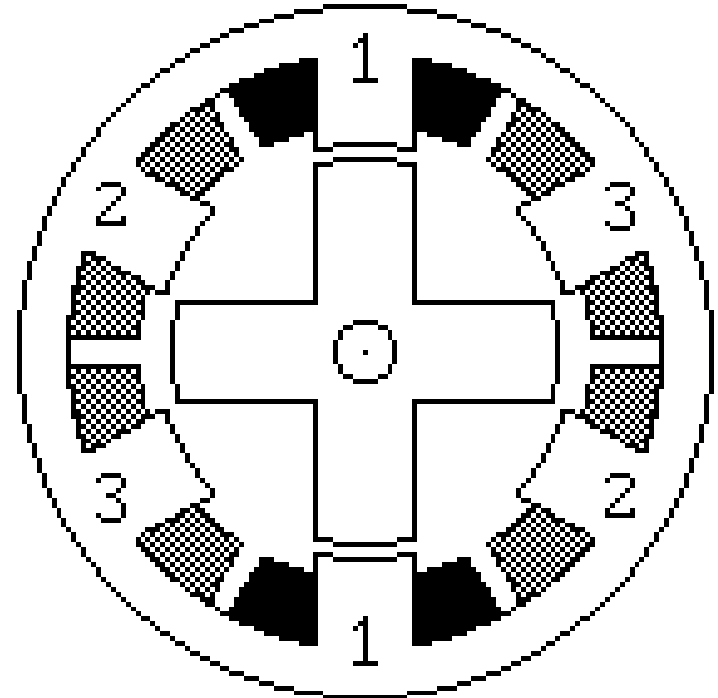
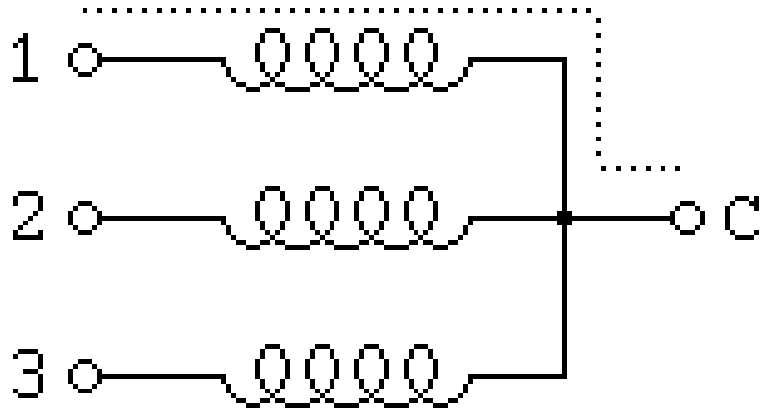
The additional cost of bipolar drive is justified when more torque is required

Half step drive



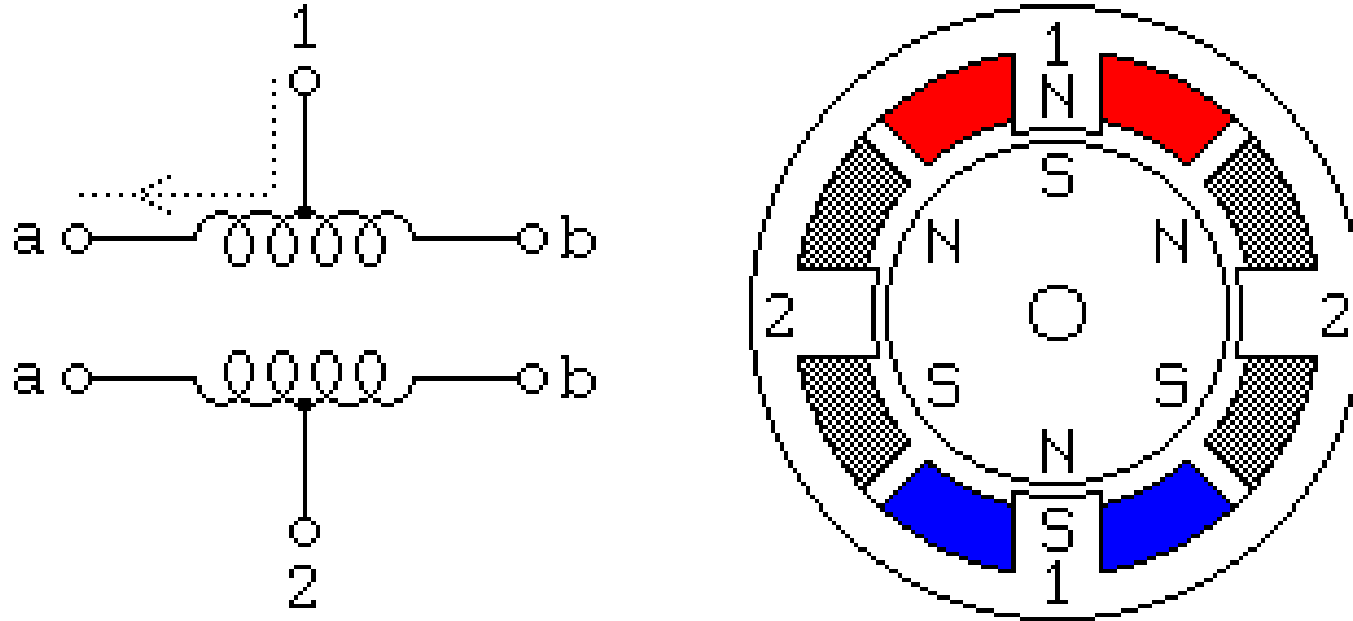
Half step drive is a combination of wave drive and full step drive with one winding energized, followed by both windings energized, yielding twice as many steps. The unipolar waveforms for half step drive are shown above. The rotor aligns with the field poles as for wave drive and between the poles as for full step drive

Variable Reluctance Motors



The cross section shown is of 30 degree per step variable reluctance motor. The rotor in this motor has 4 teeth and the stator has 6 poles, with each winding wrapped around two opposite poles

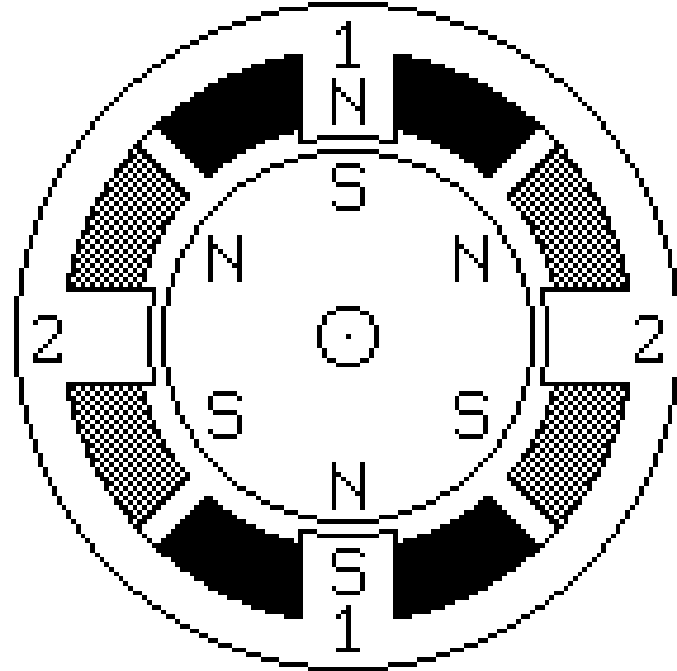
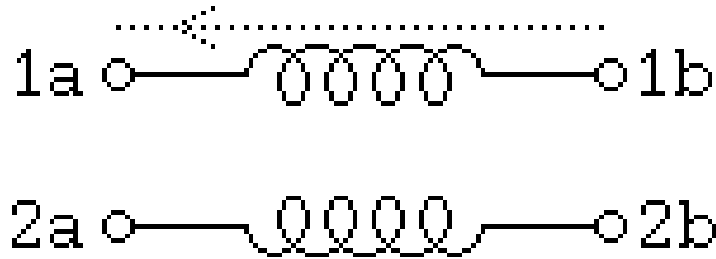
Unipolar Motors



Unipolar stepping motors, both Permanent magnet and hybrid stepping motors with 5 or 6 wires are usually wired as shown in the schematic, with a center tap on each of two windings. In use, the center taps of the windings are typically wired to the positive supply, and the two ends of each winding are alternately grounded to reverse the direction of the field provided by that winding

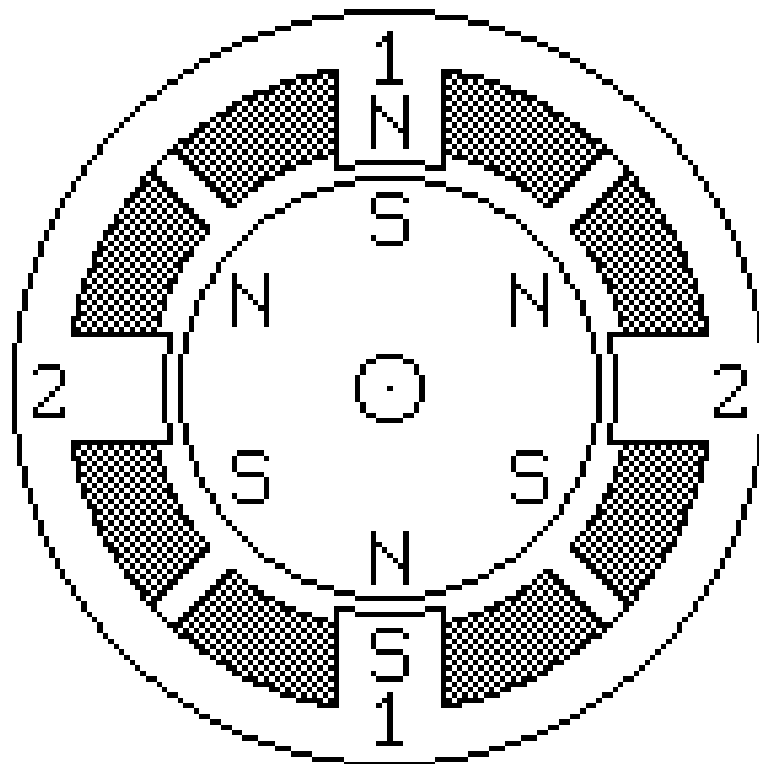
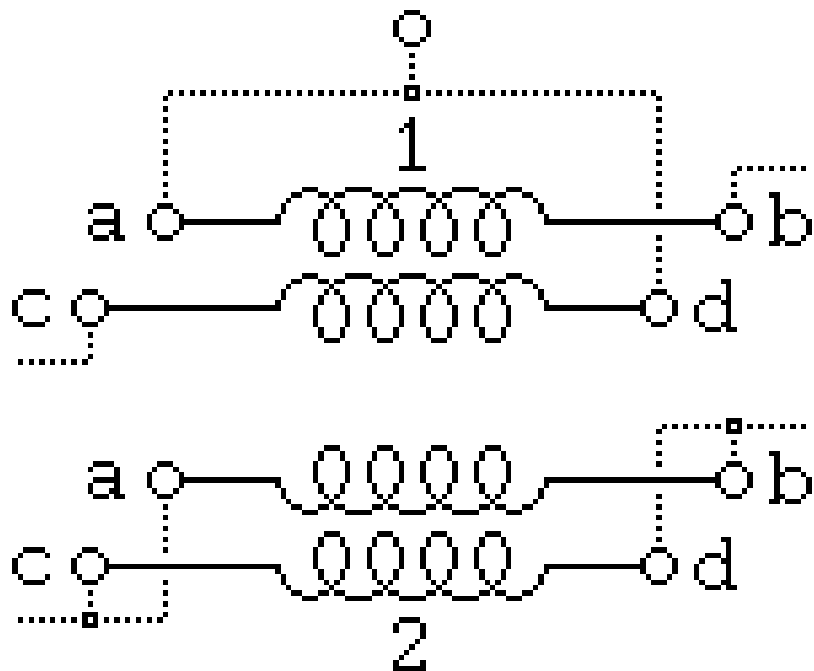
The motor cross section shown in Figure is of a 30 degree per step permanent magnet or hybrid motor -- the difference between these two motor types is not relevant at this level of abstraction

Bipolar Motors



Bipolar permanent magnet and hybrid motors are constructed with exactly the same mechanism as is used on unipolar motors, but the two windings are wired more simply, with no center taps. Thus, the motor itself is simpler but the drive circuitry needed to reverse the polarity of each pair of motor poles is more complex

Bifilar Motors



Bifilar windings on a stepping motor are applied to the same rotor and stator Geometry as a bipolar motor, but instead of winding each coil in the stator with a single wire, two wires are wound in parallel with each other. As a result, the motor has 8 wires, not four

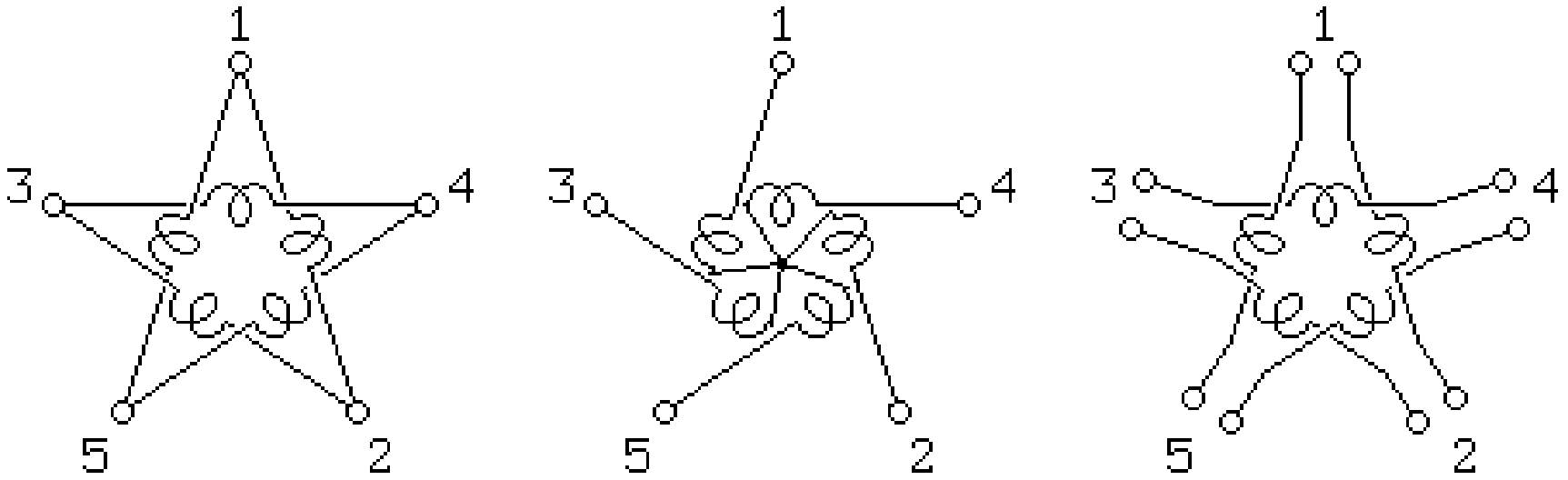
In practice, motors with bifilar windings are always powered as either unipolar or bipolar motors. Figure 1.4 shows the alternative connections to the windings of such a motor

To use a bifilar motor as a unipolar motor, the two wires of each winding are connected in series and the point of connection is used as a center-tap.

Winding 1 in Figure 1.4 is shown connected this way.

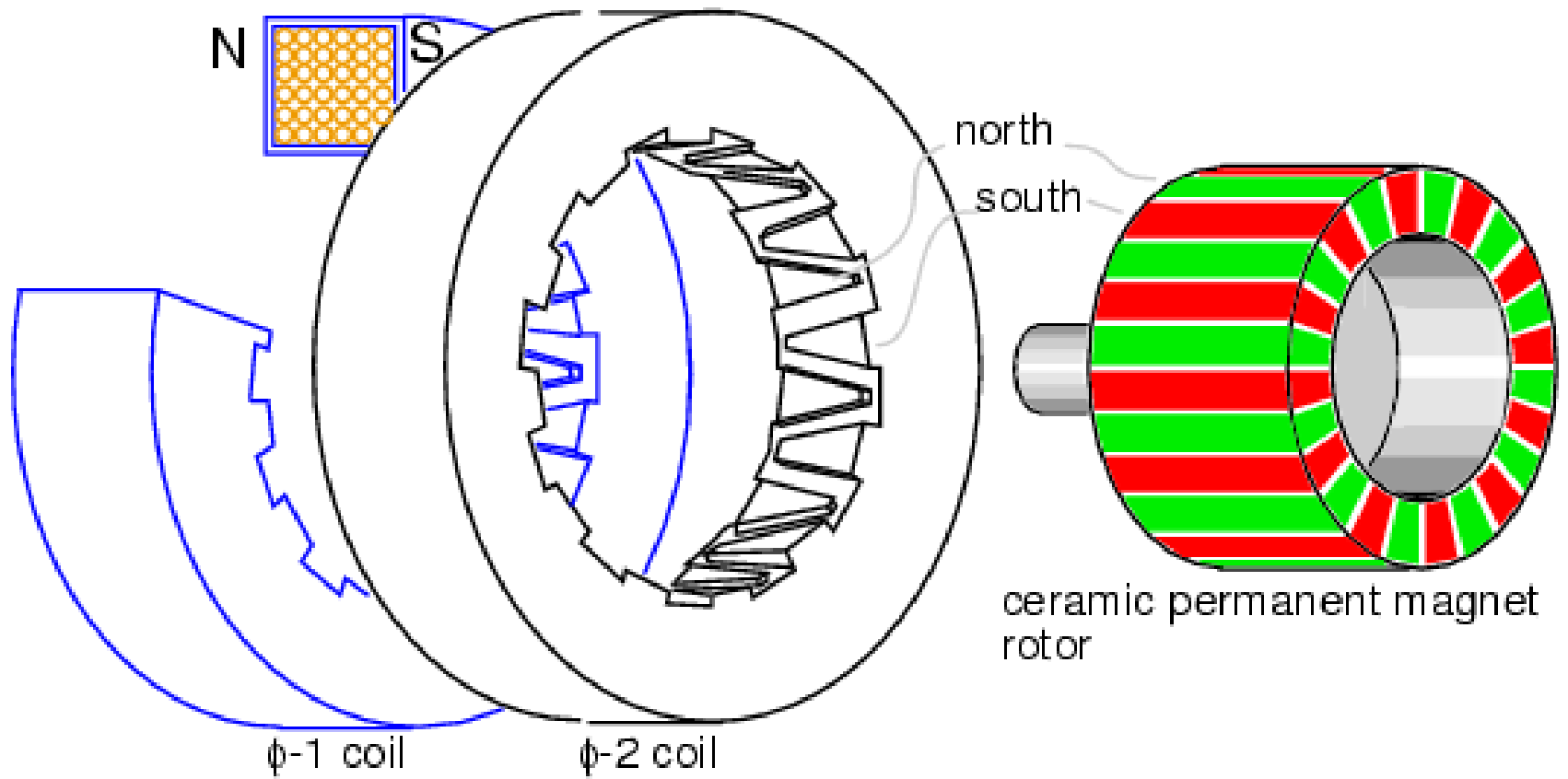
To use a bifilar motor as a bipolar motor, the two wires of each winding are connected either in parallel or in series. Winding 2 in Figure is shown with a parallel connection; this allows low voltage high-current operation. Winding 1 in Figure is shown with a series connection; if the center tap is ignored, this allows operation at a higher voltage and lower current than would be used with the windings in parallel.

Multiphase Motors



A less common class of permanent magnet or hybrid stepping motor is wired with all windings of the motor in a cyclic series, with one tap between each pair of winding in the cycle, or with only one end of each motor winding exposed while the other ends of each winding are tied together to an inaccessible internal connection.

In the context of 3-phase motors, these configurations would be described as Delta and Y configurations, but they are also used with 5-phase motors, as illustrated in Figure. Some multiphase motors expose all ends of all motor windings, leaving it to the user to decide between the Delta and Y configurations, or alternatively, allowing each winding to be driven independently.



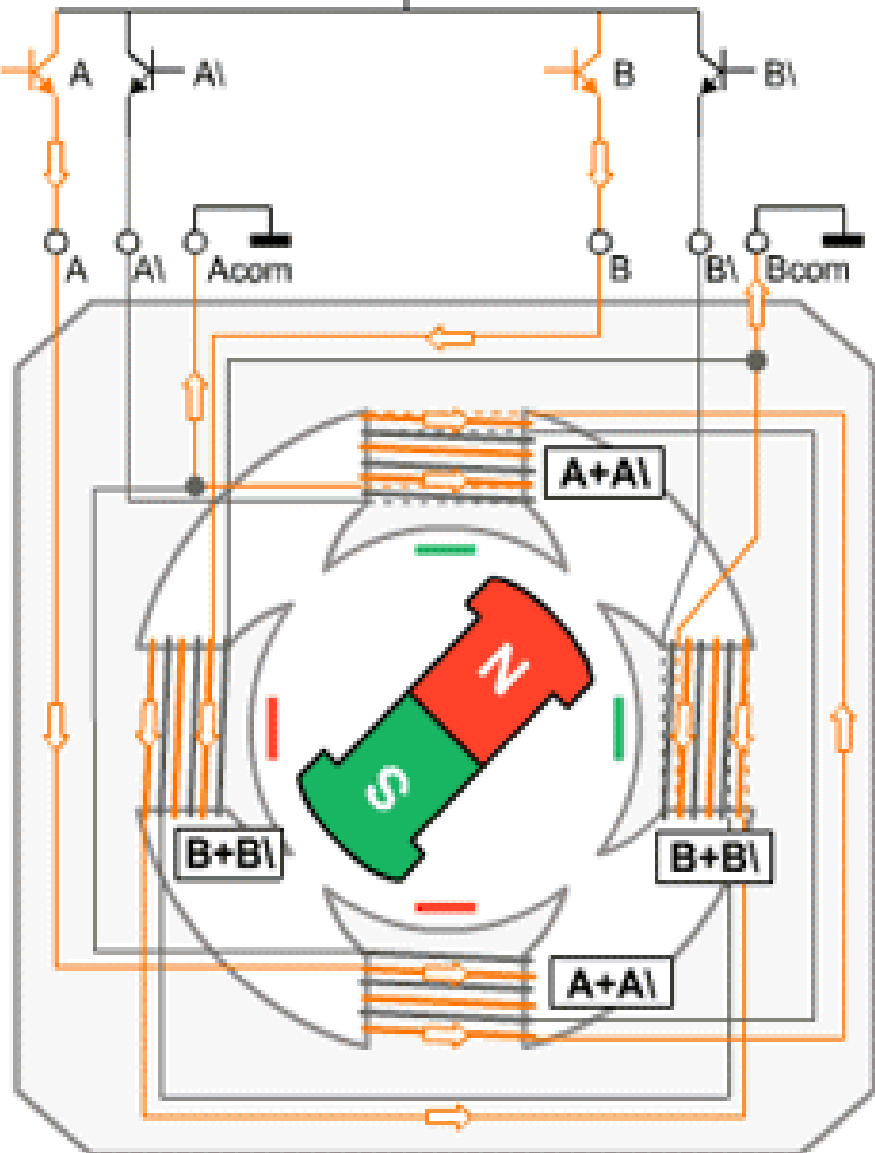
Permanent magnet stepper motor, 24-pole can-stack construction

Full Step Sequence

In the full step sequence, two coils are energized at the same time and motor shaft rotates.

The order in which coils has to be energized is given in the table below.

Full Mode Sequence				
Step	A	B	A\<	B\<
0	1	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0
2	0	0	1	1
3	1	0	0	1



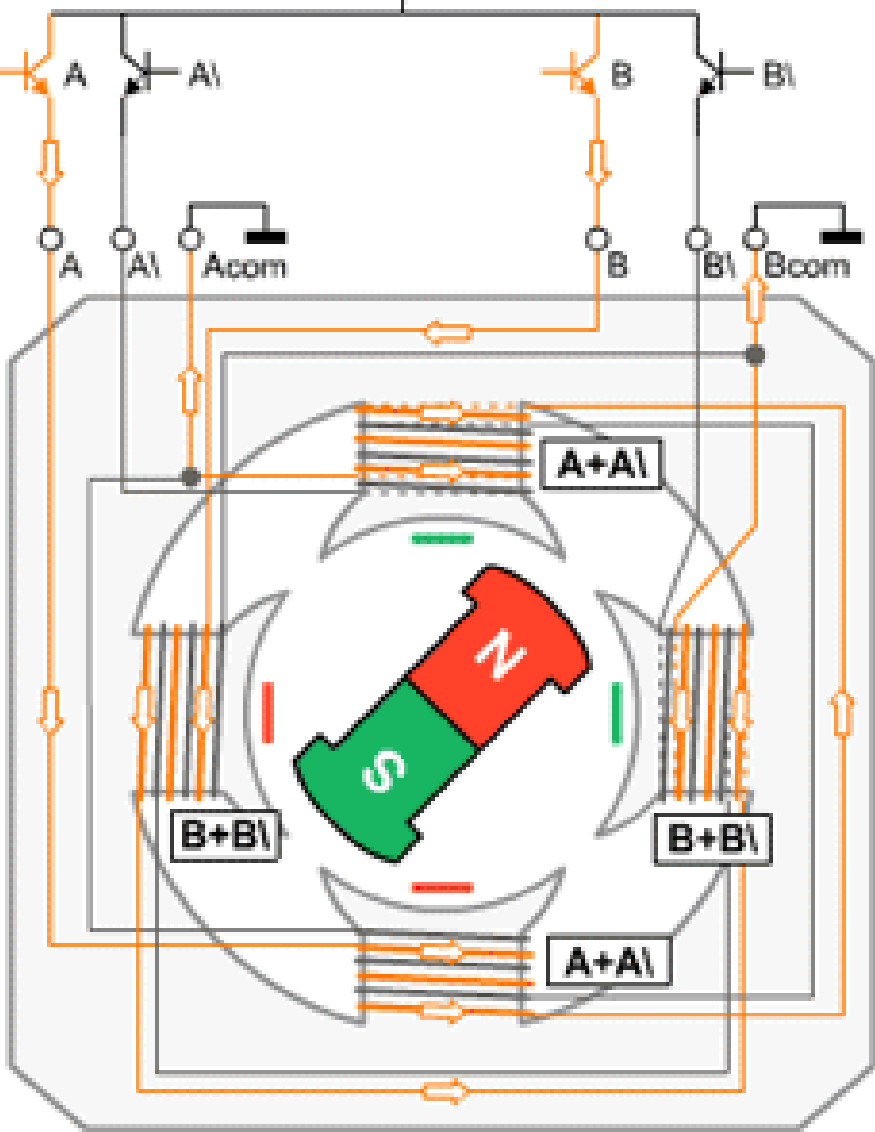
6 Lead Unipolar Driver

Unipolar control is the most simple and cost-effective way to drive a stepper motor, but results in approximately 30% less torque in comparison to the nowadays widely used bipolar drivers. Since the cost advantage is very small today due to cheap integrated circuits, bipolar drivers are now used in most new applications.

Stepmode								
F	0	1	2	3				
H	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
B	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
A\	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
B\	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
dez	12	4	6	2	3	1	9	8

Half Mode Sequence

Step	A	B	A\<	B\<
0	1	1	0	0
1	0	1	0	0
2	0	1	1	0
3	0	0	1	0
4	0	0	1	1
5	0	0	0	1
6	1	0	0	1
7	1	0	0	0

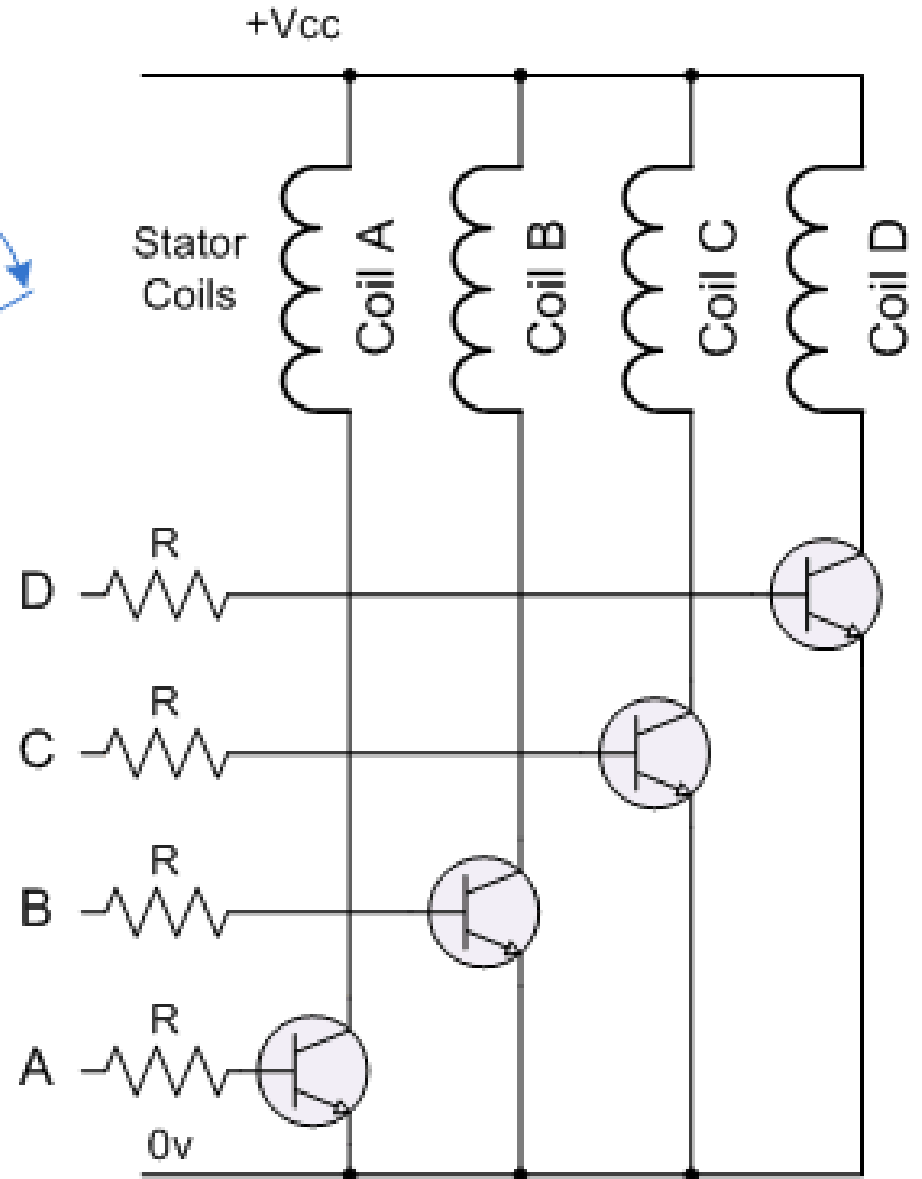
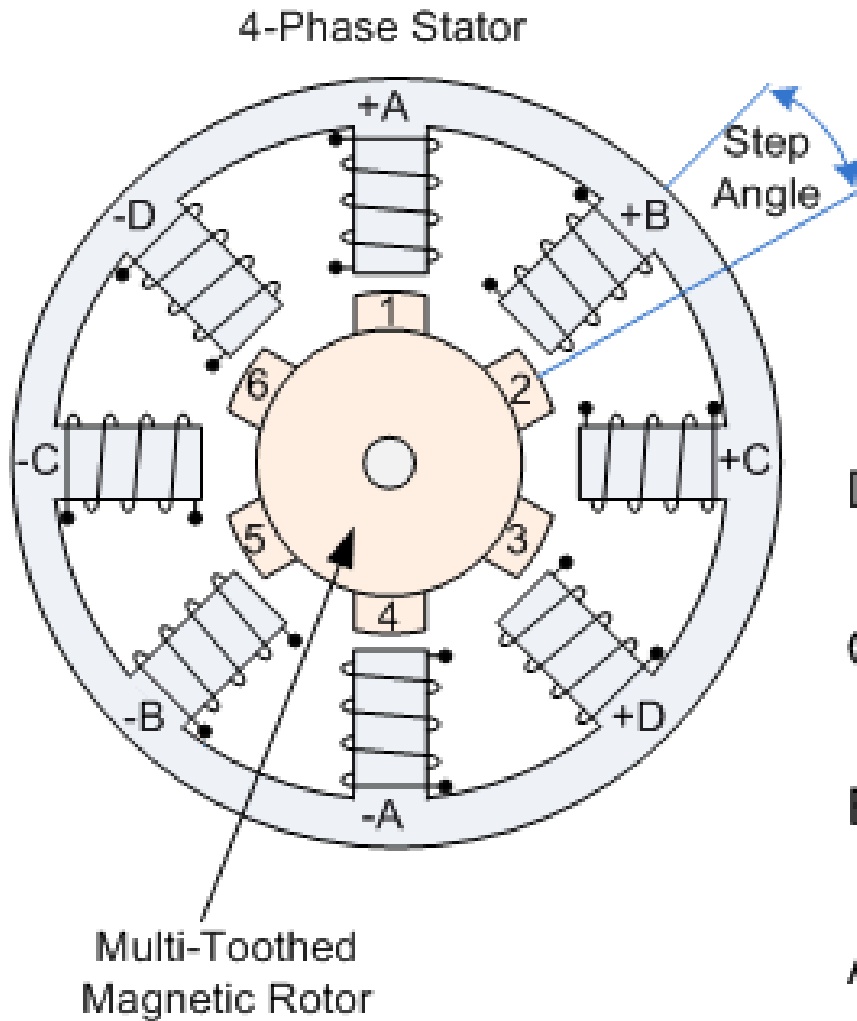


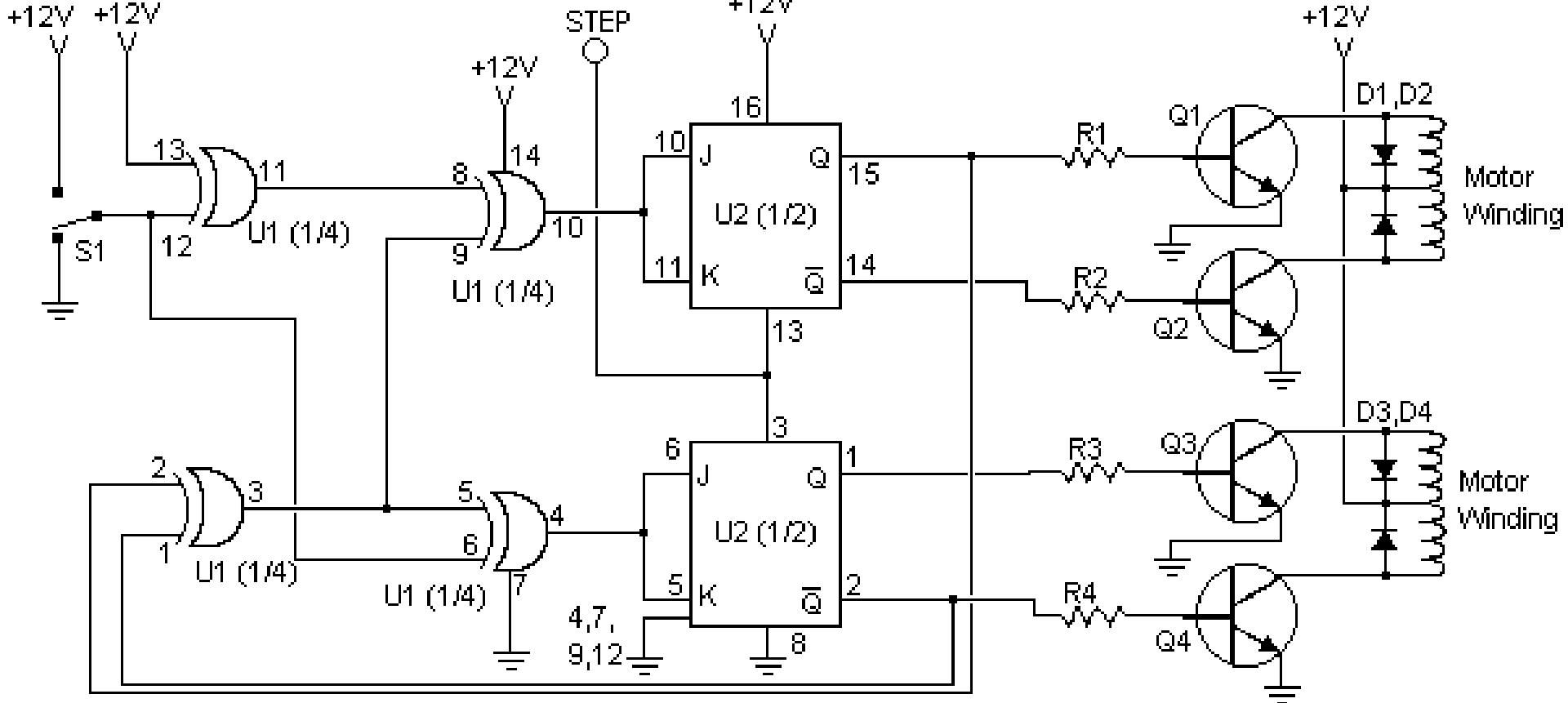
6 Lead Unipolar Driver

Unipolar control is the most simple and cost-effective way to drive a stepper motor, but results in approximately 30% less torque in comparison to the nowadays widely used bipolar drivers. Since the cost advantage is very small today due to cheap integrated circuits, bipolar drivers are now used in most new applications.

Stepmode								
F	0	1	2	3				
H	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
B	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
A	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
B	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
dez	12	4	6	2	3	1	9	8

Stepper Motor and Control Circuit.



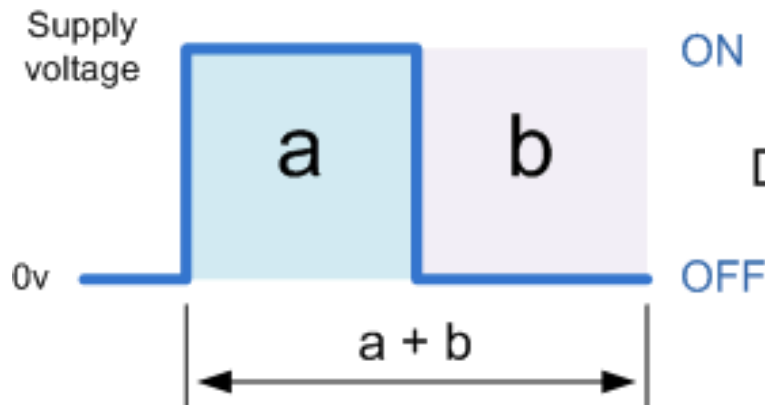
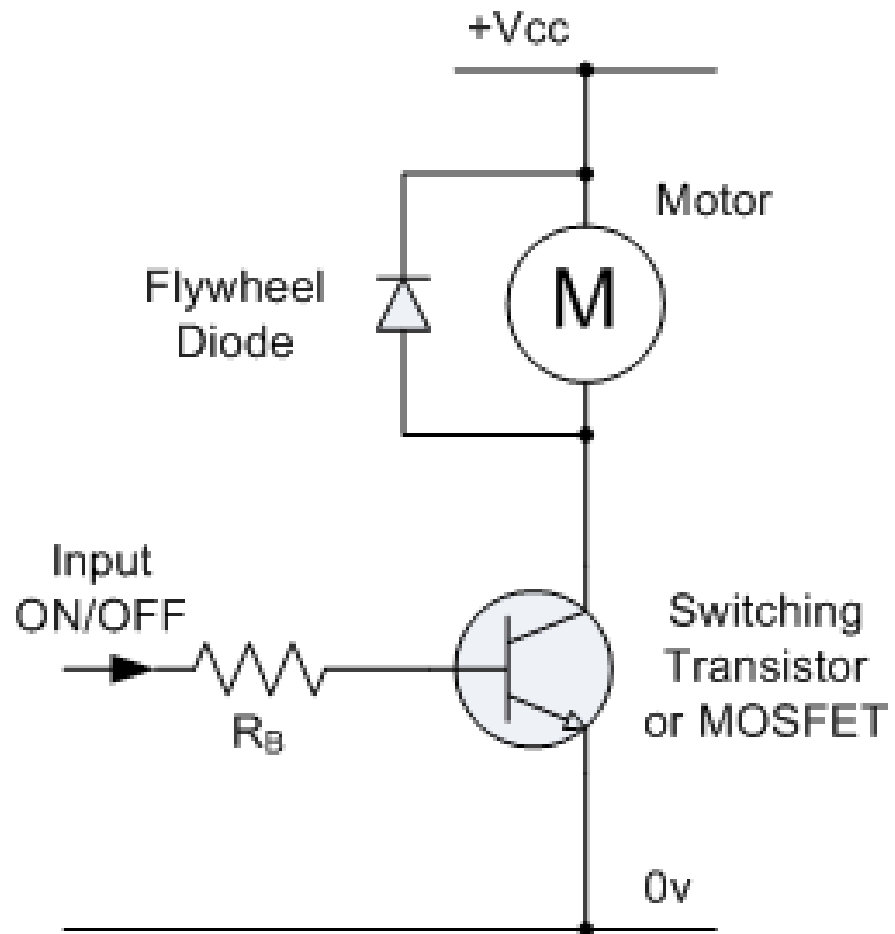


Một mạch điều khiển động cơ bước

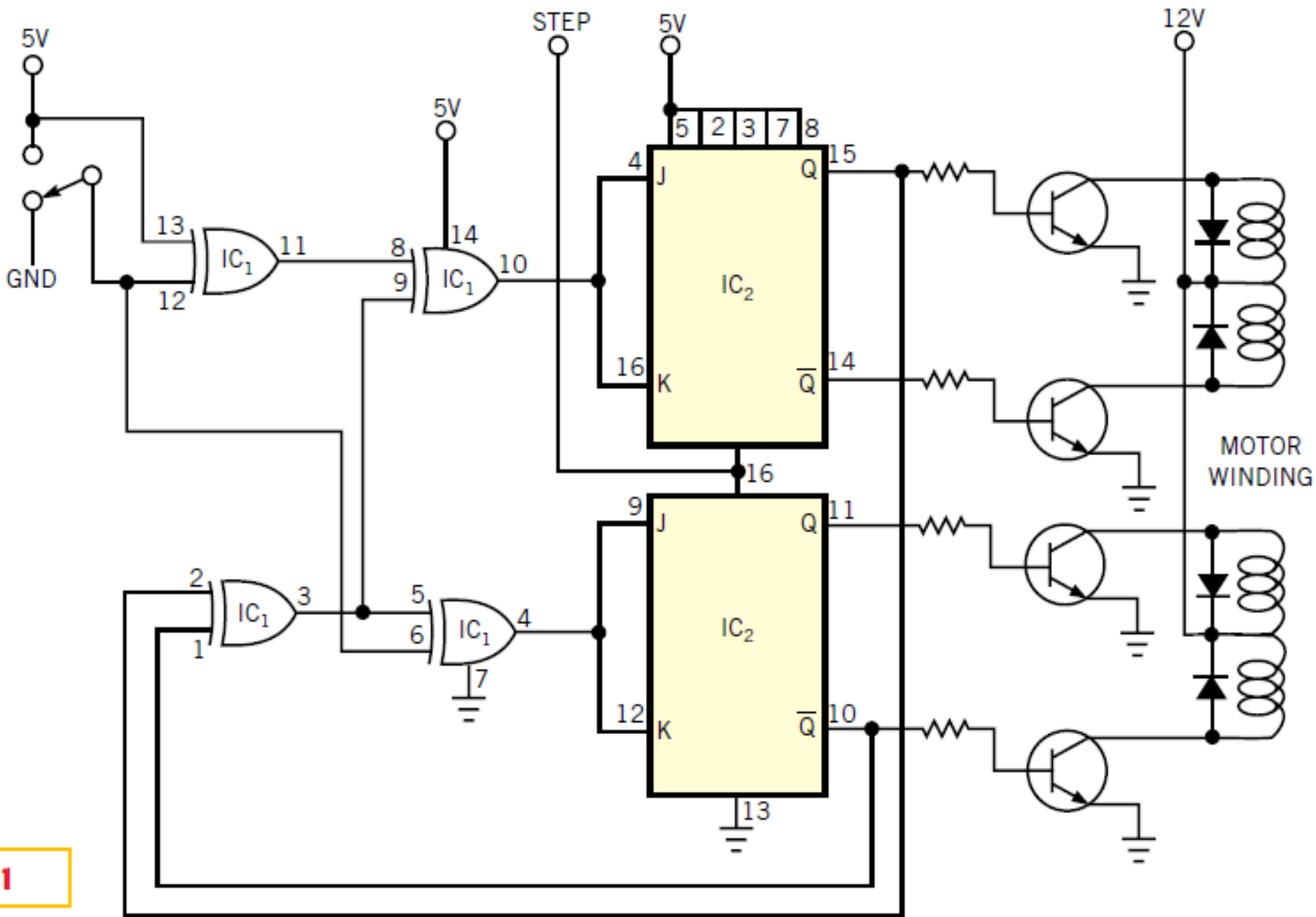
Part	Total Qty.	Description	Substitutions
R1, R2, R3, R4	4	1K 1/4W Resistor	
D1, D2, D3, D4	4	1N4002 Silicon Diode	
Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4	4	TIP31 NPN Transistor (See Notes)	TIP41, 2N3055
U1	1	4070 CMOS XOR Integrated Circuit	
U2	1	4027 CMOS Flip-Flop	
S1	1	SPDT Switch	
MISC	1	Case, Board, Wire, Stepper Motor	

Stepper motors can be controlled directly using transistor switching techniques .

The speed and position of a stepper motor can be accurately controlled using pulses so can operate in an Open-loop mode



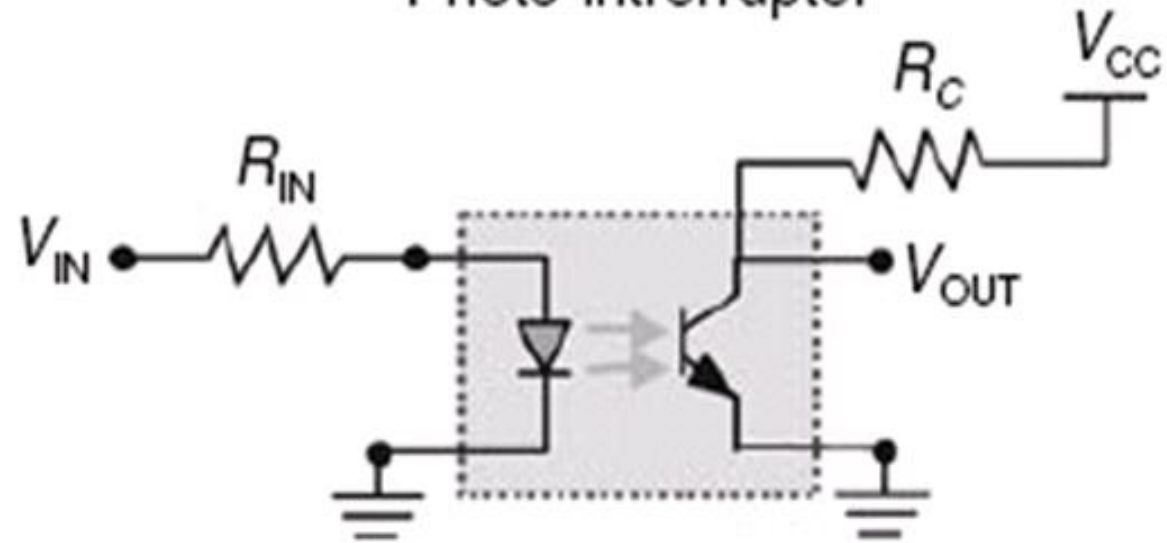
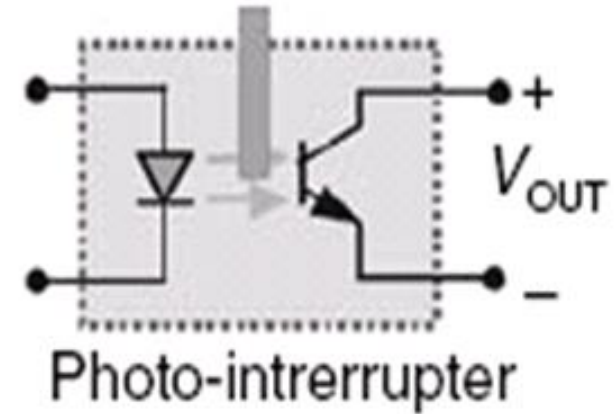
$$\text{Duty Ratio } \beta = \frac{a}{a + b}$$



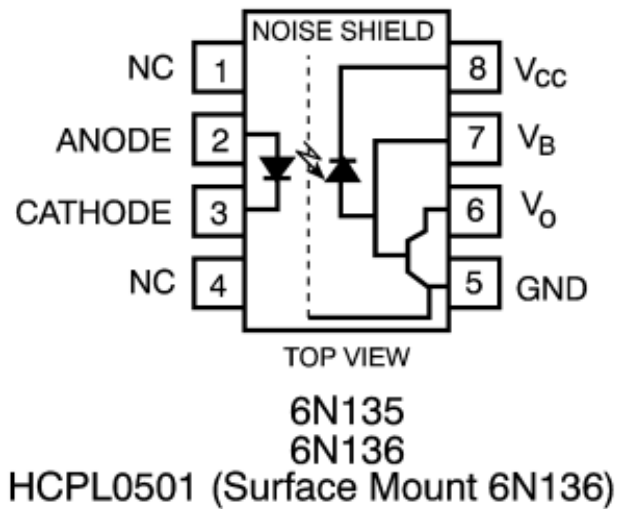
NOTES: IC₁: SN74HC86.
IC₂: SN74LS76A.

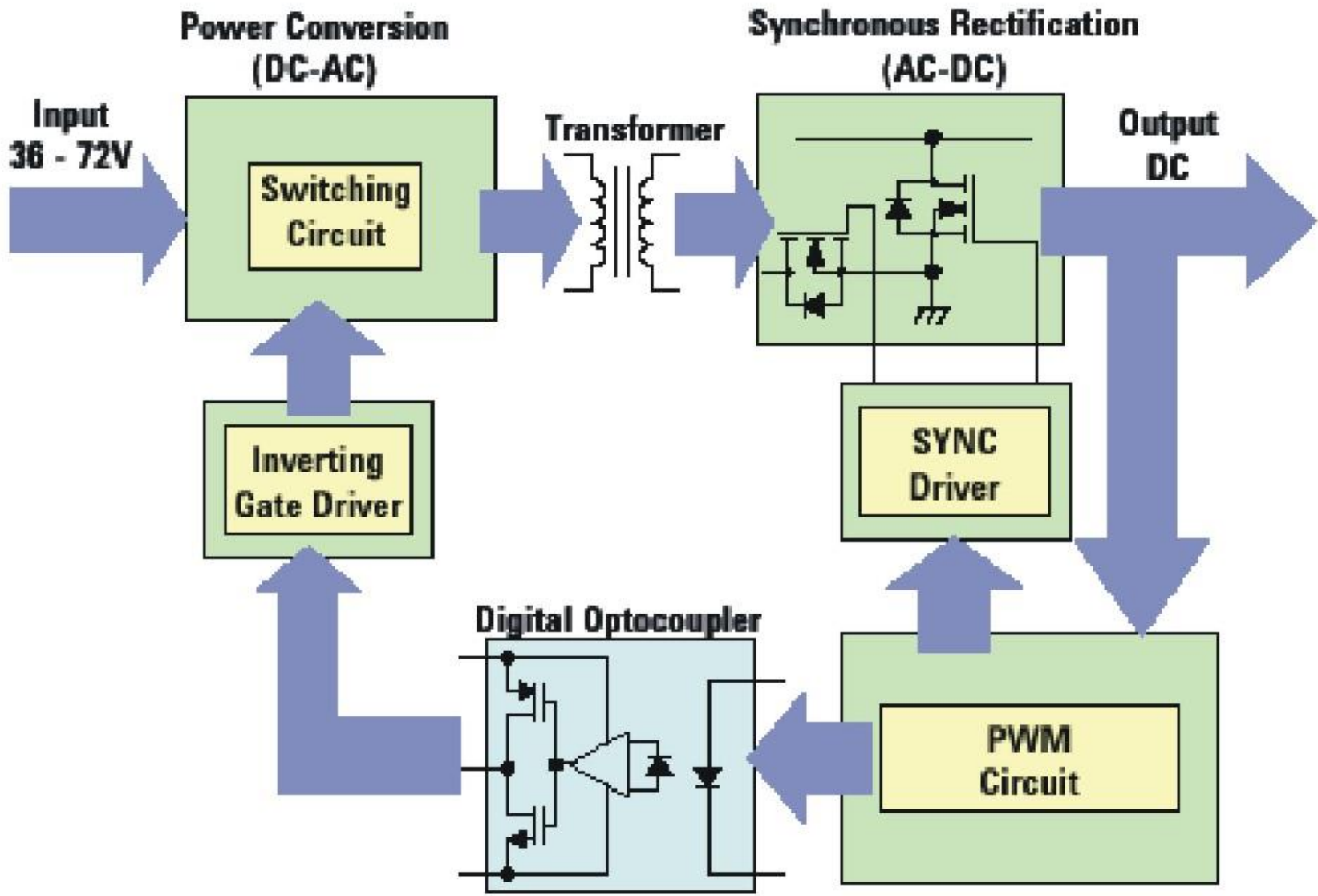
A stepper-motor controller requires only a few logic circuits.

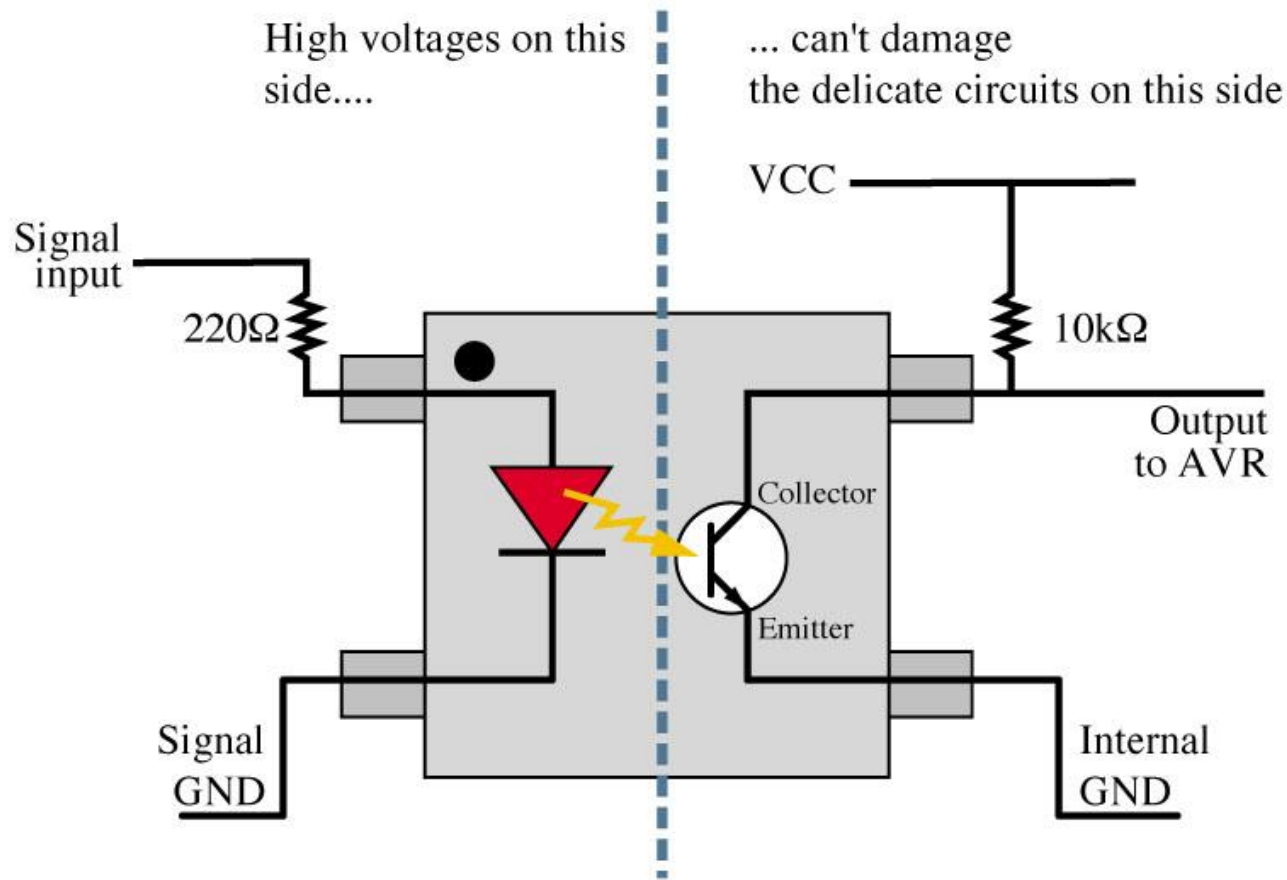
Mạch cách ly quang



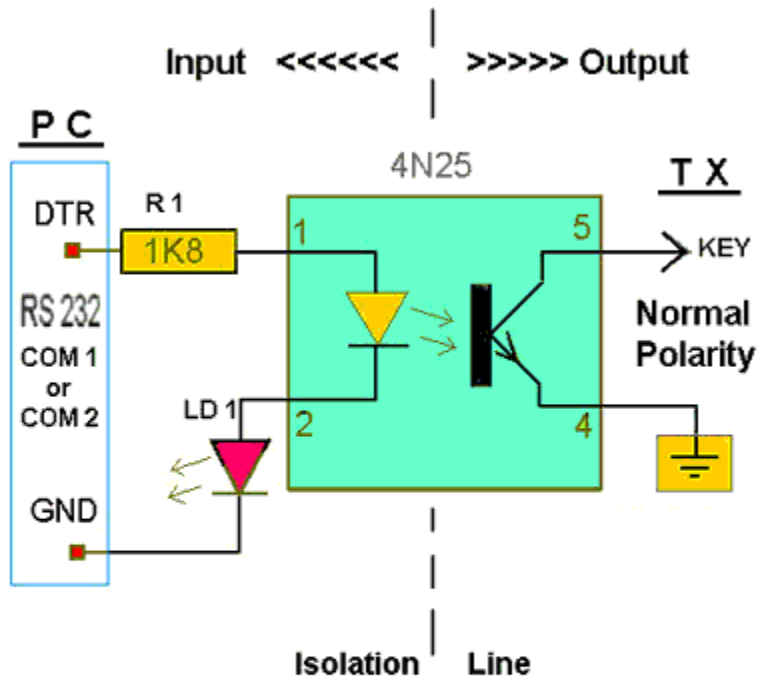
Opto-isolator





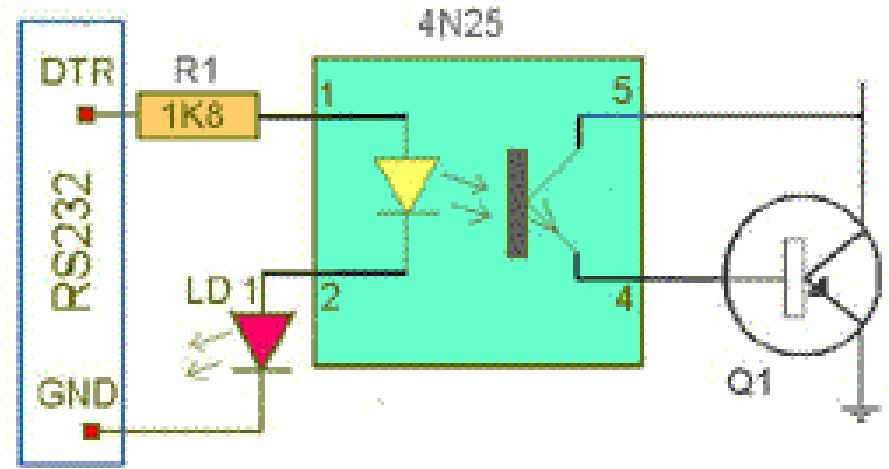


An optocoupler, also called opto-isolator, is an electronic component that transfers an electrical signal or voltage from one part of a circuit to another, or from one circuit to another, while electrically isolating the two circuits from each other. It consists of an infrared emitting LED chip that is optically in-line with a light-sensitive silicon semiconductor chip, all enclosed in the same package. The silicon chip could be in the form of a photo diode, photo transistor, photo Darlington, or photo SCR.



4N25 = Opto coupler
 R1 = 0.25 Watts resistor
 LD1 = Led diode (red)

FIG. 1

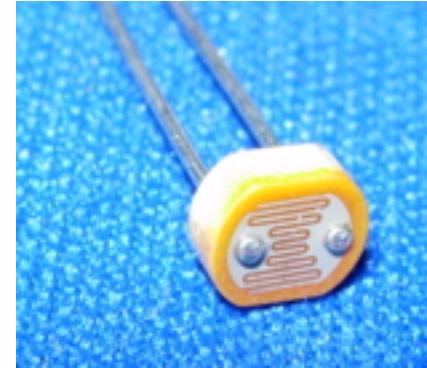


4N25 = Opto coupler
 R1 = 0.25 Watts resistor
 LD1 = Led diode (red)
 Q1 = BD 237

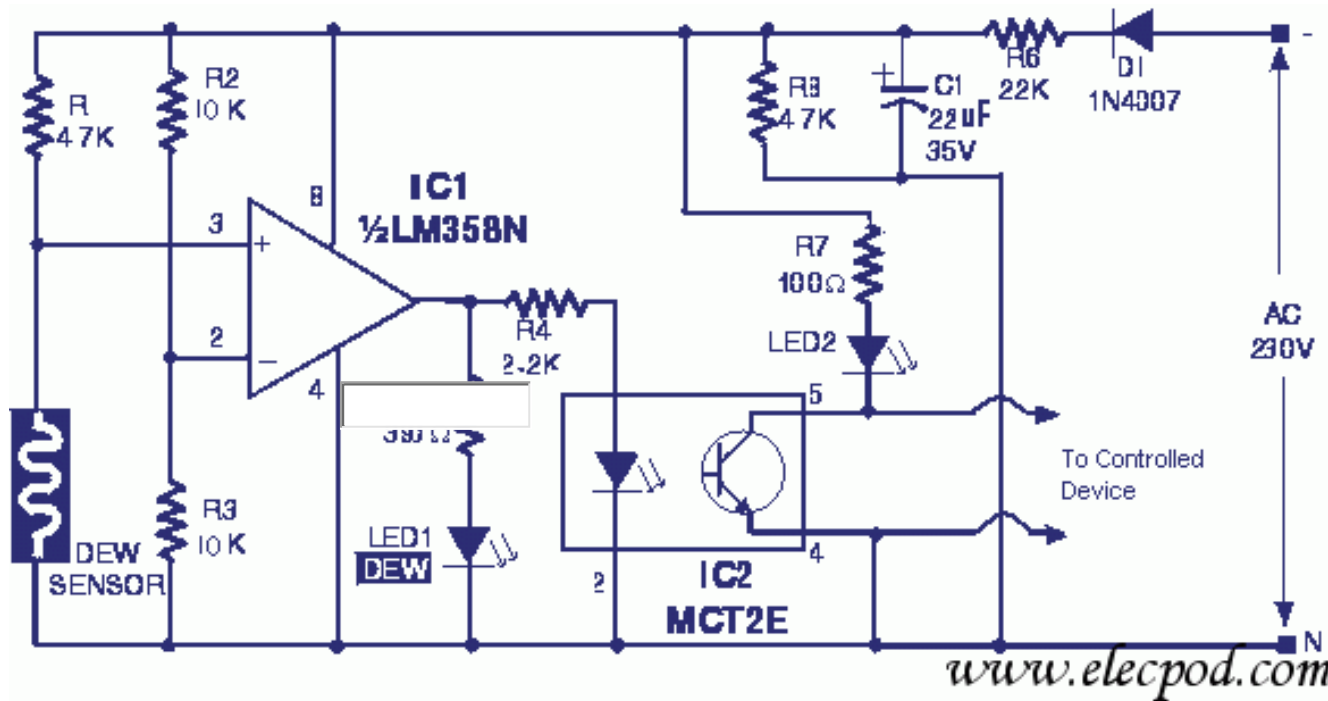
FIG. 2

The isolation voltage of 4N25 opto coupler device is 2,5 KV (peak) and the collector to emmitter breakdown voltage (pin 4,5) has a maximum of 30 Volts. The isolation resistance is 10E11 Ohms ! The circuits has also an external Led diode (LD 1) in order to be able to monitor the "key" pulses. That is very useful during setup configuration between com-ports. If you have selected the right com-port, the LED will be lighting, following the CW code (if you press F1, F2, F3 ... "hot-keys" on CT or SDI). Please, put as LD1 a normal size RED Led (abt 6mm diam.) Sometimes the smaller size Leds need a very low current to illuminate and that is a problem.... maybe a small Led will always light

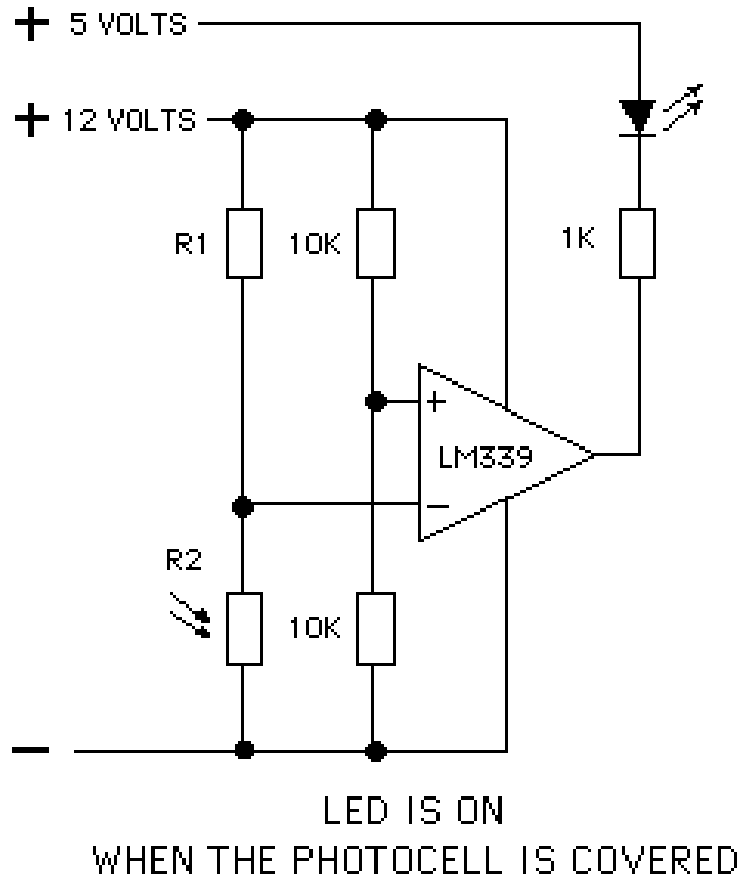
Mạch sử dụng các phần tử quang



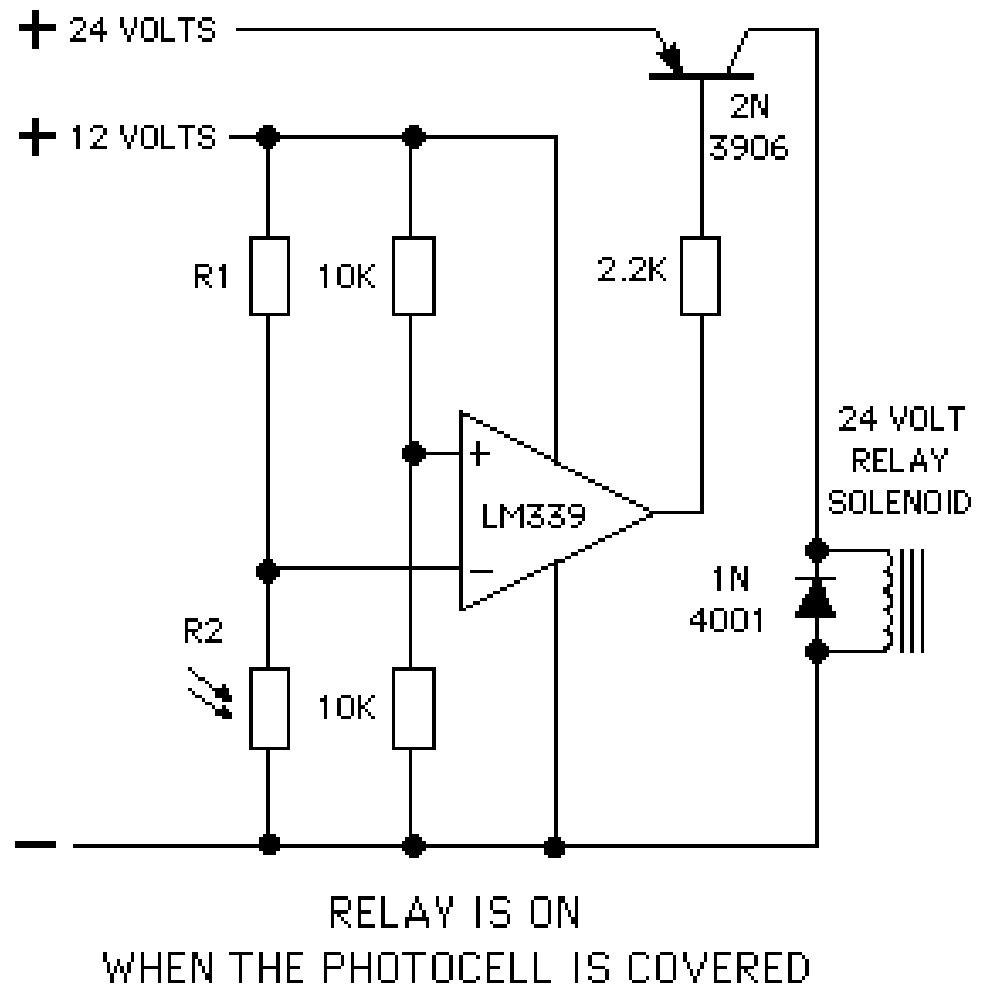
Dew sensitive switch with opto-coupler



BASIC COMPARATOR DUAL VOLTAGE



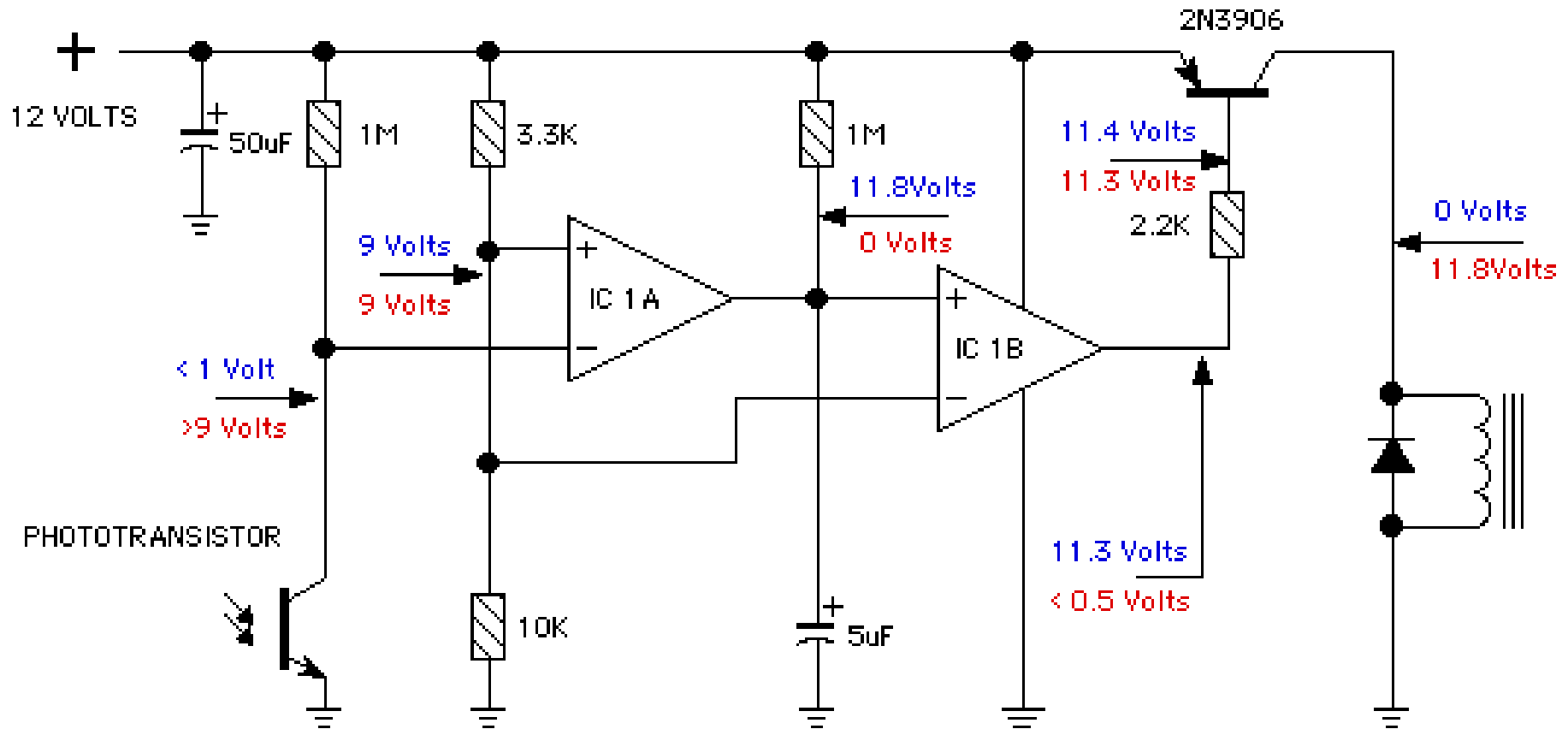
SOLENOID DRIVER OUTPUT DUAL VOLTAGE



LIGHT ACTIVATED RELAY with 5 SECOND RELEASE DELAY

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Comparator LA/TD Relay A

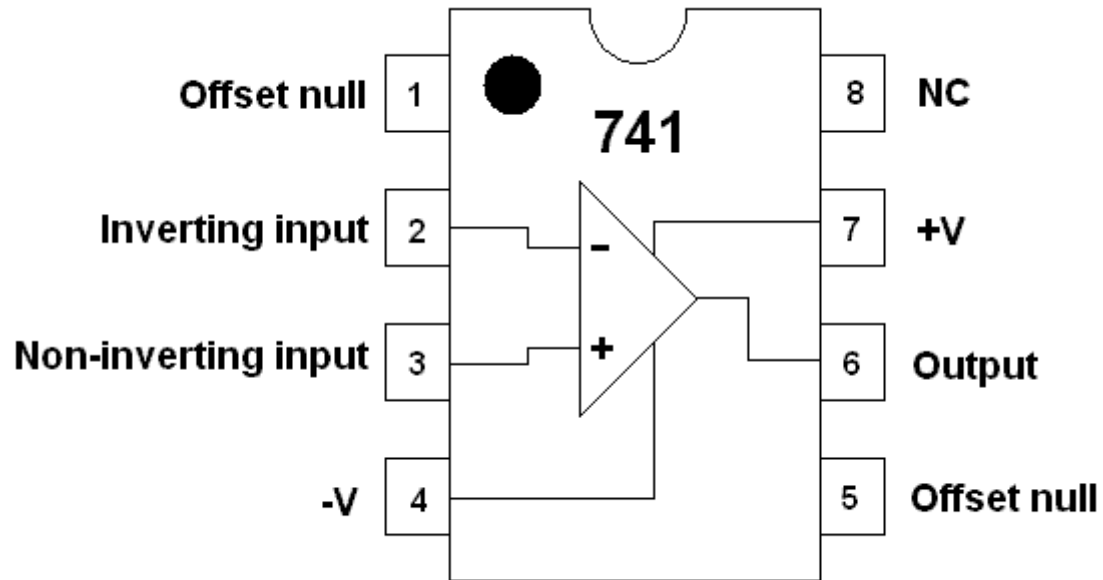


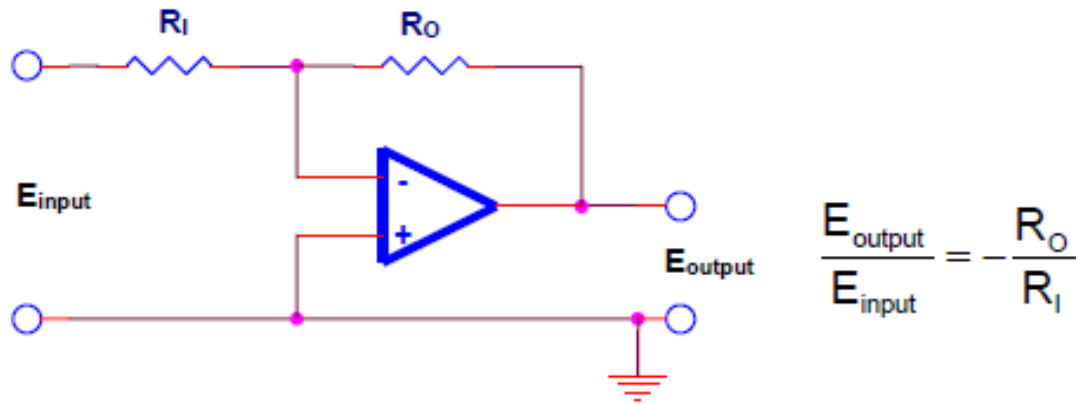
<http://home.cogeco.ca/~rpaisley4/CircuitIndex.html>

Volts - PHOTOTRANSISTORS UNCOVERED

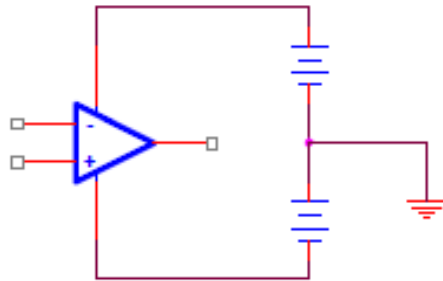
Volts - PHOTOTRANSISTORS COVERED

Khuếch đại thuật toán

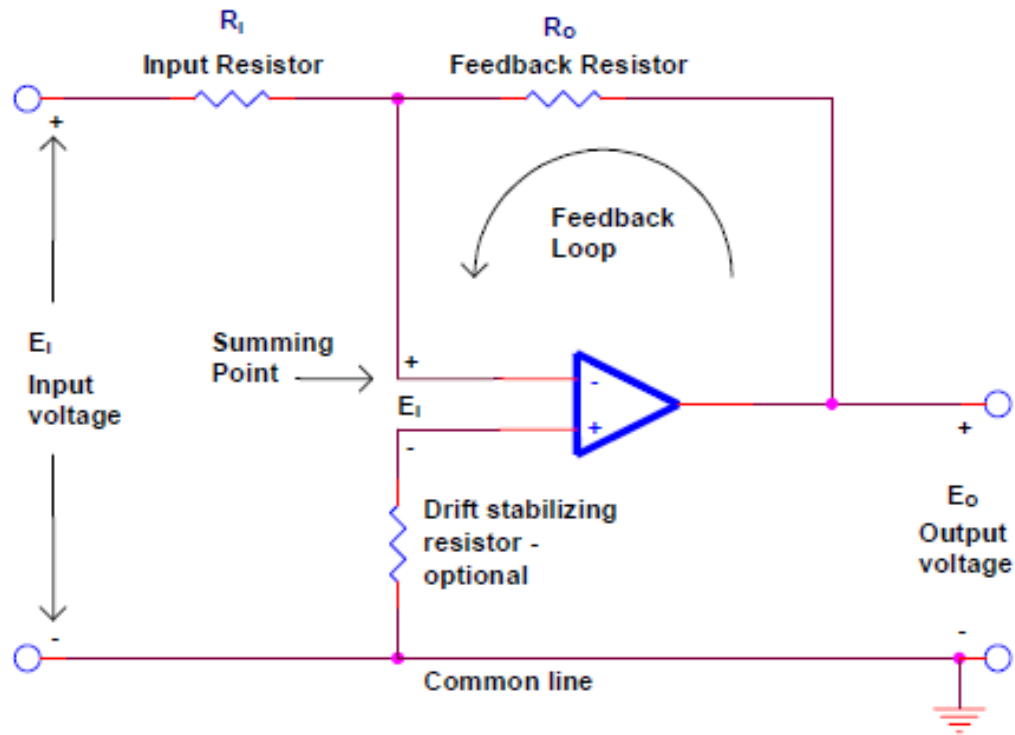




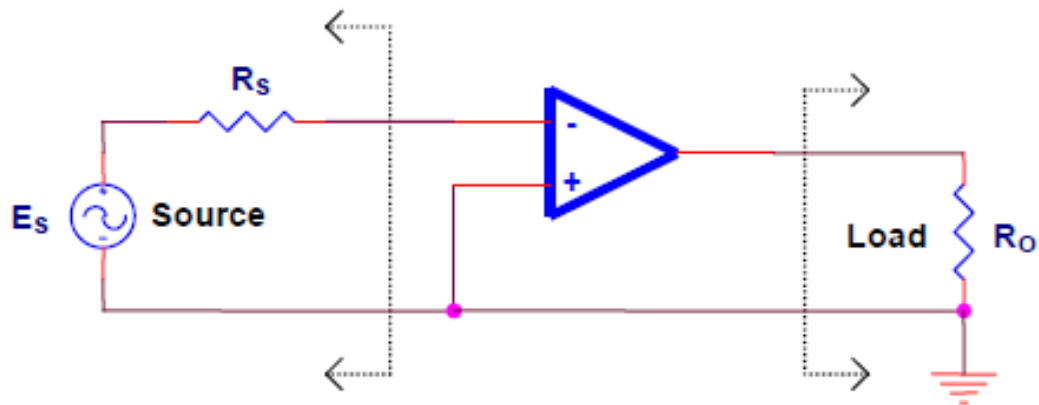
Operational Amplifier with Feedback



Power Supply Connections

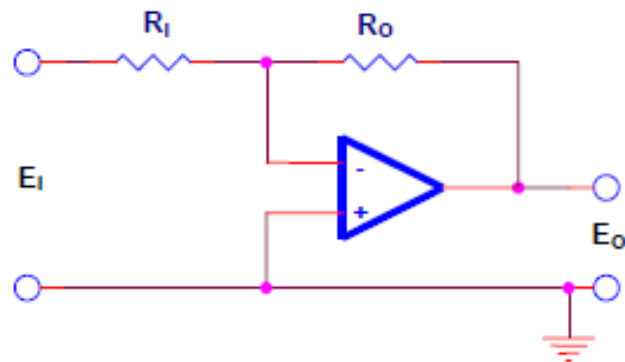


Notation and Terms Used in Closed Loop Circuits



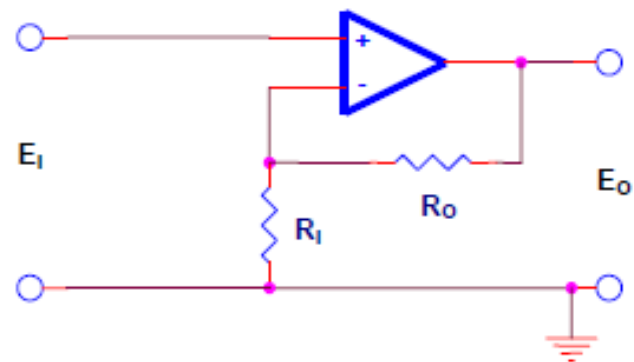
Open Loop Operation

(a) Inverting



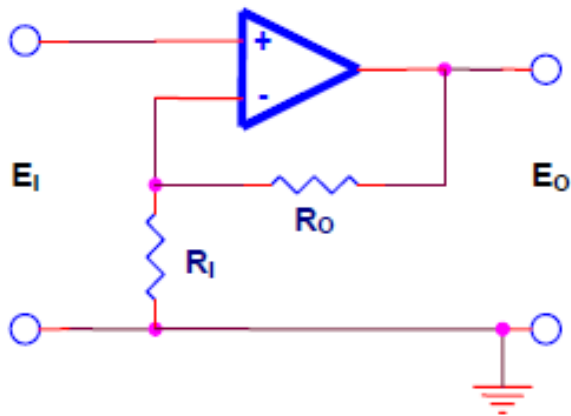
$$E_o = -\frac{R_o}{R_i} E_i$$

(b) Non-Inverting



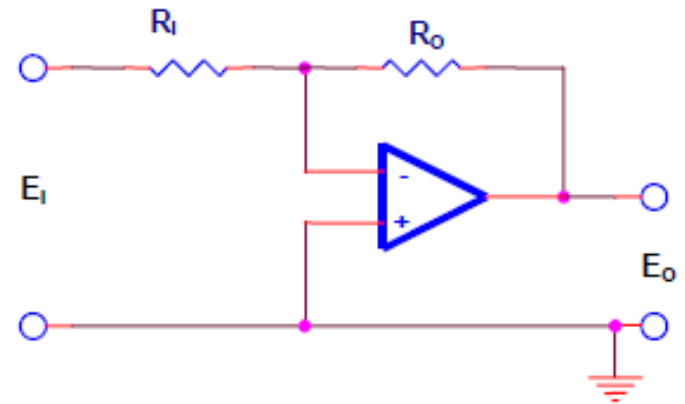
$$E_o = \left(1 + \frac{R_o}{R_i}\right) \cdot E_i$$

Two Important Feedback Circuits



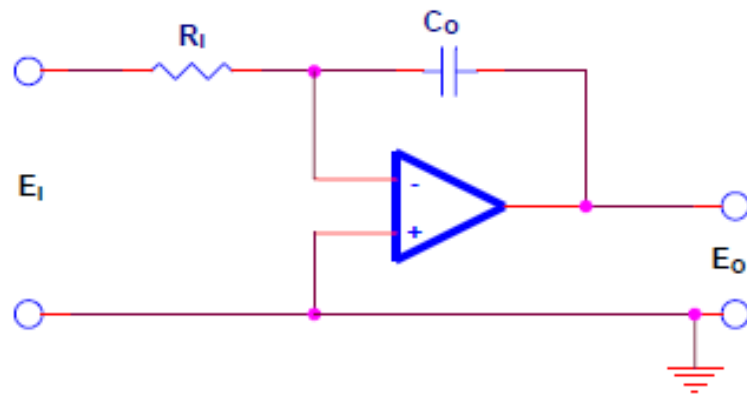
$$E_o = \left(1 + \frac{R_o}{R_i}\right) \cdot E_i$$

Non-Inverting Amplifier



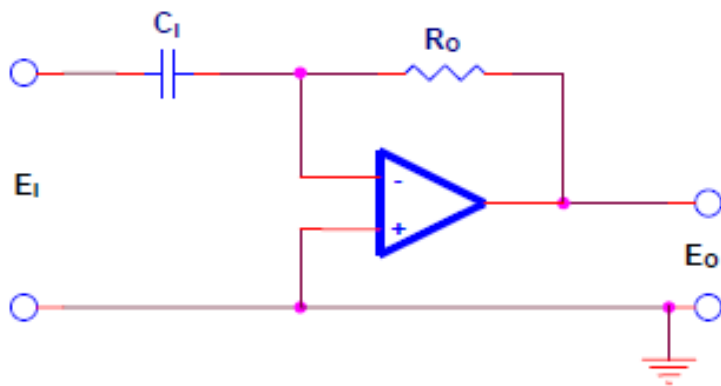
$$\frac{E_o}{E_i} = -\frac{R_o}{R_i}$$

Inverting Amplifier



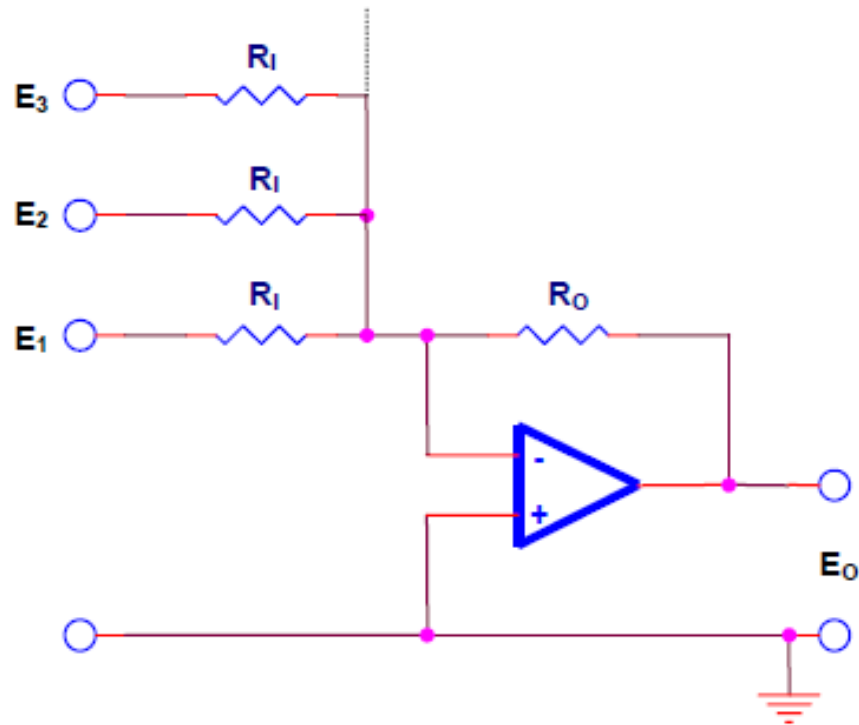
$$E_o = \frac{-1}{R_i C_o} \int E_i dt$$

Integrator Circuit



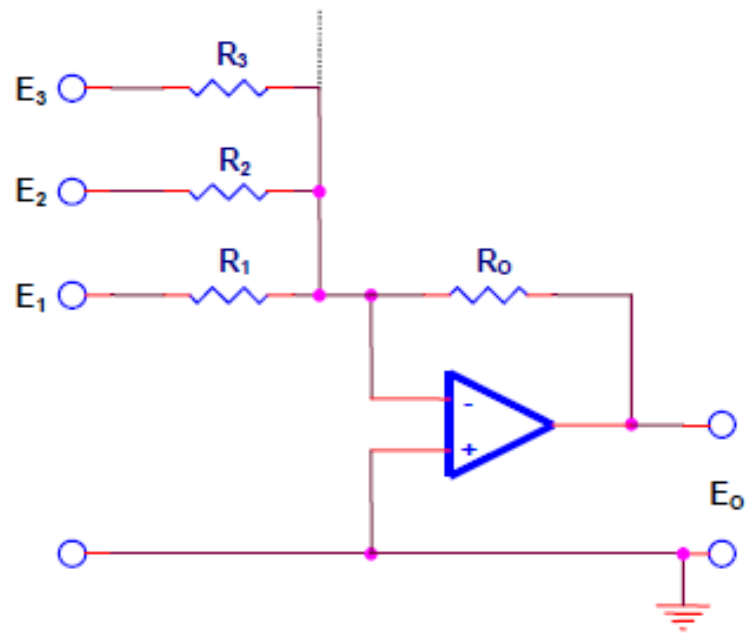
$$E_o = -R_o C_i \frac{dE_i}{dt}$$

Differentiator Circuit



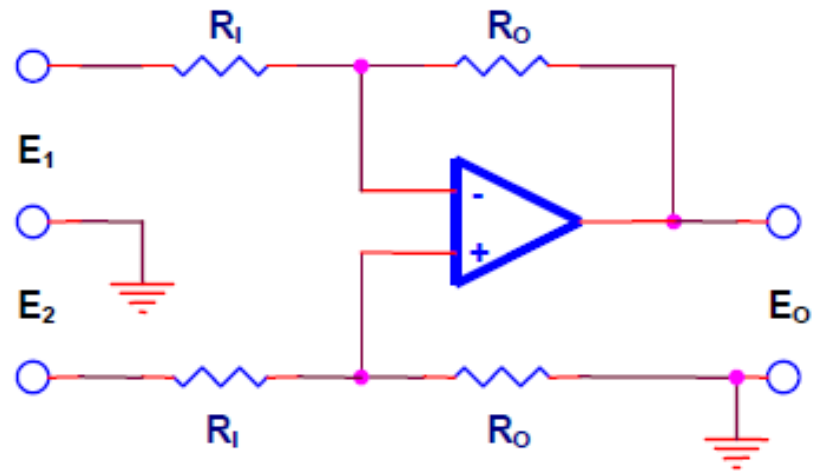
$$E_0 = -\frac{R_0}{R_1}(E_1 + E_2 + E_3 + \dots)$$

Voltage Adding Circuit



$$E_o = -R_o \left(\frac{E_1}{R_1} + \frac{E_2}{R_2} + \frac{E_3}{R_3} + \dots \right)$$

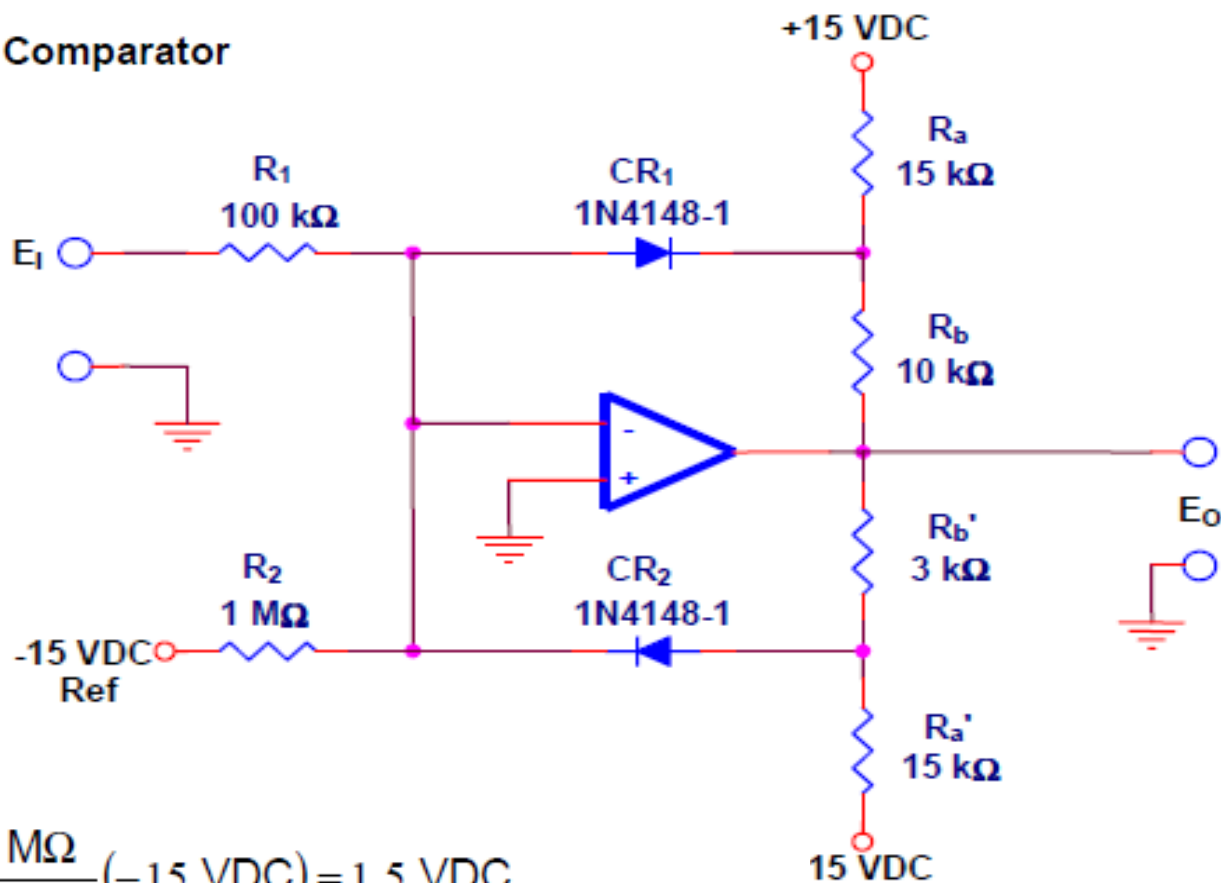
Scaling Summer Circuit



$$E_o = \frac{R_o}{R_1}(E_2 - E_1)$$

Differential Input Amplifier Circuit

Fully Clamped Voltage Comparator



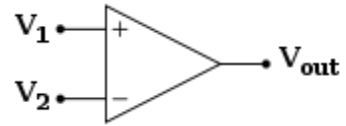
$$\text{Threshold} = -\frac{R_2}{R_1} V_{\text{ref}} = -\frac{1 \text{ M}\Omega}{100 \text{ k}\Omega} (-15 \text{ VDC}) = 1.5 \text{ VDC}$$

$$\text{Negative clamping level} = \frac{-\left(+V_{\text{sup}}\right) R_b}{R_a} = \frac{-15 \text{ VDC} \cdot 10 \text{ k}\Omega}{15 \text{ k}\Omega} = -10 \text{ VDC}$$

$$\text{Positive clamping level} = \frac{-\left(-V_{\text{sup}}\right) R_b}{R_a} = \frac{+15 \text{ VDC} \cdot 3 \text{ k}\Omega}{15 \text{ k}\Omega} = +3 \text{ VDC}$$

$E_o = -10 \text{ VDC}$ for $E_i > 1.5 \text{ VDC}$

$E_o = +3 \text{ VDC}$ for $E_i < 1.5 \text{ VDC}$



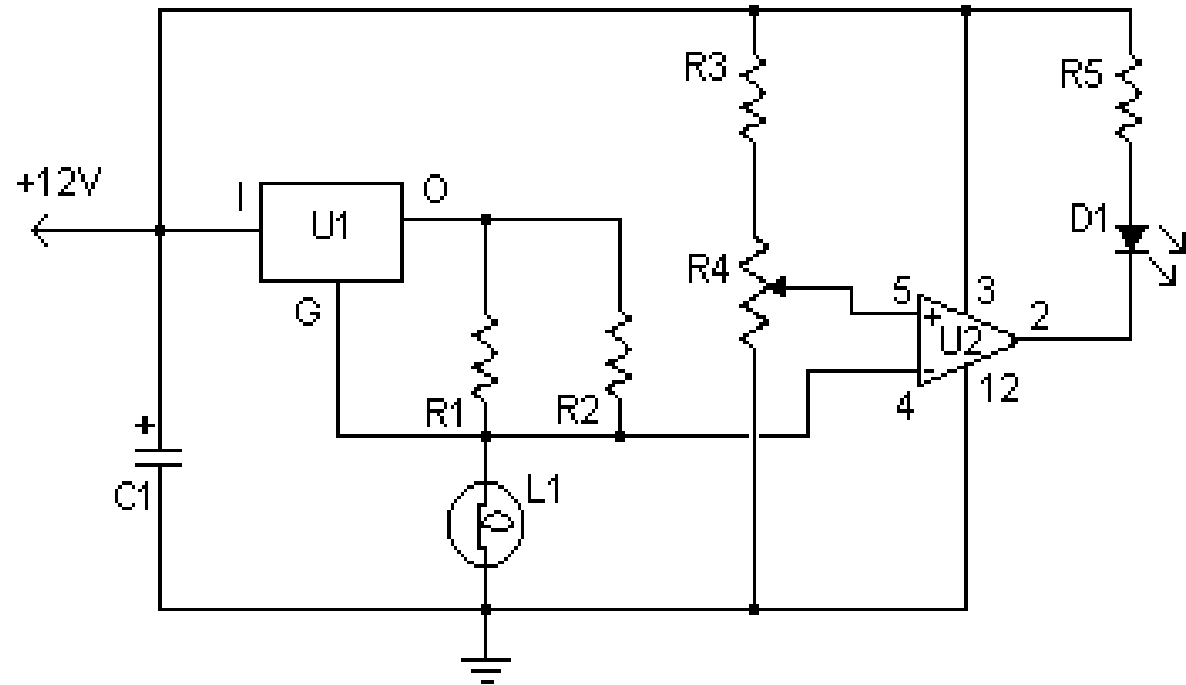
Comparator

Compares two voltages and outputs one of two states depending on which is greater

$$V_{\text{out}} = \begin{cases} V_{S+} & V_1 > V_2 \\ V_{S-} & V_1 < V_2 \end{cases}$$

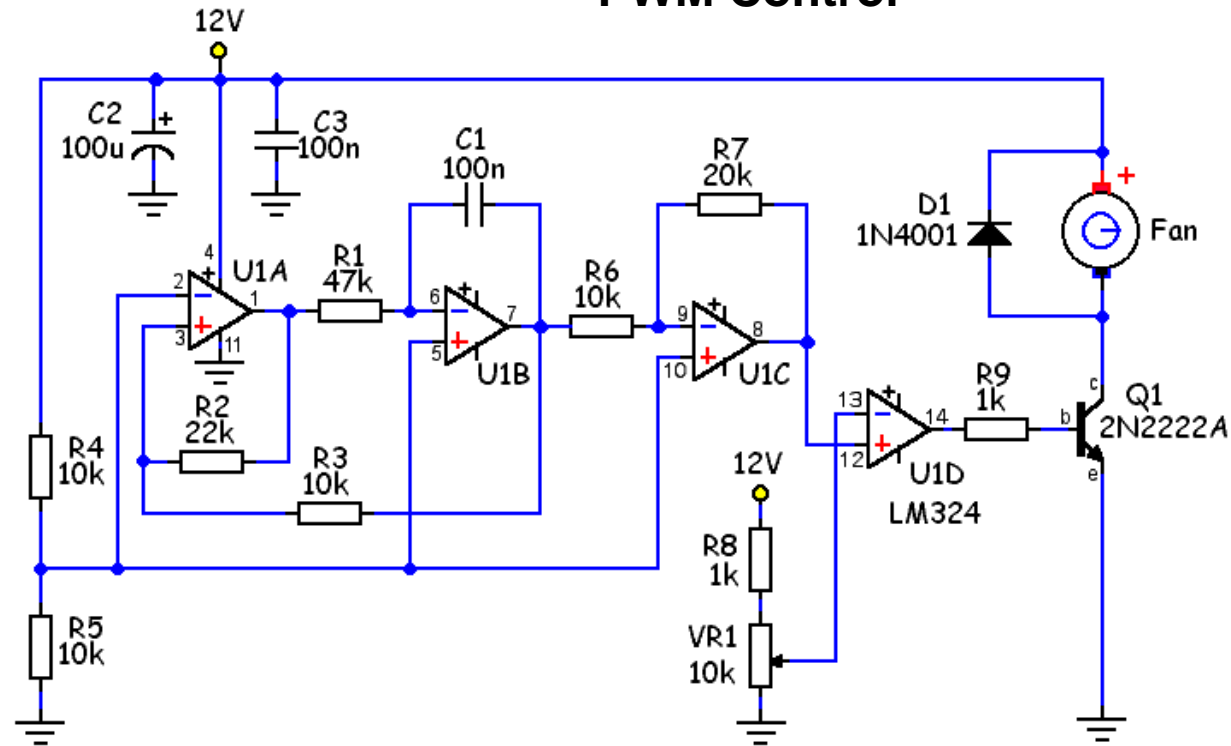
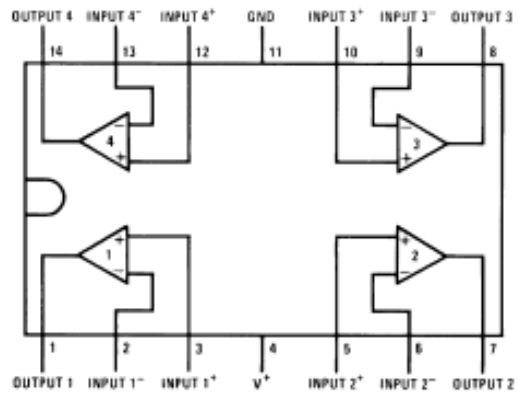
This simple circuit uses an incandescent lamp to detect airflow. With the filament exposed to air, a constant current source is used to slightly heat the filament. As it is heated, the resistance increases. As air flows over the filament it cools down, thus lowering it's resistance. A comparator is used to detect this difference and light an LED. With a few changes, the circuit can be connected to a meter or ADC to provide an estimation on the amount of air flow

Part	Total Qty.	Description
R1	1	100 Ohm 1/4W Resistor
R2	1	470 Ohm 1/4W Resistor
R3	1	10k 1/4W Resistor
R4	1	100K 1/4W Resistor
R5	1	1K 1/4W Resistor
C1	1	47uF Electrolytic Capacitor
U1	1	78L05 Voltage Regulator
U2	1	LM339 Op Amp
L1	1	#47 Incandescent lamp with glass removed
D1	1	LED
MISC	1	Board, Wire, Sockets for ICs, etc.



The glass will have to be removed from L1 without breaking the filament. Wrap the glass in masking tape and it in a vise. Slowly crank down until the glass breaks, then remove the bulb and carefully peel back the tape. If the filament has broken, you will need another lamp

PWM Control



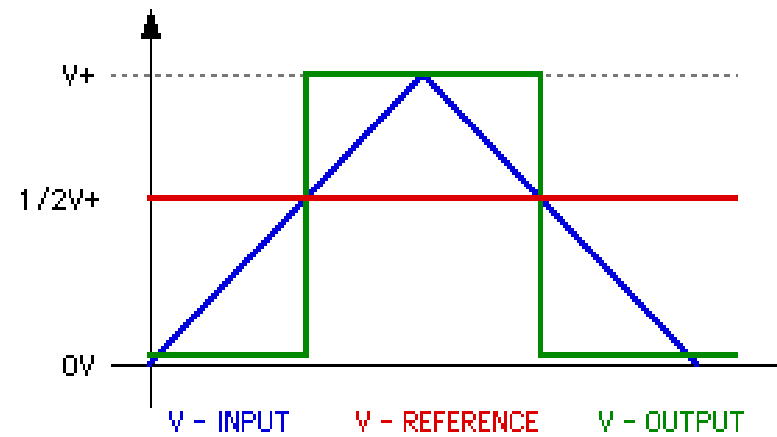
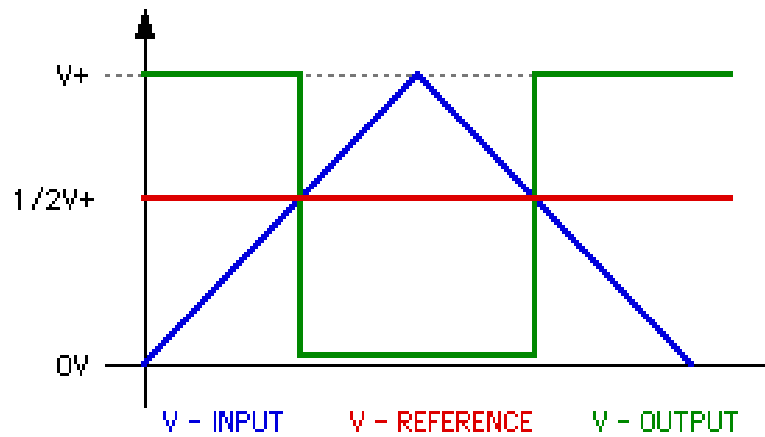
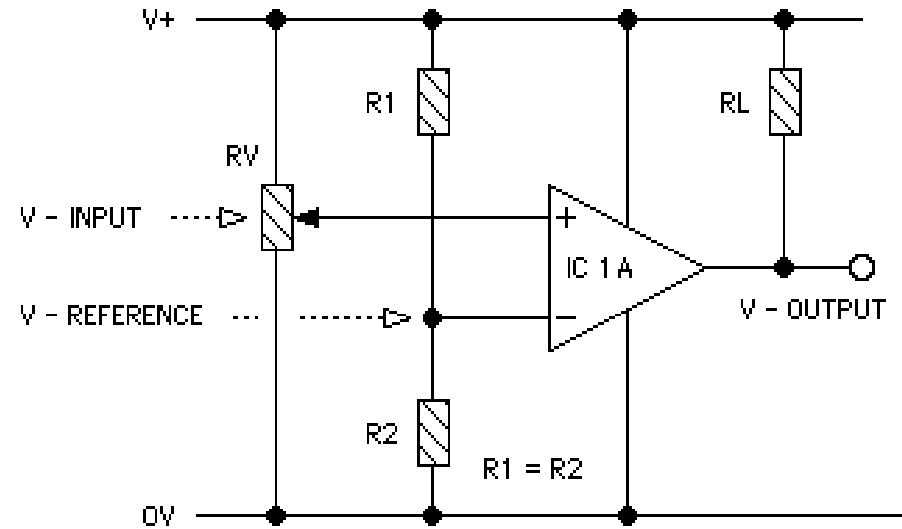
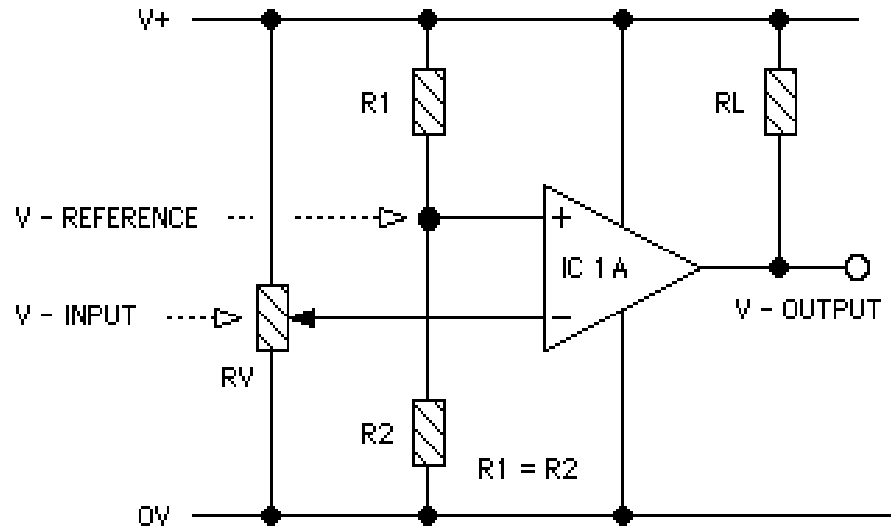
BASIC OPERATION OF VOLTAGE COMPARATORS

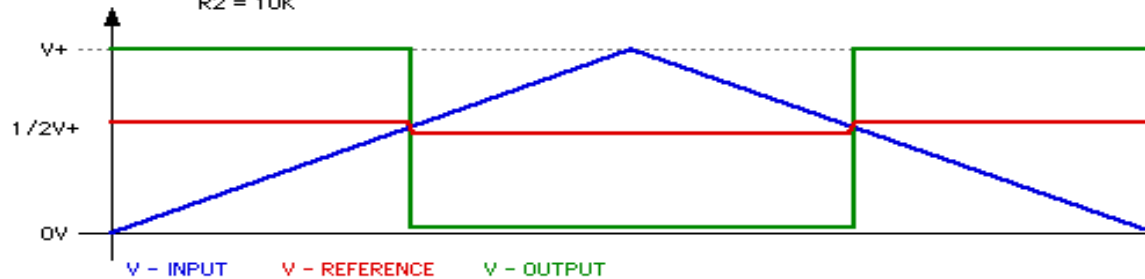
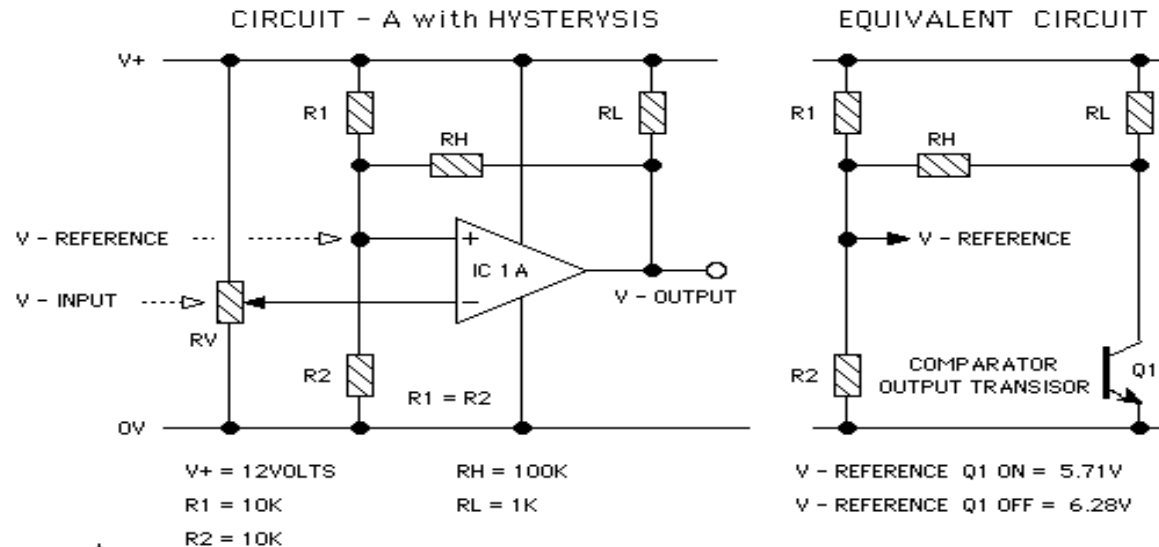
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Comparator Operation

CIRCUIT - A

CIRCUIT - B





FINDING COMBINED RESISTANCES

OUTPUT TRANSISTOR - ON

$$\frac{1}{\frac{1}{R1} + \frac{1}{RL + RH}} = R1\text{combined}$$

OUTPUT TRANSISTOR - OFF

$$\frac{1}{\frac{1}{R2} + \frac{1}{RH}} = R2\text{combined}$$

CALCULATING REFERENCE VOLTAGES

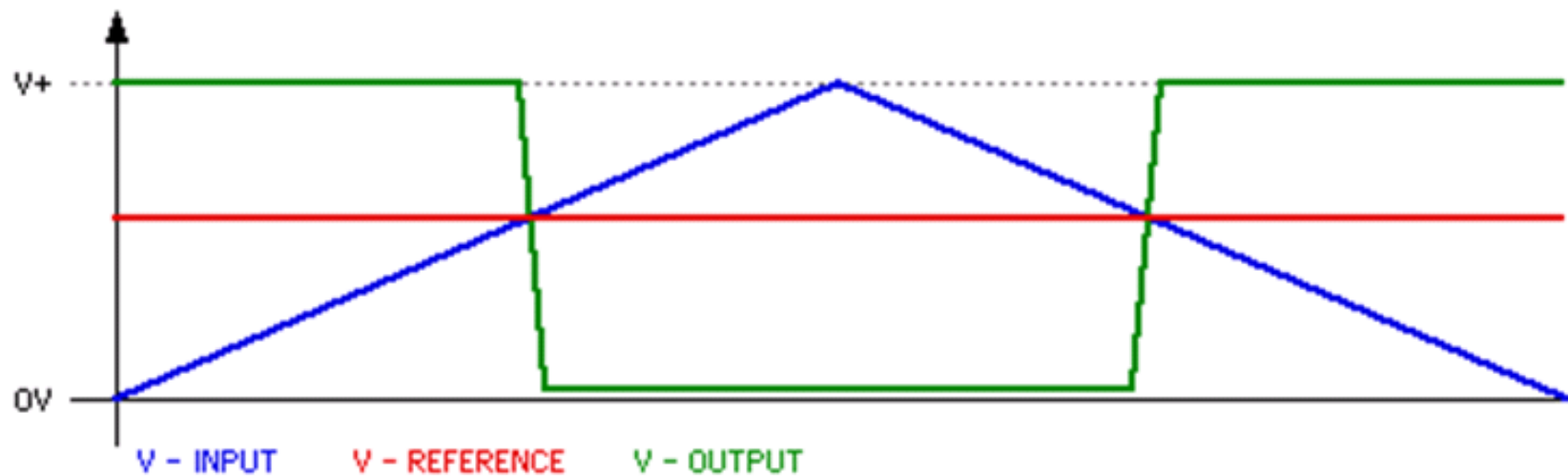
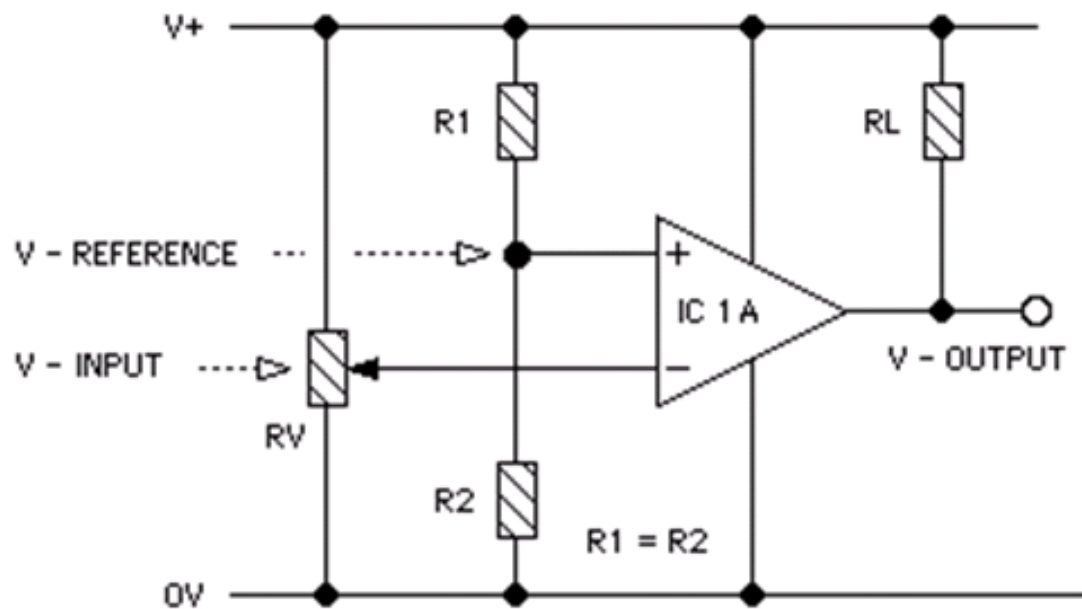
OUTPUT TRANSISTOR - ON

$$\frac{V+}{R1\text{combined} + R2} \times R2 = V- \text{ REFERENCE}$$

OUTPUT TRANSISTOR - OFF

$$\frac{V+}{R1 + R2\text{combined}} \times R2\text{combined} = V- \text{ REFERENCE}$$

- THE VOLTAGE DROP ACROSS THE COMPARATORS OUTPUT TRANSISTOR HAS BEEN IGNORED IN THE ABOVE CALCULATIONS

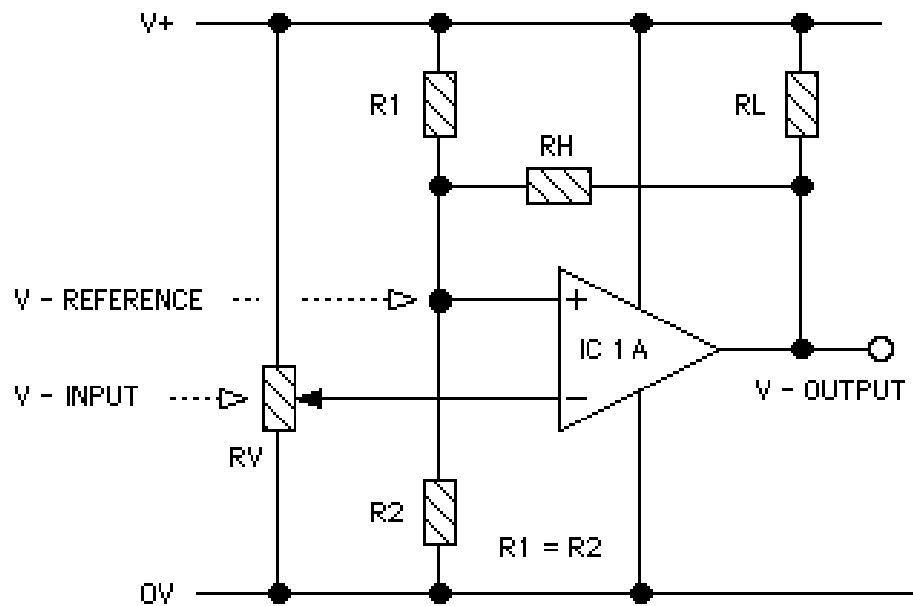


ADDING HYSTERESIS TO COMPARATORS

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Comparator Hysteresis b

CIRCUIT - A with HYSTERESIS



$V+ = 12\text{VOLTS}$

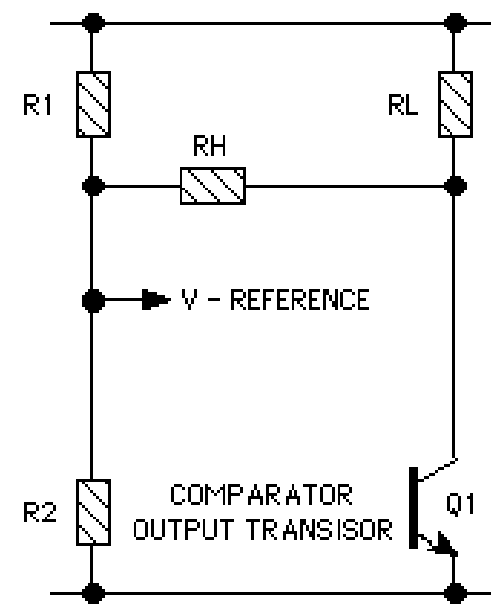
$R1 = 10\text{K}$

$R2 = 10\text{K}$

$RH = 100\text{K}$

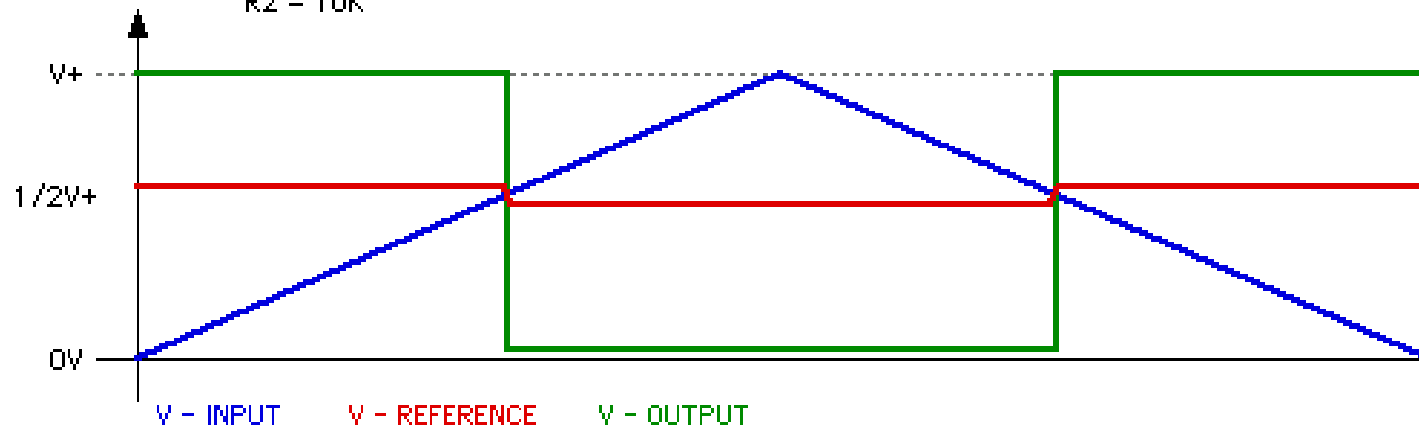
$RL = 1\text{K}$

EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT



$V- \text{ REFERENCE } Q1 \text{ ON} = 5.71\text{V}$

$V- \text{ REFERENCE } Q1 \text{ OFF} = 6.28\text{V}$



FINDING COMBINED RESISTANCES

OUTPUT TRANSISTOR - ON

$$\frac{1}{\frac{1}{R1} + \frac{1}{RL + RH}} = R1_{combined}$$

OUTPUT TRANSISTOR - OFF

$$\frac{1}{\frac{1}{R2} + \frac{1}{RH}} = R2_{combined}$$

CALCULATING REFERENCE VOLTAGES

OUTPUT TRANSISTOR - ON

$$\frac{V+}{R1_{combined} + R2} \times R2 = V - REFERENCE$$

OUTPUT TRANSISTOR - OFF

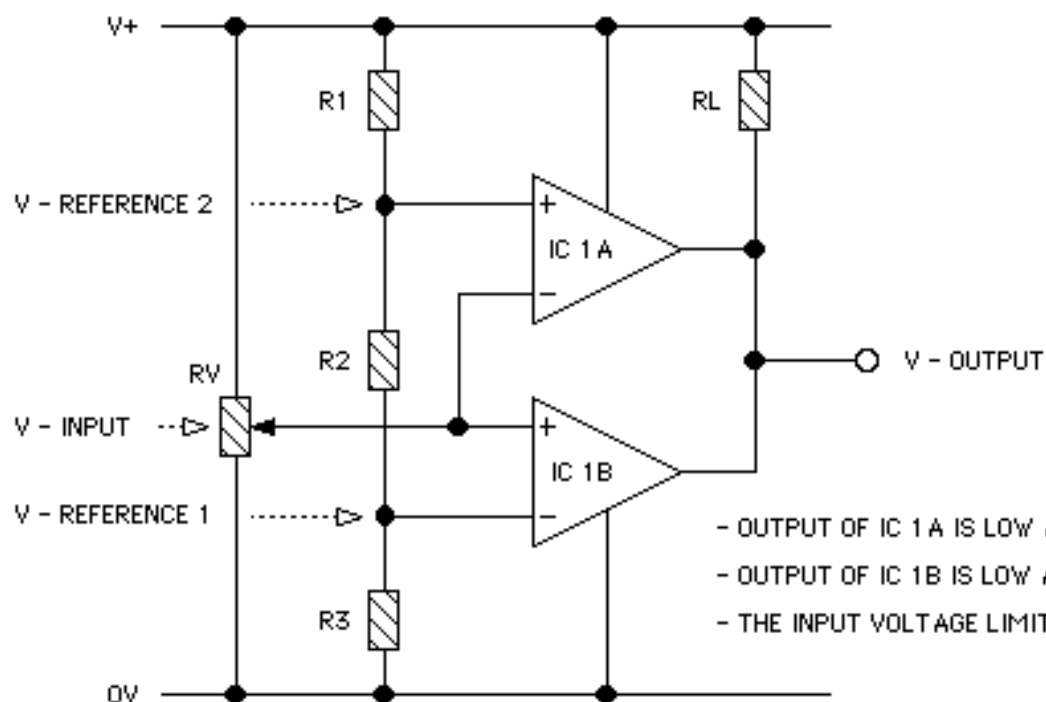
$$\frac{V+}{R1 + R2_{combined}} \times R2_{combined} = V - REFERENCE$$

- THE VOLTAGE DROP ACROSS THE COMPARATORS OUTPUT TRANSISTOR HAS BEEN IGNORED IN THE ABOVE CALCULATIONS

VOLTAGE WINDOW DETECTOR CIRCUIT

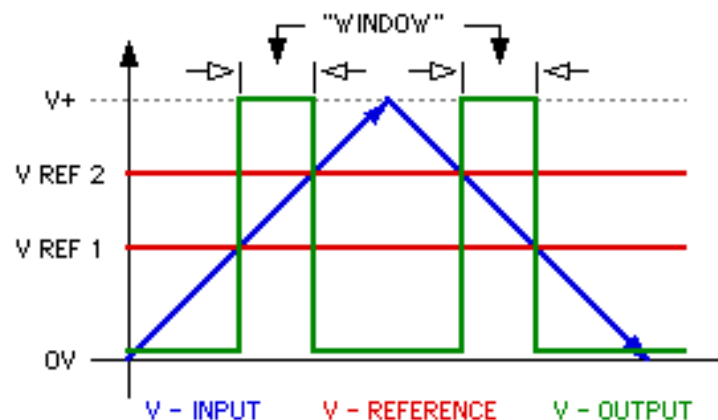
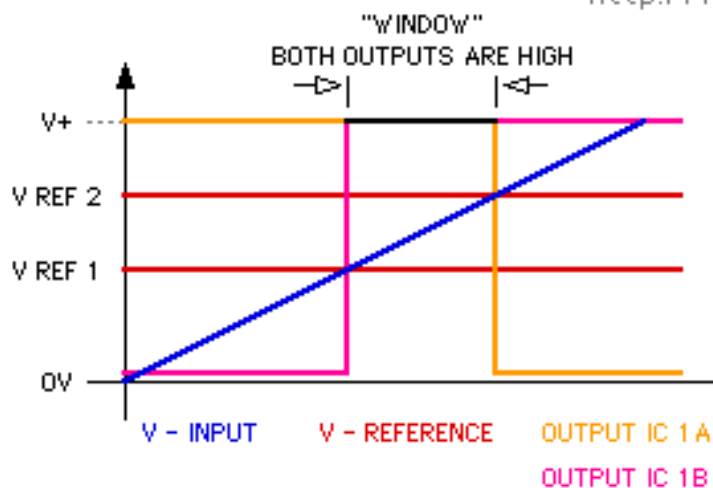
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Comparator Window Detector



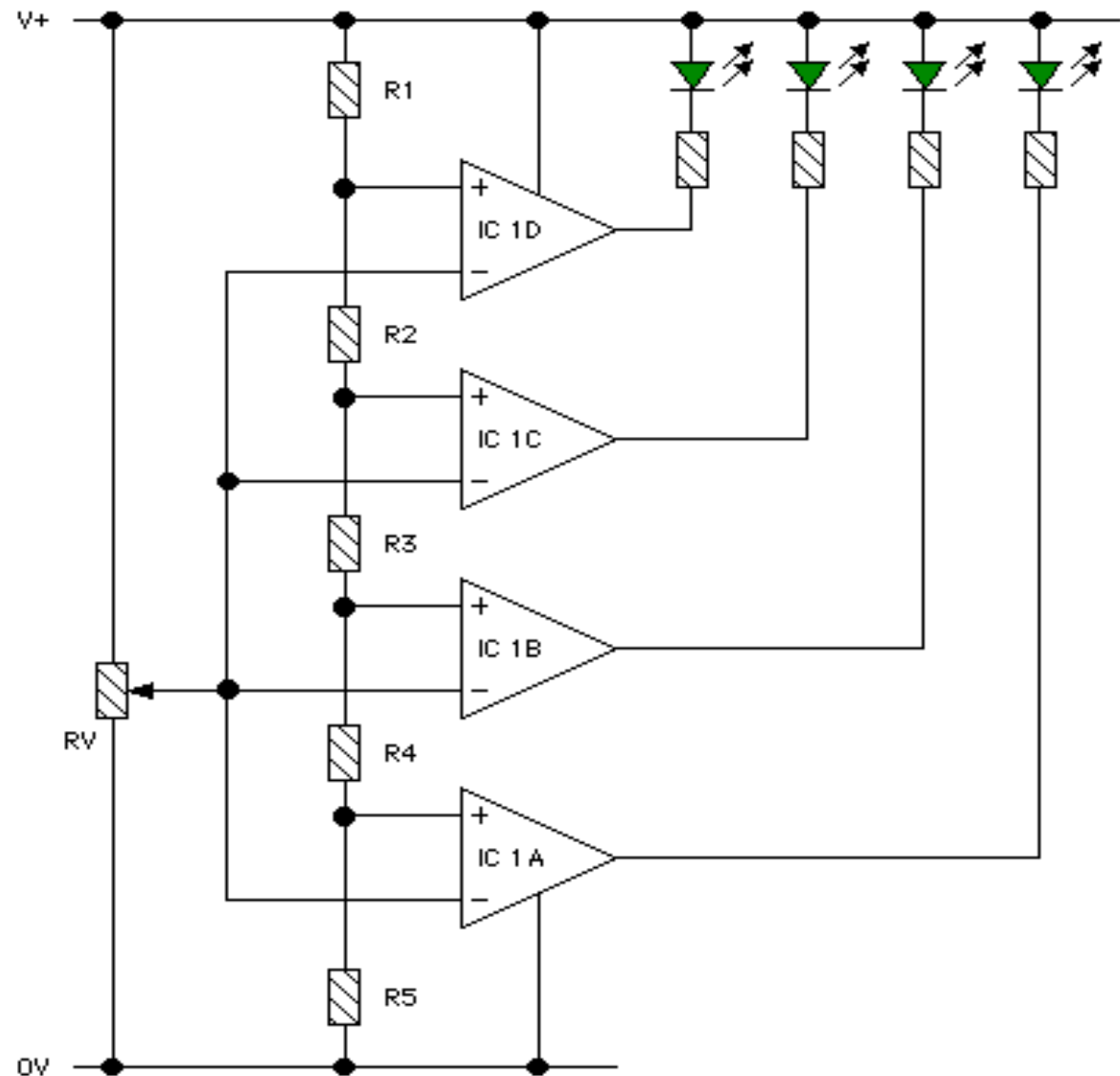
- OUTPUT OF IC 1A IS LOW AT VOLTAGES ABOVE V - REFERENCE 2
- OUTPUT OF IC 1B IS LOW AT VOLTAGES BELOW V - REFERENCE 1
- THE INPUT VOLTAGE LIMITS ARE SET BY R1/R2 AND R2/R3

<http://home.cogeco.ca/~rpaisley4/CircuitIndex.html>



4 LEVEL - VOLTAGE DETECTOR

©ROB PAISLEY 2005 Comparator 4 Level



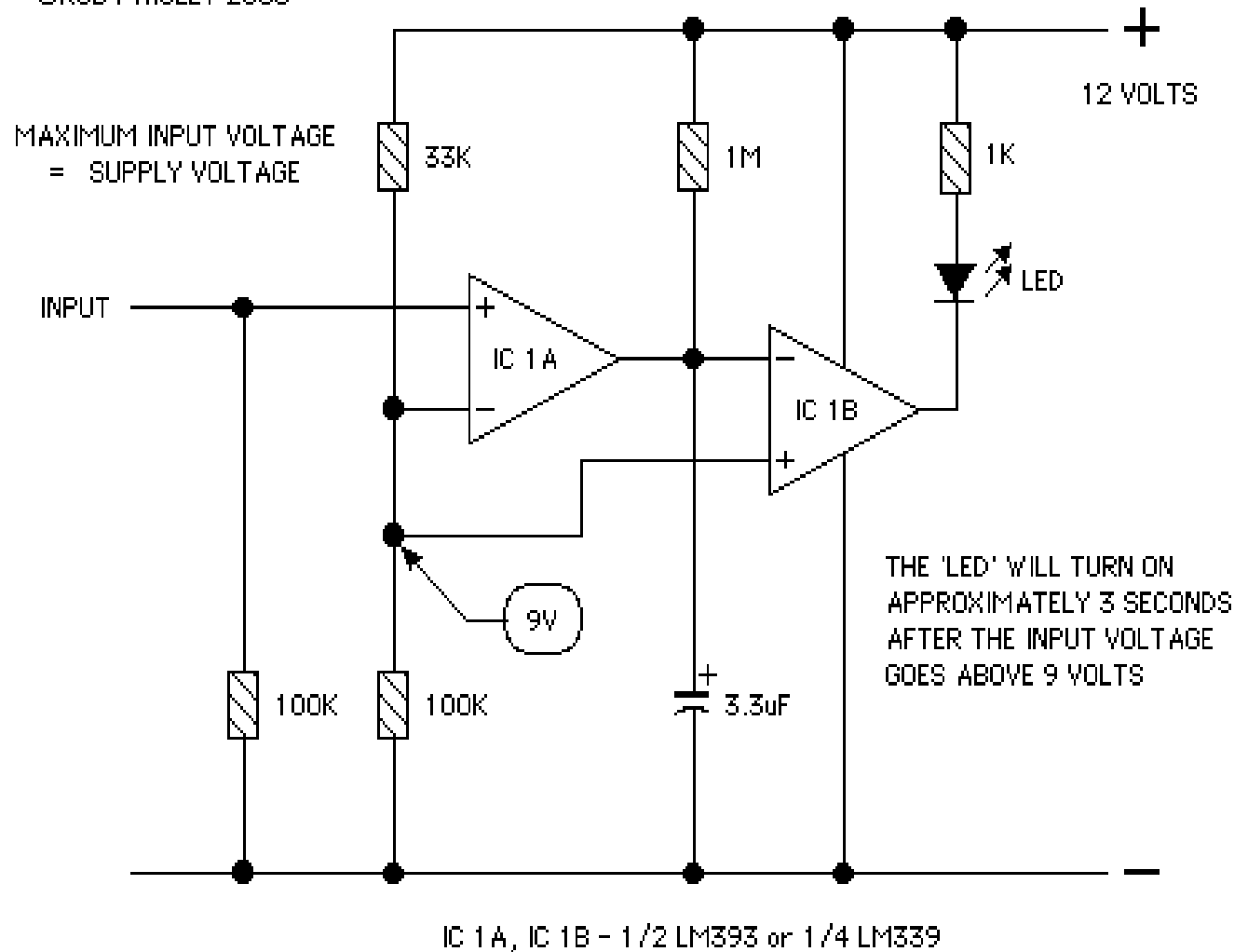
R1, 2, 3, 4, 5 - SELECTED TO GIVE THE DESIRED DETECTION VOLTAGE LEVELS
AS EACH LEVEL IS PASSED THE CORRESPONDING LED TURNS ON

<http://home.cogeco.ca/~rpaisley4/CircuitIndex.html>

TIME DELAY CIRCUIT

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Comparator Time Delay b



<http://home.cogeco.ca/~rpaisley4/CircuitIndex.html>

Comparators can be made to perform a basic memory function by wiring them as a 'SET / RESET' type of FLIP/FLOP. This type of circuit can be used in unpluggable walk around throttles to remember the direction of the train when the controller is disconnected. In the next diagram the comparator will remember which switch was pushed last. If the 'SET' button is pushed the LED will be on, the 'RESET' button will turn the LED off. A higher current version is also shown.

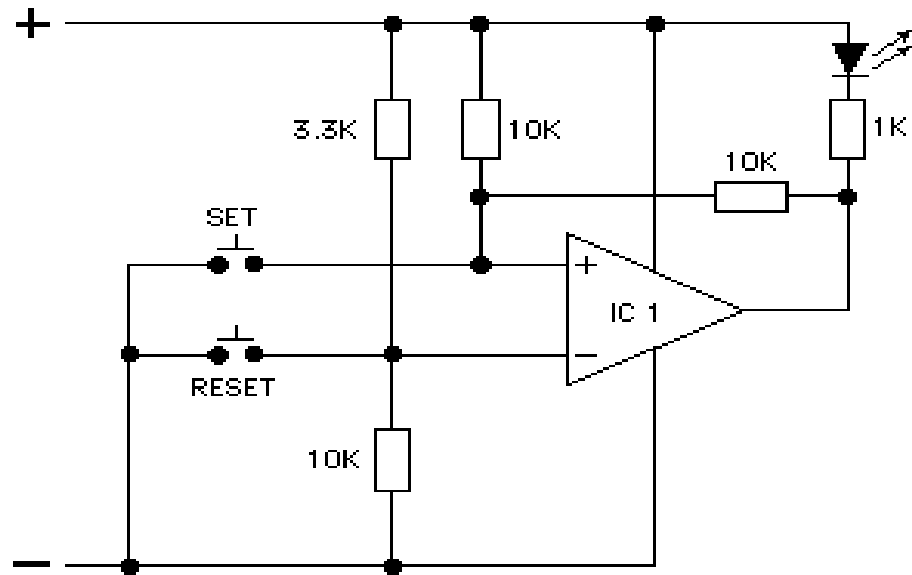
When the output of the comparator is off the voltage at the PLUS input will be the same as the supply voltage. With the PLUS input voltage higher than the MINUS input voltage the output will remain off.

When the SET button is pushed the voltage at the PLUS input will go to zero and the output will turn on. When the SET button is release the voltage at the PLUS input will rise to 1/2 of the supply voltage and the output will remain turned on because the voltage at the PLUS input is remains below the voltage at the MINUS input.

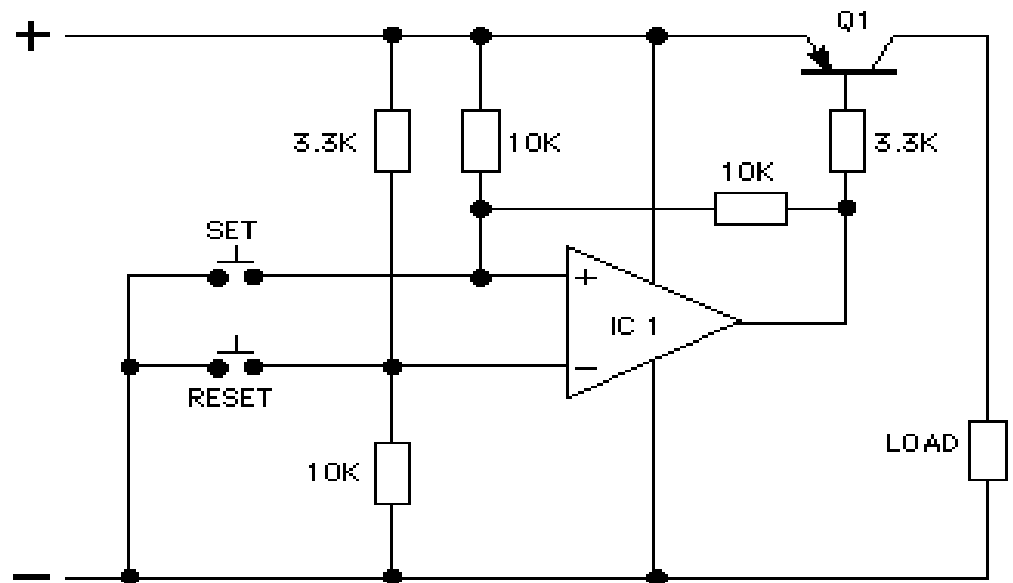
When the RESET button is pressed voltage at the MINUS input will go to zero from its normal level of 3/4 of the supply voltage. The output will turn off because the voltage at the MINUS input is below the voltage at the PLUS input. When the output turns off the voltage at the PLUS input will rise to the supply voltage level.

When the RESET button is released the voltage at the MINUS input will rise to 3/4 of the supply voltage. The PLUS input voltage will stay above the voltage at the MINUS input and the output will stay turned off.

FLIP/FLOP CIRCUIT MADE WITH A COMPARATOR

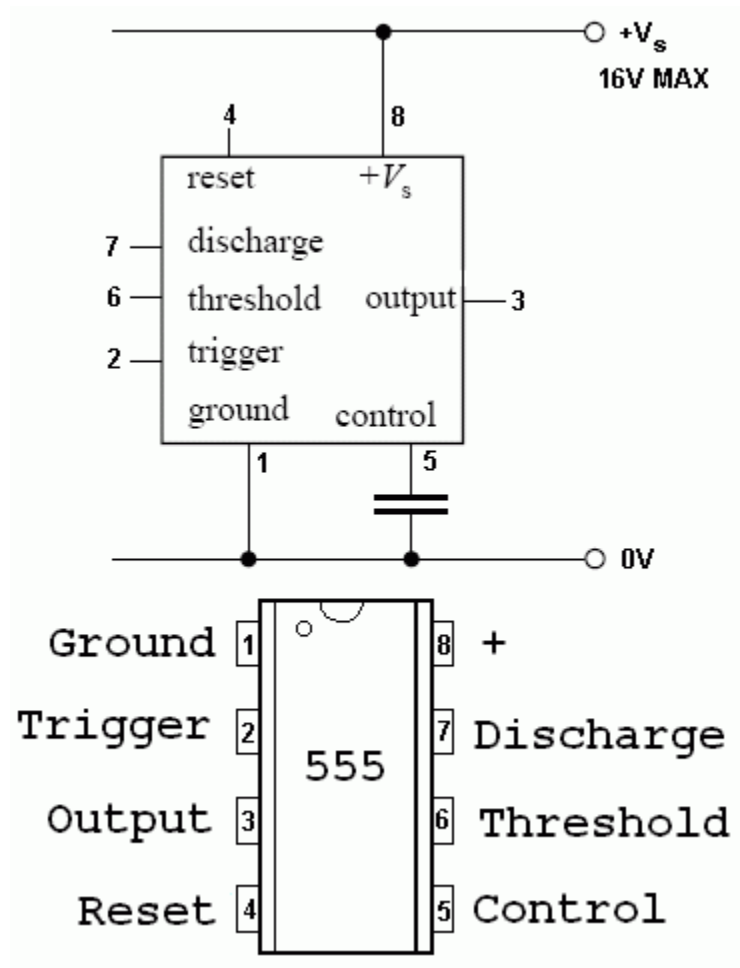


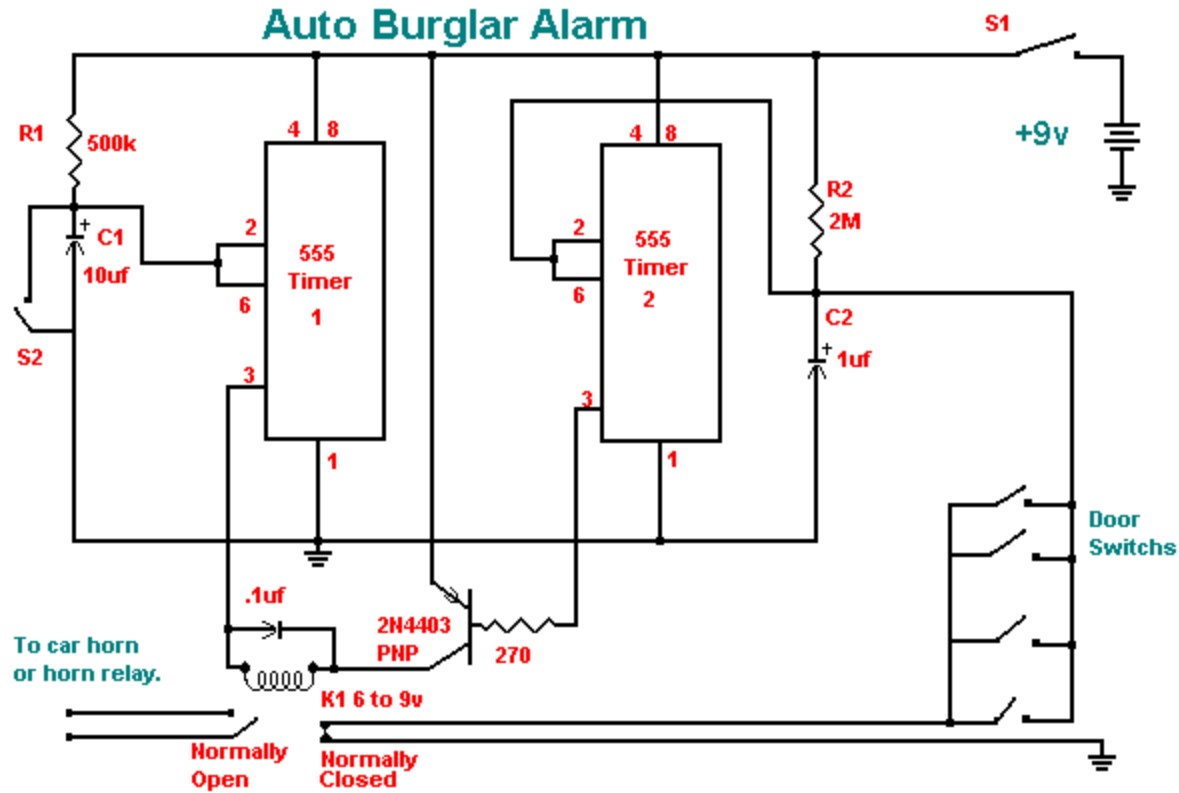
HIGH CAPACITY COMPARATOR FLIP/FLOP



Timer 555

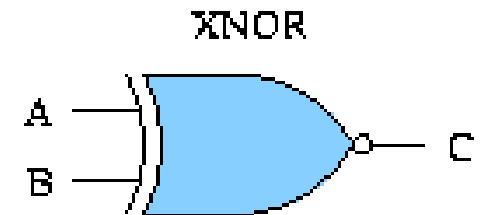
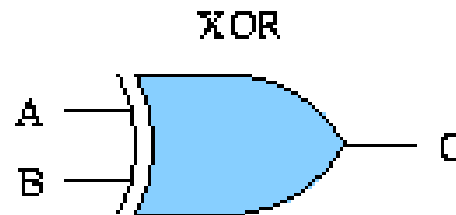
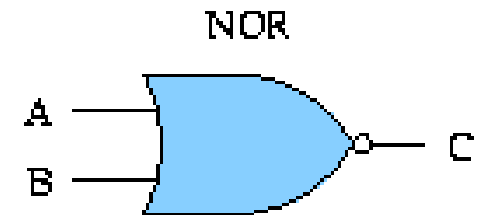
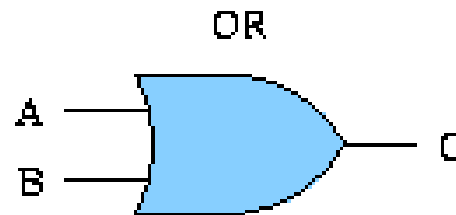
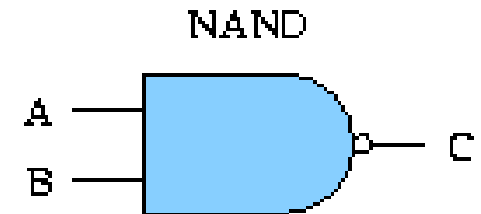
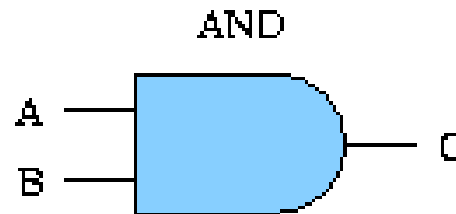
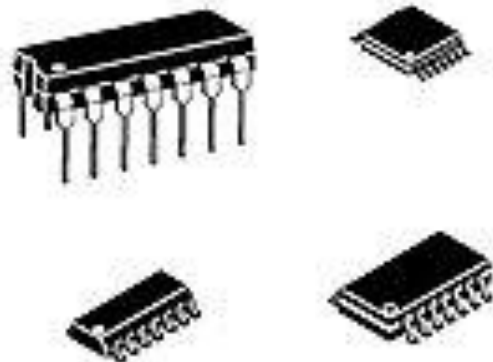
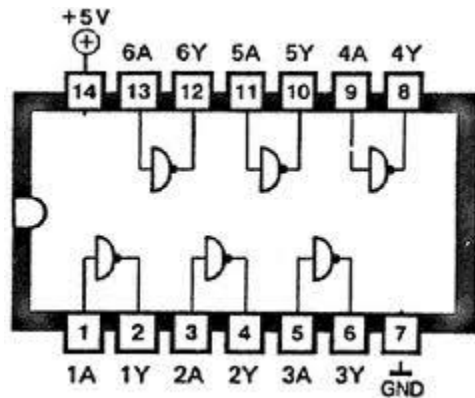
- BJT transistors
- MOSFET transistor





This alarm circuit is based on two 555 timers. The alarm will sound your car horn if anyone opens the car door while the circuit is armed. The timers will allow you to leave the car without sounding the horn. To turn the circuit on S1 must be closed. To set the alarm, open S2 (it is normally closed) this will give you about 5 seconds to get out and close the door. The exit delay time is set by R1 and C1. If anyone opens the doors for more then two seconds the horn will sound until power is removed from the circuit. The 2 second time is set by R2 and C2. If you open the door, you must deactivate the alarm by closing S2. This very basic circuit could be used for a home also

Các cổng logic



A	B	AND	OR	XOR	NAND	NOR	XNOR
0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0
1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1

In 1854 George Boole developed a mathematical system for formulating logic statements with symbols, so the problems could be written and solved in a similar manner to ordinary algebra. His system is called Boolean Algebra and it is used in the analysis and design of digital systems.

The basic building blocks of digital circuits are called logic gates. A gate is a circuit that performs a simple logic operation. Gates can have one, two, three or more inputs and the basic gates have a single output dependent on the inputs. Each output is also called a digital 'bit' of information (or 'bit' for short).

The behavior of a gate can be shown in a truth table which systematically lists all the possible input states for a gate and the corresponding output states.

AND gate

If both A & B are the same, then the output is true

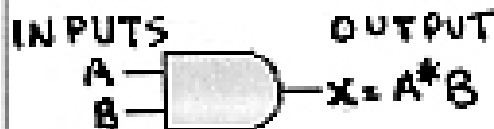
$$f = A \cdot B \quad \cdot = \text{AND}$$

$$(\cdot = \cdot)$$

Truth table

A	B	$X=A \cdot B$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Two Inputs AND Gate



The output is 0 for any case where one or more inputs are 0

OR gate

If either A or B or both inputs are high, then the output is high

$$F = A + B \quad + = \text{OR}$$

Truth table

A	B	$X=A+B$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

Two Inputs OR Gate



The output is 1 for any case where one or more outputs is 1

NOT gate

A not gate converts the output to the opposite of the input

$$x = A'$$

Truth table

A	$X=A'$
0	1
1	0

NOT Gate (an inverter)



Presence of small circle always denotes inversion

$$1' = 0 \text{ because NOT } 1 \text{ is } 0$$

$$0' = 1 \text{ because NOT } 0 \text{ is } 1$$

The NOT operation is also referred to as inversion or complementation, and these terms are used interchangeably.

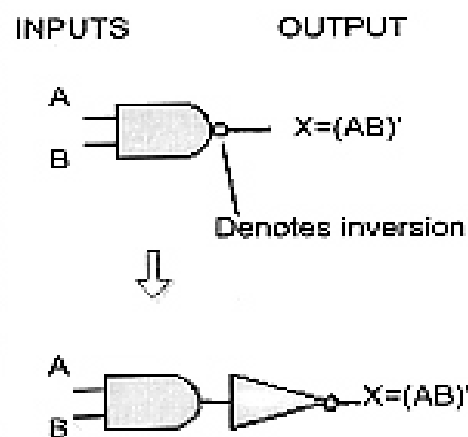
NAND gate

NAND is the same as the AND gate symbol *except* that it has a small circle on the output. This small circle represents the inversion operation. Therefore the output expression of the two input NAND gate is: $X = (AB)'$

Truth table

INPUTS		AND	NAND
A	B	$X = AB$	$X = (AB)'$
0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0

Two Inputs NAND Gate



A NAND gate is equivalent to a negative – AND gate

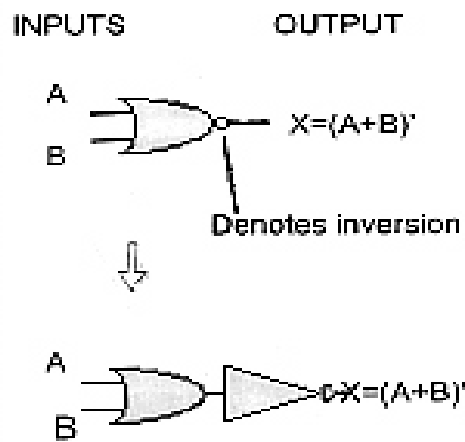
NOR gate

NOR is the same as the OR gate symbol *except* that it has a small circle on the output. This small circle represents the inversion operation. Therefore the output expression of the two input NOR gate is: $X = (A + B)'$

Truth table

INPUTS		OR	NOR
A	B	$X = A+B$	$X = (A+B)'$
0	0	0	1
0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0
1	1	1	0

Two Inputs NOR Gate



A NOR gate is equivalent to a negative – OR gate

XOR gate

Can be formed by a combination of other gates.

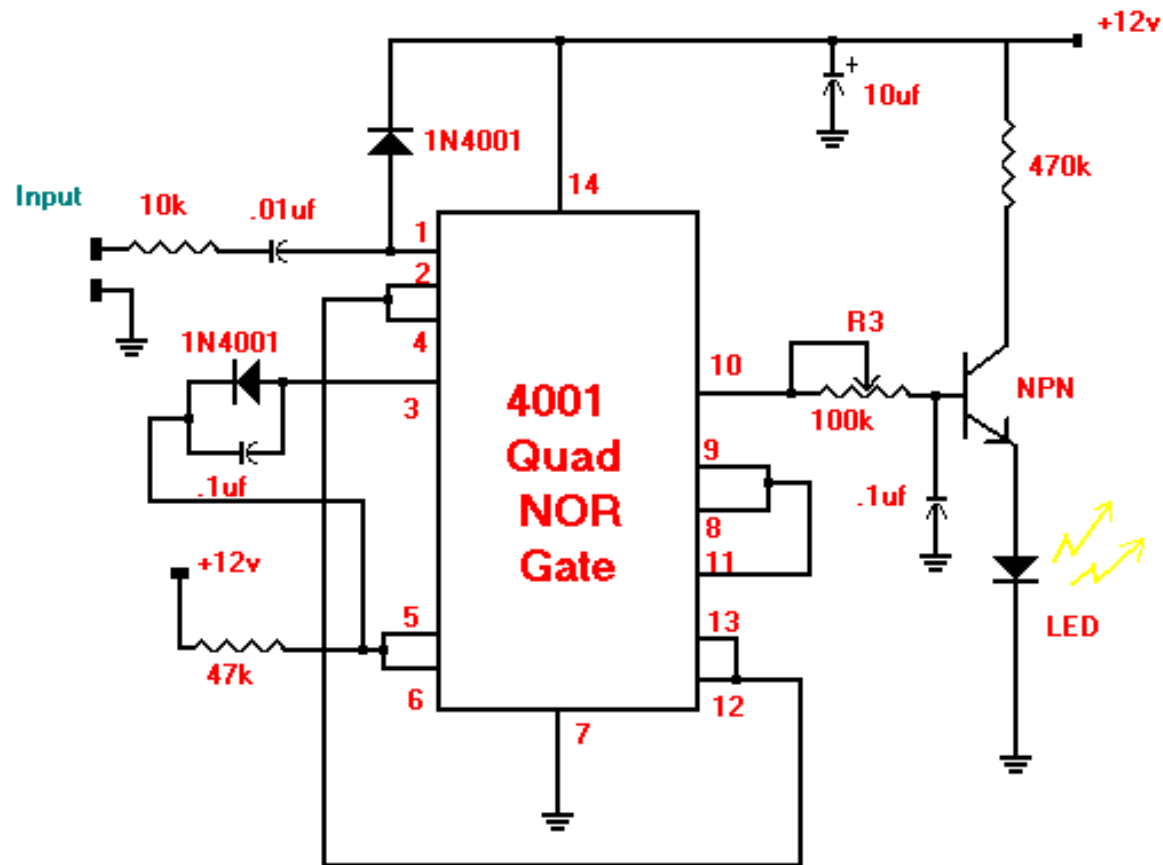
Truth table

INPUTS		OUTPUT (X)
A	B	$A \oplus B$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

Two input XOR Gate



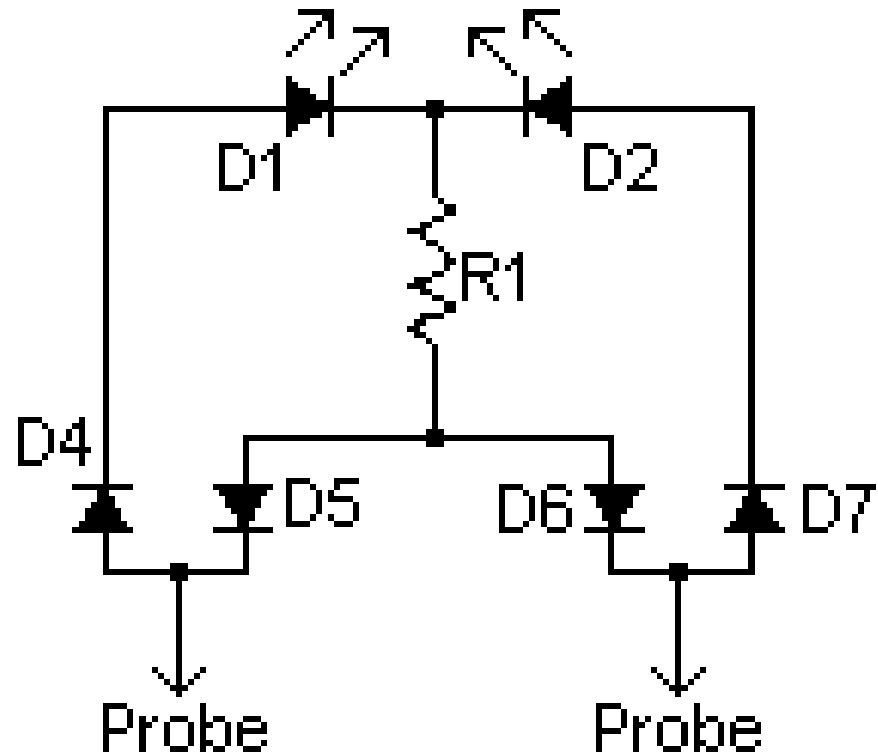
The XOR gate output is HIGH if one (and only one) of the inputs is HIGH; otherwise it is LOW



Automotive Speed Indicator

The speed of an automobile can be indicated by detecting the pulses generated by the ignition system and causing an LED to light. The circuit utilizes a quad NOR gate IC chip. Two of the gates are configured as a one shot multivibrator which produces a fixed duration pulse each time the primary circuit of the automobile ignition system opens the circuit to the ignition coil. The other 2 gates are used as buffers which provide an accurate rectangle pulse. As the number of pulses per second increases, the voltage fed to the base of of the NPN transistor becomes high enough to cause it to conduct and turn on the LED. The speed at which the LED lights is set by R4. The input of the circuit is connected to the distributor side of the ignition coil or to the tachometer connection on those cars that are equipped with electronic ignition.

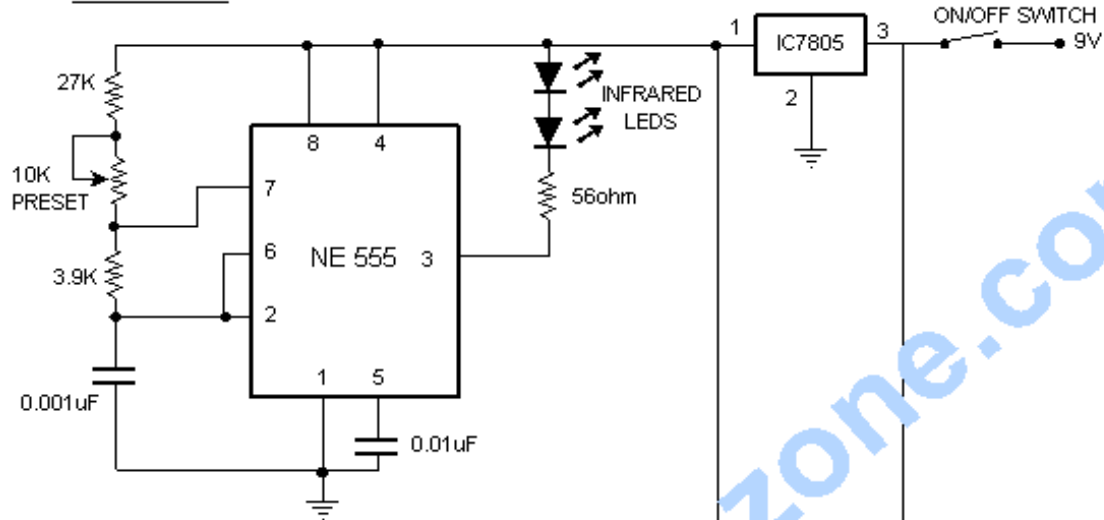
Part	Total Qty.	Description	Substitutions
R1	1	1K 1/4W Resistor	
D1	1	Green LED	
D2	1	Red LED	
D4, D5, D6, D7	4	1N4001 Silicon Diode	1N4004, 1N4005, 1N4007
MISC	1	Board, Wire, Case, Probes	



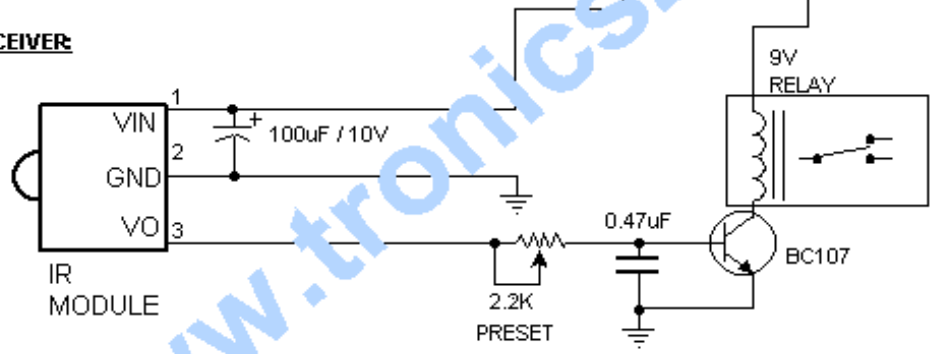
To use the circuit, just connect your probes to the source under test. If D1 lights up, the left most probe (on the schematic) is connected to positive. The opposite is true if the left probe is negative. If both LEDs are on, the source being probed is AC

Be careful when using this tester not to probe a source greater than about 12V

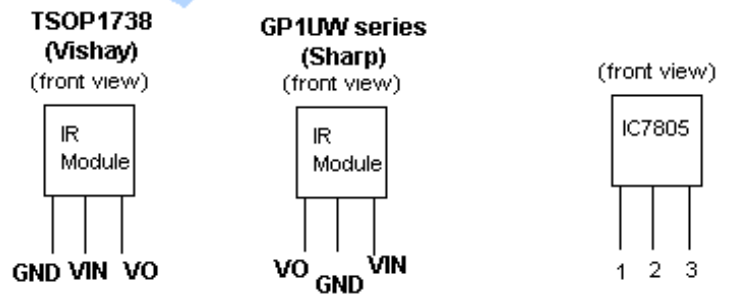
TRANSMITTER



RECEIVER



PIN OUTS



Suggested arrangement for PROXIMITY DETECTOR





