

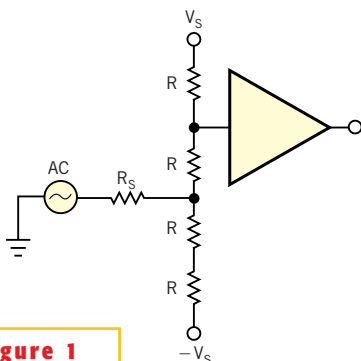
Edited by Bill Travis

## Buffer adapts single-ended signals for differential inputs

Randall Carver, Analog Devices Inc, Greensboro, NC

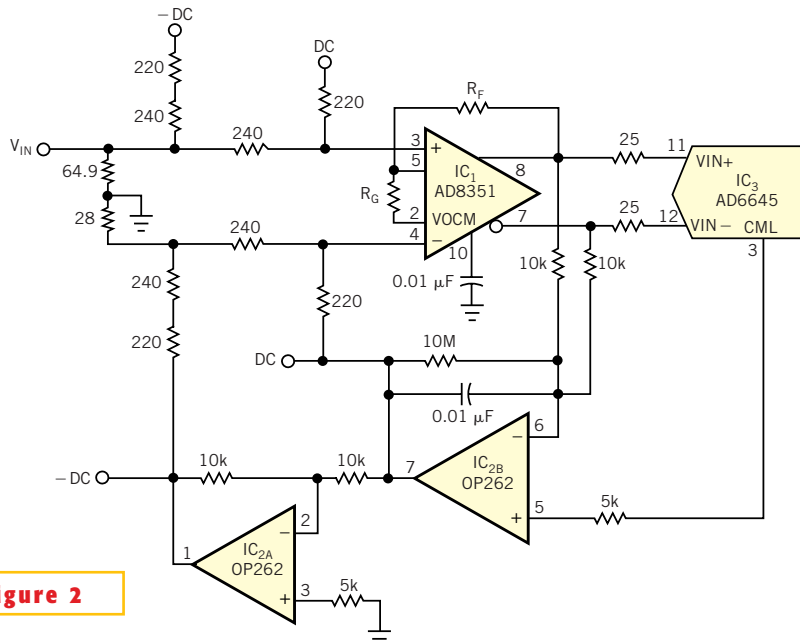
**D**C COUPLING of single-ended signals into differential-input, single-supply ADCs can be challenging. The input signal requires level shifting from ground to  $V_s/2$  as well as single-ended-to-differential conversion. In addition, you must balance the differential inputs of the ADC to cancel even-order harmonics and common-mode noise. Systems often require this signal translation to take place without injecting dc bias currents back into the signal source. Processing wideband signals with large dynamic range (12- to 14-bit ADCs) can also add to the circuit complexity. Wideband amplifiers address nearly all these issues, but their standard implementation requires the use of ac coupling.

This Design Idea describes a new circuit that eliminates this requirement through the use of an external dc feedback loop. It also allows the lower end of the passband to extend to dc. The basis of the circuit is a simple level-shifting circuit (**Figure 1**). Tying two series resistors between  $V_s$  and a signal source attenuates the signal by a factor of two and biases it to  $V_s/2$ . The center tap is buffered; single-sided supply circuits can then process the signal. Two additional series resistors



**Figure 1**

This simple circuit level-shifts ac signals to accommodate the  $\pm V_s$  supplies.



**Figure 2**

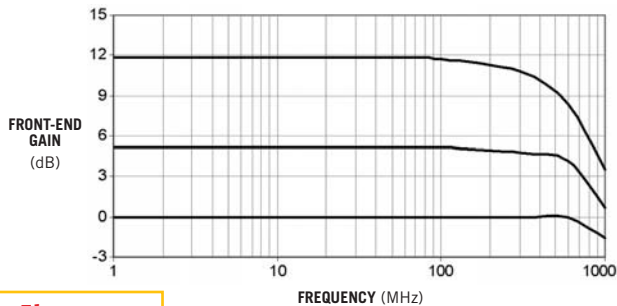
This circuit is a wideband, dc-coupled, single-ended-to-differential buffer.

connected between the source and a negative supply of equal value remove dc bias currents from the source.

The circuit of **Figure 2** expands upon this simple concept by replacing the supply voltages  $\pm V_s$  with precise  $\pm V_{DC}$  levels that track one another. In addition, this design implements differential signaling by doubling the number of level-shifting resistors. You produce the  $\pm V_{DC}$  levels by subtracting the 2.4V ADC reference signal (CML pin) from the common-mode level of the amplifier, which you form by summing the two amplifier outputs through equal-value resistors. The circuit amplifies, filters, and inverts the difference to create the  $\pm V_{DC}$  levels. The dc feedback-loop gain of approximately 1040 allows the amplifier to track the output common-mode level to within  $(2.4V/1040)=2.3$  mV of the ADC's

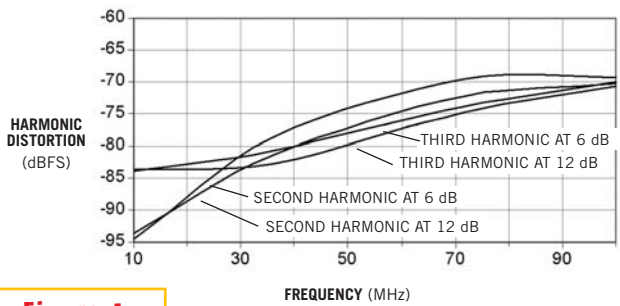
reference (CML) signal. The addition of this external dc feedback path allows you to open the VOCM pin of IC<sub>1</sub> and de-

Buffer adapts single-ended signals for differential inputs .....	85
Triac lighting and heating controller uses few parts .....	86
Constant-current, constant-voltage converter drives white LEDs .....	88
Sequential state machine aids in automatic control .....	90
Hysteretic regulators provide high performance at low cost .....	92
Power-supply IC drives multiple LEDs .....	94
Supercapacitor boosts current from small battery .....	99
<b>Publish your Design Idea in EDN. See the What's Up section at www.edn.com.</b>	



**Figure 3**

This graphic shows the frequency response of the circuit in Figure 2 for various values of gain.



**Figure 4**

This plot shows harmonic distortion versus frequency for a -1-dB (referred to full-scale) input to the ADC at 80 MHz.

couple it to ground, disabling the AD8351's internal dc feedback path.

The level-shifting resistors have a ratio of 1.09-to-1 to reduce the required swing of the  $\pm V_{DC}$  levels to  $\pm 2.4 [(1.09 + 1)/1.09] = \pm 4.6V$ . The design uses accurate networks with excellent tracking to ensure good CMRR (common-mode-rejection ratio) and minimize the injection of dc bias currents into the source. IC<sub>2</sub> uses a rail-to-rail feedback amplifier to allow the use of  $\pm 5V$  supplies. The remaining circuits are powered from 5V. Resistor R<sub>G</sub> varies the overall gain of the front end. For a front-end gain of 0 dB,

the bandwidth extends beyond 1 GHz (Figure 3). After you determine the required gain, you adjust resistor R<sub>F</sub> to balance the two differential signals into the ADC. Table 1 shows typical values of R<sub>G</sub> and R<sub>F</sub> for various gain levels. The 64.9 $\Omega$  resistor provides for a 50 $\Omega$  source im-

TABLE 1—RESISTOR VALUES FOR VARIOUS FRONT-END GAINS		
R <sub>G</sub> ( $\Omega$ )	R <sub>F</sub> ( $\Omega$ )	Front-end gain (dB)
56.2	1540	12
154	698	6
1000	316	0

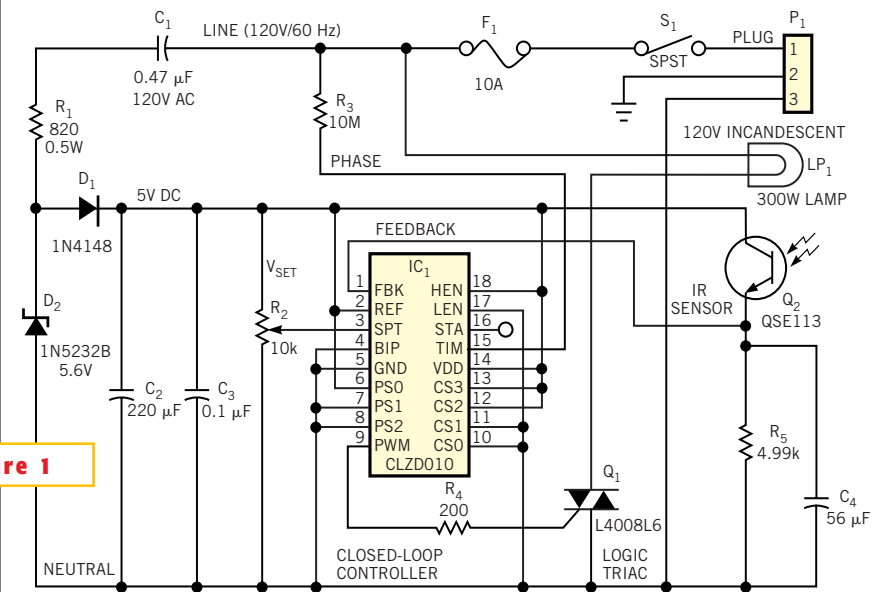
pedance. The 28 $\Omega$  resistor provides for a balanced input that the amplifier sees. You can accommodate a differential-input signal structure by replacing the 28 $\Omega$  resistor with a 64.9 $\Omega$  resistor and tying the additional negative input signal to the junction of the new 64.9 $\Omega$  resistor and the two 240 $\Omega$  level-shifting resistors. This differential-input structure allows you to remove R<sub>F</sub>. The circuit maintains the excellent distortion performance of the AD8351 amplifier, allowing the circuit to drive 12- and 14-bit ADCs with minimal degradation of the ADC's dynamic range (Figure 4). □

# Triac lighting and heating controller uses few parts

David Caldwell, Flextek Electronics, Carlsbad, CA

THE TRIAC LIGHTING-control circuit in Figure 1 is small and inexpensive because load and housekeeping power come directly from the line voltage, thereby eliminating bulky, expensive supplies. The CLZD010 closed-loop controller maintains constant light intensity by automatically adjusting the timing of the triac's firing until the feedback signal and setpoint command are equal. The 5V supply is a charge pump that energizes C<sub>1</sub> on the negative swing of the line voltage and then transfers charge to C<sub>2</sub> on the positive swing. Zener diode D<sub>2</sub>, minus the forward drop of rectifier D<sub>1</sub>, sets the 5V. Triac Q<sub>1</sub> is a latching switch that conducts in either direction until you remove gate drive and load current drops below its holding threshold, which occurs at the zero-crossing point of the line voltage.

**Figure 1**



This closed-loop lighting-control system uses a few inexpensive parts.

$\mu$ sec to turn on the load for the remainder of each 60-Hz half-cycle, so higher power accrues by turning on earlier in the half-cycle.  $R_3$ , at the timing pin of the controller chip, detects line phase. Controller pins CS3 to CS0 set the closed-loop configuration for an application. You can easily modify the lighting-control circuit for thermal control (Figure 2). Closed-loop timing is 134 sec for optimized temperature response, using controller pins CS3 to CS0. The circuit initially drives the heater at high power levels until the temperature nears its final value and then reduces the power to avoid overshoot. The CLZD010 controller is available from Flextek Electronics (www.flex-tek.com). □

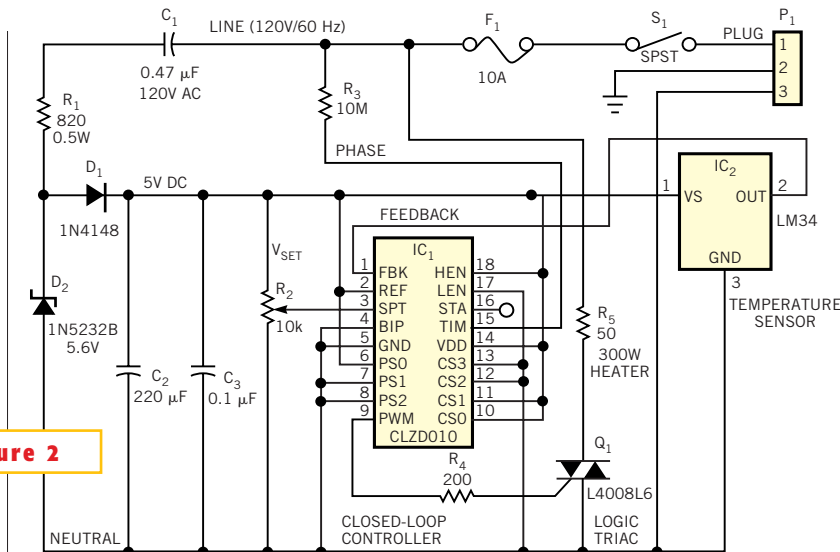


Figure 2

A slight modification adapts Figure 1's circuit to for heating control.

## Constant-current, constant-voltage converter drives white LEDs

Keith Szolusha, Linear Technology Corp, Milpitas, CA

LEDs usually take their drive from a constant dc-current source to maintain constant luminescence. Most dc/dc converters, however, deliver a constant voltage by comparing a feedback voltage to an internal reference via an internal error amplifier. The easiest way to turn a simple dc/dc converter into a constant-current source is to use a sense resistor to convert the output current to a voltage and use that voltage as the feedback. The problem is that 500 mA of output current with a 1.2V drop—the typical reference voltage—in the sense resistor incurs relatively high power losses and, thus, a drop in efficiency.

One approach is to use an external op amp to amplify the voltage drop across a low-value resistor to the given reference voltage. This method saves converter efficiency but significantly increases the cost and complexity of a simple converter by using additional components and board space. A better approach is to use the LT1618 constant-current, constant-voltage converter, which combines a traditional voltage-feedback loop and a unique current-feedback loop to operate as a constant-voltage, constant-current dc/dc converter.

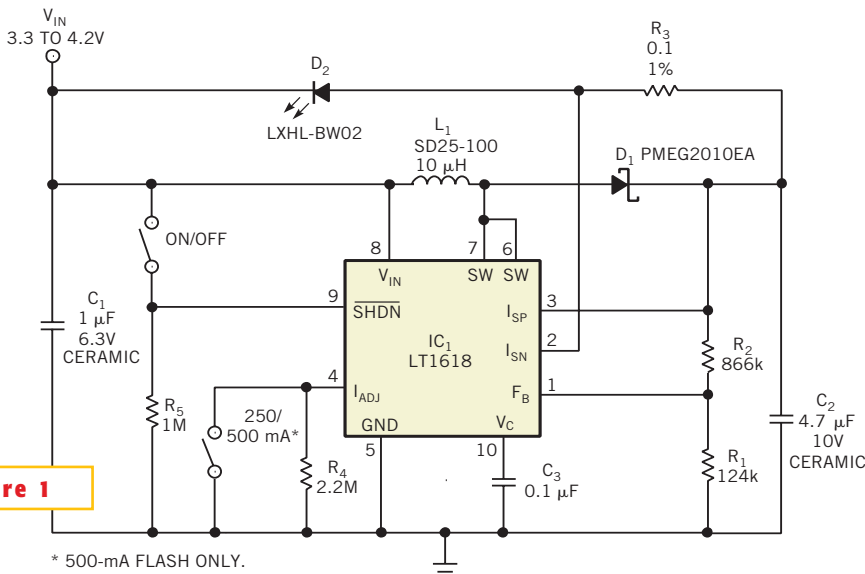


Figure 1

The LT1618 white-LED driver supplies 250-mA constant current and 500-mA flash from a lithium-ion battery.

Figure 1 shows the LT1618 driving a 1W, white Lumileds (www.lumileds.com) LXHL-BW02 Luxeon LED.

You need no external op amps for this compact approach. The LXHL-BW02 has a forward voltage of 3.1 to 3.5V for 250 mA of current. Although the maximum dc rating of the LED is 350 mA, you

can pulse it up to 500 mA for a camera flash.  $R_4$  is set for a 250-mA torch or dimming operation. The  $I_{ADJ}$  (current-adjustment) pin provides the ability to dim the LED during normal operation by varying the resistor setting or injecting a PWM signal. Access to both the positive and the negative inputs of the special in-

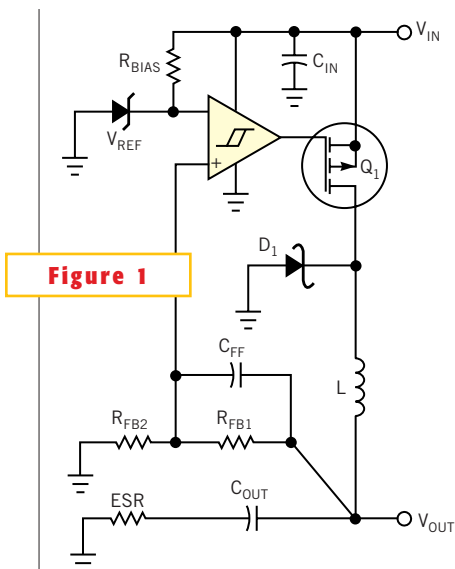


# Hysteretic regulators provide high performance at low cost

Wayne Rewinkel, National Semiconductor, Phoenix, AZ

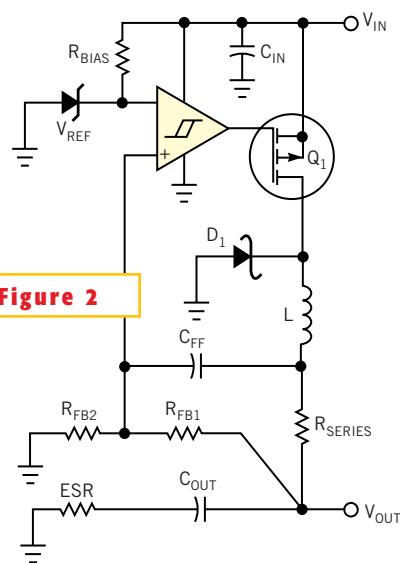
**H**YSTERETIC VOLTAGE regulators offer the potential advantages of simplicity, fast response, 100%-duty-cycle operation, high efficiency at light loading, and low cost. They need no loop-compensation components to add delays; thus, response time to a load change is less than one switching cycle. What's the catch? You must be able to accept a switching frequency that is not precisely controlled and a sensitivity to noise that requires layout skill.

**Figure 1** shows a simple hysteretic switching regulator made from a comparator with a fixed hysteresis and a PFET. The comparator switches on the PFET whenever  $V_{OUT}$  falls to its low threshold and off again when  $V_{OUT}$  rises to its high threshold. The time  $V_{OUT}$  lingers between the thresholds determines the on-time and, hence, the switching frequency. The inductor's ripple current flowing through the ESR of  $C_{OUT}$  provides a triangular voltage-ripple waveform, which produces predictable operation.



**Figure 1**

**This hysteretic regulator suffers from unpredictability of the switching frequency because of  $C_{OUT}$  ESR variance.**



**Figure 2**

**An added series resistor makes this circuit's switching frequency more predictable.**

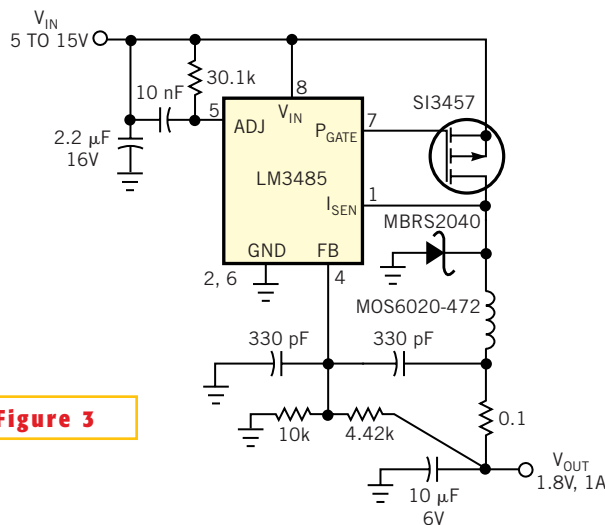
Herein lies a potential problem with simple circuits of this type. ESR is a major factor in determining switching frequency, and ESR can vary over a wide range for any given capacitor type. This variance is seldom a good thing and can lead to inductor saturation if the frequency falls too low or FET overheating arising from switching losses if the frequency rises too high. A simple solution to the ESR-variance problem is to use a ceramic  $C_{OUT}$  capacitor in series with a resistor. Although this technique works nicely in the lab, it often poses problems in the real world, in which several ceramic capacitors bypass loads.

Another approach to predictable frequency control allows the use of low-ESR capac-

itors (**Figure 2**). It is almost identical to **Figure 1**'s circuit except for the added resistor,  $R_{SERIES}$ , and the new connection point for  $C_{FF}$ . The inductor's ripple current induces the ac voltage present across  $R_{SERIES}$  and connects to comparator by  $C_{FF}$ . This controlled ac voltage eliminates the need for any  $C_{OUT}$  ESR. The feedback loop eliminates the dc voltage drop that  $R_{SERIES}$  creates. This new configuration produces predictable switching frequency with even zero-ESR capacitors and offers the potential of nearly zero  $V_{OUT}$  ripple at the cost of a resistor and the small added dissipation of  $R_{SERIES}$  carrying full load current.

The following equation approximates the switching frequency for either circuit, provided that  $C_{OUT}$ 's reactance at the switching frequency is lower than the ESR and  $C_{FF}$ 's reactance is much lower than  $R_{FB1}$ : 
$$F_s = (V_{OUT}/V_{IN})(V_{IN} - V_{OUT}) \times ESR / (V_{HYST} \times L + 2ESR \times T_{PD}(V_{IN} - V_{OUT}))$$
 where ESR is the sum of  $C_{OUT}$ 's ESR and  $R_{SERIES}$ ,  $V_{HYST}$  is the comparator's hysteresis voltage, and  $T_{PD}$  is the average propagation delay of the comparator plus the PFET.

You can build the circuits of **figures 1** and **2** as drawn, using a comparator, such



**Figure 3**

**This circuit occupies an area smaller than a postage stamp.**

as the LMV7219, which claims 7.5-mV built-in hysteresis, or by using a controller, such as the LM3485, which provides a current-limiting feature, wider  $V_{IN}$  range, and lower cost. You cannot overemphasize the layout sensitivity for hysteretic regulators. You cannot allow the feedback connection to pick up any stray signals. Open-core inductors are attractive for cost reasons but difficult to

use, because any induced voltages from stray magnetic fields can produce unpredictable switching frequencies and ripple.

You can build the circuit in **Figure 3** in an area smaller than a postage stamp. This circuit produces output current of at least 1A, using small ceramic capacitors, a SOT-6 PFET, a 6×7-mm inductor, and an SMB-package, surface-mount Schottky diode.  $F_s$  varies from 600 to 700

kHz over a  $V_{IN}$  range of 5 to 15V for  $V_{OUT}=1.8V$  and  $V_{OUT}$  ripple less than 5 mV p-p. The 30.1-k $\Omega$  resistor and the PFET's on-resistance of 0.1 $\Omega$  set the current limit to trigger at 1.5A. The no-load bias current is lower than 500  $\mu A$ . Most impressive is the dynamic  $V_{OUT}$  change of only 10 mV for a load transient greater than 0.5A. □

## Power-supply IC drives multiple LEDs

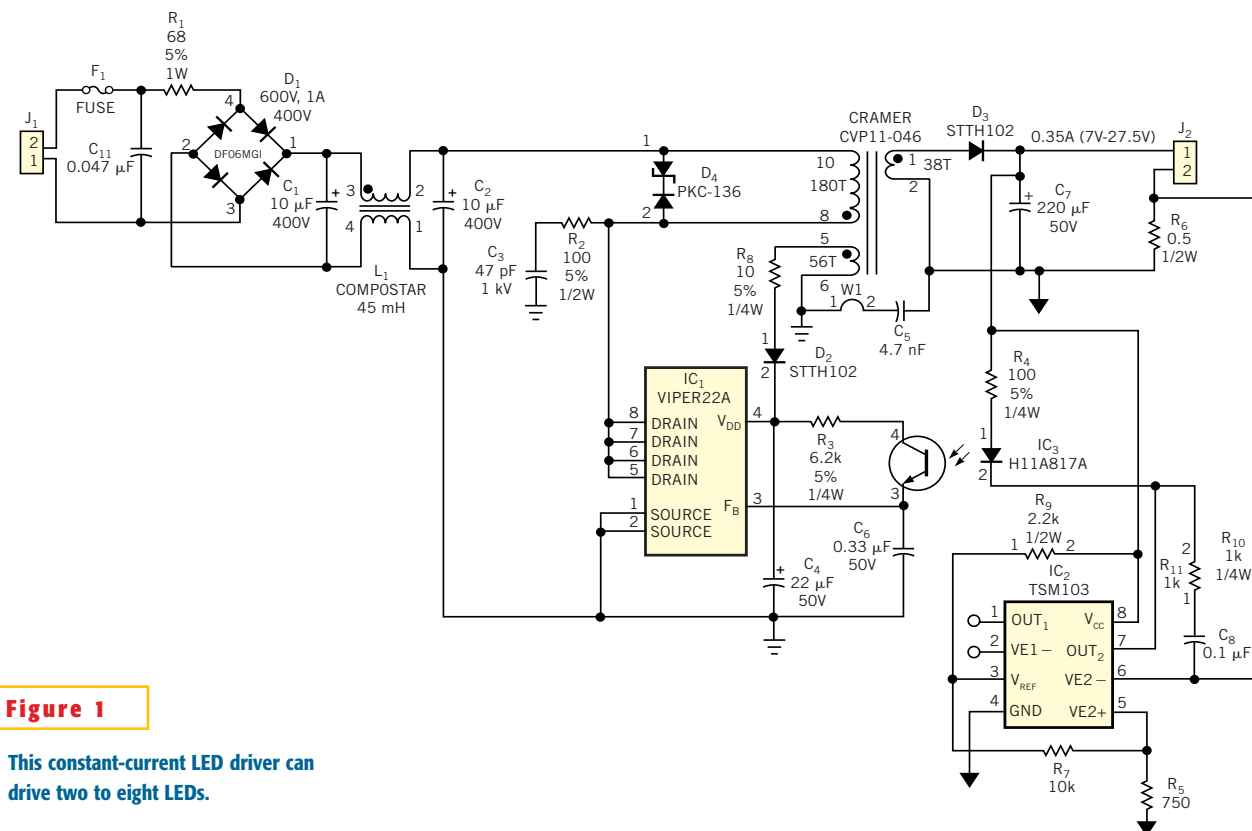
John Lo Giudice and Vee Shing Wong, STMicroelectronics, Schaumburg, IL

**B**RIGHT LEDs are becoming prominent sources of light. They often have better efficiency and reliability than do conventional light sources. Although LEDs can operate from an energy source as simple as a battery and a resistor, driving a string of LEDs in constant-current mode can better match the luminance between the devices without needing to match LEDs for their forward-voltage drop. A switching supply also gives better efficiency than methods using a linear ballast resistor to limit the current.

The circuit in **Figure 1** uses IC<sub>1</sub>, the integrated offline Viper22A switching regulator in a constant-current configuration to drive two to eight 1W LEDs. The circuit operates by monitoring the voltage drop across the sense resistor, R<sub>6</sub>, and uses this voltage as feedback to regulate the current through R<sub>6</sub> and the LEDs. An operational amplifier in the TSM103, IC<sub>2</sub>, monitors the voltage drop across R<sub>SENSE</sub> and compares it with the 0.175V reference, which resistor divider R<sub>5</sub>-R<sub>7</sub> sets, and closes the loop to maintain a 0.175V

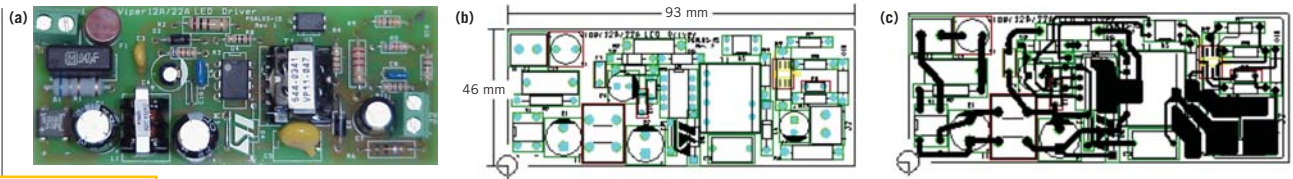
drop across the sense resistor. The output of the TSM103 drives the optocoupler, IC<sub>3</sub>, which transfers the feedback to the Viper22A on the primary side. **Figures 2a, 2b, and 2c** show the completed board and the top and bottom layouts.

The LED's drive current is  $I_{OUT} = V_5/R_6$ , where  $V_5$  is the voltage at Pin 5 of IC<sub>2</sub>. You could easily modify the circuit to drive 3 or 5W LEDs, as long as you respect the maximum power rating, by simply changing the sense resistor to set a higher current value. When you design a con-



**Figure 1**

This constant-current LED driver can drive two to eight LEDs.



**Figure 2** These photos show the completed board (a) and the top (b) and bottom (c) layouts.

stant-current power supply, the design of the transformer and the operating limitations of the circuit directly determine the output-voltage compliance of the constant-current source. For a design that can drive two to eight LEDs in series, the voltage drop across the LEDs can vary from approximately 7V for two LEDs to 28V for eight LEDs. This output voltage reflects back across the transformer and in turn changes the  $V_{DD}$  voltage to the control circuit and the peak  $V_{DS}$  across the power MOSFET.

The designers of the transformer in this application considered three limiting

factors: the allowable  $V_{DD}$  for the Viper22, which has a range of 9 to 38V for the undervoltage and overvoltage thresholds, respectively; the maximum wattage of 12W for the Viper22A; and the fact that the reflected voltage across the drain of the MOSFET, which takes account of the turns ratio  $[(N_p/N_s)V_{OUT}]$ , added to the input voltage, must be less than 730V.

For a design that can drive two to eight LEDs, you must design the system taking into account the fact that the reflected voltage on  $V_{DD}$  is proportional to the output voltage. To keep the reflected voltage manageable, the transformer's design

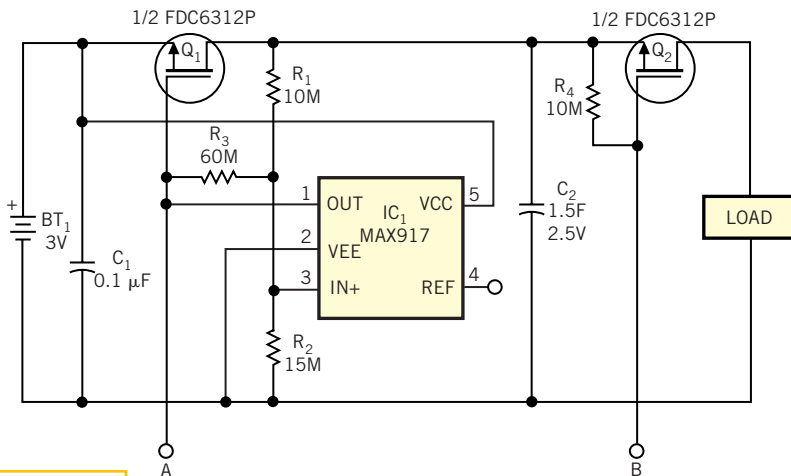
uses a turns ratio of primary to secondary output voltage for the maximum number of LEDs. Using these criteria, as the number of LEDs decreases, so does the reflected voltage. If you base the transformer on two LEDs, then the reflected voltage quadruples with eight LEDs and may exceed the rating of the Viper. The turns ratio between secondary to the  $V_{DD}$  winding is set for an output voltage of two LEDs to the minimum  $V_{DD}$  voltage of 9V. As you add LEDs,  $V_{DD}$  increases proportionally until it reaches the overvoltage-shutdown point of 42V nominal. □

# Supercapacitor boosts current from small battery

Yongping Xia, Navcom Technology, Torrance, CA

**S**OME BATTERY-POWERED devices require large amounts of current in a short period of time but spend most of the time in sleep (power-down) mode. The momentary large-load current demands large batteries to meet the time requirement, even though the average current consumption is low. For instance, a system operates for 1.5 sec every 10 hours and needs 500 mA at 3.3V during the operation. Although the average current is only 21  $\mu$ A, small, “coin” batteries cannot drive such a heavy load.

ence, senses the voltage on the supercapacitor.  $R_3$  provides 0.5V hysteresis to the comparator. When the voltage is lower than 1.7V, the comparator’s output is low and thus turns on the p-channel MOSFET,  $Q_1$ . The battery charges the supercapacitor. Once the voltage on the supercapacitor reaches 2.2V, the comparator switches high to shut off  $Q_1$ . You could use this low-to-high transition at Point A as a battery-charge-complete indicator or to trigger another device, such as a microcontroller’s interrupt line.



**Figure 1** A supercapacitor helps a small battery to deliver large pulses of energy.

To eliminate the need for larger batteries, the circuit in **Figure 1** solves the problem by gradually building up energy in a supercapacitor. The device releases the energy when it is needed. Because the supercapacitor has low internal impedance, the momentary current can easily exceed several amperes.

Because a coin-type lithium battery delivers 3V and the supercapacitor’s rated voltage is 2.5V, the circuit uses a voltage-controlled switch to cut off the battery once the voltage on the supercapacitor reaches 2.2V. This design uses a 1.5F, 2.5V supercapacitor from PowerStor ([www.powerstor.com](http://www.powerstor.com)), model A10-30-2R5155.  $IC_1$ , a micropower voltage comparator with built-in 1.245V refer-

$Q_2$ , another p-channel MOSFET, controls the discharge of the supercapacitor. When Point B is floating, the switch is off. When an open-drain or open-collector device pulls down Point B, the switch is on. Because the voltage on the supercapacitor continuously drops when the switch is on, you can use a boost dc/dc converter to generate a constant output voltage. Select a boost converter with the lowest possible working input voltage to obtain the maximum energy from the supercapacitor. For example, you can use an LTC3402 to generate a stable 3.3V output. Once it starts, the LTC3402 can work with input voltages as low as 0.5V. The energy from the supercapacitor is  $1/2V^2C$ , or  $1/2[(2.2V)^2 \times 1.5F - (0.5V)^2 \times 1.5F] = 3.4J$ . □