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E344 Assignment 1

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Report submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the module

Design (E) 344 for the degree Baccalaureus in Engineering in the Department of Electrical

and Electronic Engineering at Stellenbosch University.



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Nomenclature

Variables and functions

p(x) Probability density function with respect to variable x.

P(A) Probability of event A occurring.

 ε The Bayes error.

 ε_u The Bhattacharyya bound.

B The Bhattacharyya distance.

s An HMM state. A subscript is used to refer to a particular state, e.g. s_i

refers to the i^{th} state of an HMM.

S A set of HMM states.

F A set of frames.

Observation (feature) vector associated with frame f.

 $\gamma_s(\mathbf{o}_f)$ A posteriori probability of the observation vector \mathbf{o}_f being generated by

HMM state s.

 μ Statistical mean vector.

 Σ Statistical covariance matrix.

 $L(\mathbf{S})$ Log likelihood of the set of HMM states **S** generating the training set

observation vectors assigned to the states in that set.

 $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mu,\Sigma)$ Multivariate Gaussian PDF with mean μ and covariance matrix Σ .

 a_{ij} The probability of a transition from HMM state s_i to state s_j .

N Total number of frames or number of tokens, depending on the context.

D Number of deletion errors.

I Number of insertion errors.

S Number of substitution errors.

Acronyms and abbreviations

AE Afrikaans English

AID accent identification

ASR automatic speech recognition

AST African Speech Technology

CE Cape Flats English

DCD dialect-context-dependent

DNN deep neural network

G2P grapheme-to-phoneme

GMM Gaussian mixture model

HMM hidden Markov model

HTK Hidden Markov Model Toolkit

IE Indian South African English

IPA International Phonetic Alphabet

LM language model

LMS language model scaling factor

MFCC Mel-frequency cepstral coefficient

MLLR maximum likelihood linear regression

OOV out-of-vocabulary

PD pronunciation dictionary

PDF probability density function

SAE South African English

SAMPA Speech Assessment Methods Phonetic Alphabet

Chapter 1

System design

1.1. System overview

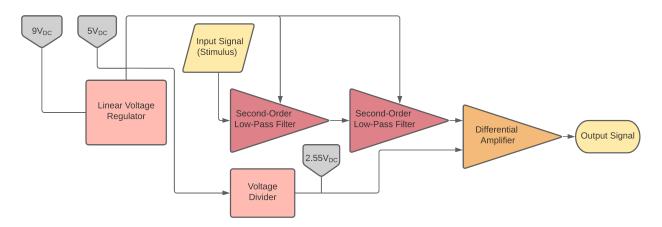


Figure 1.1: System Block Diagram

As part of the health monitoring system, which consists of an analogue temperature sensor and an optic heart rate monitor, a voltage regulation circuit is required, as well as a signal conditioning and amplification system. This report focuses on the design and implementation of the latter components. Figure 1.1 gives an overview of the combined system, where the voltage regulator supplies power to the circuital components responsible for filtering the signal, removing its offset, and then amplifying the signal which is originally received from an analog temperature sensor. Two second-order low-pass filters were cascaded to clear the signal of noise. This may seem excessive at first, but the cascaded setup allows for the use of less costly components (see Section 3.2), as well as producing an output signal subject to very low noise (see Section 3.3). Since the filtered signal still has a DC offset, and the amplifier needs a virtual ground, the voltage divider connects to the amplifier in such a way as to simultaneously remove the input DC offset and add the virtual ground. Finally, the differential amplifier increases the magnitude of the input signal to the degree needed at the input of a microcontroller ADC, which will be used to interpret the temperature sensor output. Note that this circuit design does not include a voltage buffer, as it was decided against upon noting that the desired output was easily obtained without a buffer, and omitting the buffer resulted in much lower current drawn from the battery (see Section 3.2), as well as resulting in lower total cost due to less components present in the circuit. Analysis and simulation of all circuits was done with the simulation software LTSpice.

Chapter 2

Voltage regulation

2.1. Introduction

Given a 9 V_{DC} battery, a voltage regulator is required to reduce the voltage level to 5 V_{DC} , as this is the level required by the operational amplifiers used in the rest of the circuit. Two voltage regulators were considered: the LM7805 linear regulator as well as the LM2595 switchmode regulator, which were both analysed with regards to efficiency and noise by means of calculations and simulations. According to the literature, the linear regulator does not really output noise, but has low power efficiency of around 50% for input and output of 9 V_{DC} and 5 V_{DC} [?] respectively. The switchmode regulator can provide power efficiency of around 85%, but outputs a considerable amount of noise [?]. With the aforementioned in mind, both of the regulators were simulated (Section 2.2) to determine the best trade-off between low noise and efficiency.

2.2. Design

The LM7805 chip and its required peripheral circuit is shown in Figure 2.1. Component values were obtained from the datasheet [?]. For testing purposes, a $50\,\Omega$ load was connected to the regulator, drawing $100\,\mathrm{mA}$.

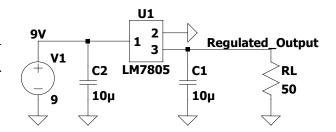


Figure 2.1: Linear Voltage Regulator

The LM2595 chip is shown in figure 2.2, built into the required peripheral circuit. Capacitor and inductor values were obtained from the datasheet [?]. Resistor values were calculated:

$$V_{OUT} = V_{REF} \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right) \quad \text{ where } V_{REF} = 1.23 V$$

Selecting R_1 as $1 k\Omega$, with V_{out} as 5 V gives R_2 as 3065Ω . For testing purposes, a 50Ω load was connected to the regulator, drawing $100 \,\mathrm{mA}$.

Since the provided circuit includes a resistor (R_{sense}) between the voltage source and the voltage regulator, the voltage drop over the resistor will be $V = IR = (0.01238)(0.01) = 123.8 \mu\text{V}$. This is negligible, as it is not nearly enough to approach the

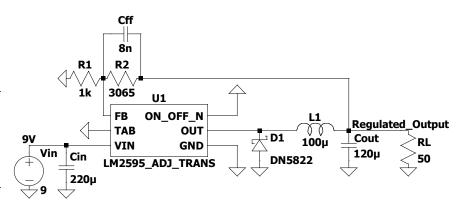


Figure 2.2: Switchmode Voltage Regulator

dropout voltages of the voltage regulators, which are $6.7\,\mathrm{V}$ for the LM7805 and $5.8\,\mathrm{V}$ for the LM2595 in the case of a $5\,\mathrm{V}$ output.

2.3. Results

The input and output power measurements are displayed in table 2.1. Comparing the efficiency of the respective regulators, it is clear that the switchmode regulator is considerably more efficient. However, simulation results in a settling time of 1.24 ms, which is quite slow.

Furthermore, the switchmode regulator creates noise levels of up to 950 mV $_{\rm pp}$ in the output, as can be seen in figure 2.3, whereas the linear

Table 2.1: Comparison of Voltage Regulators

	$I_{in} [\mathrm{mA}]$	I_{out} [mA]	P_{in} [mW]	P_{out} [mW]	η [%]
LM7805	105.06	100.05	945.54	500.55	52.93
LM2595	57.54	99.65	517.86	496.6	95.89

regulator produces almost no noise (figure 2.4). Noise is a problem, as the large gain of the differential amplifier will increase the noise levels, which will distort the output.

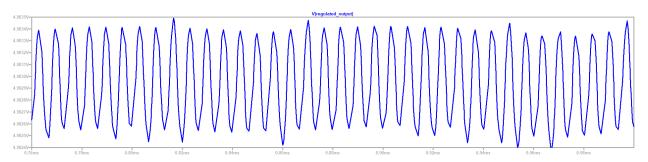


Figure 2.3: Switchmode Voltage Regulator Noise

The output graphs of the voltage regulators are shown in figures 2.4 and 2.5, and clearly demonstrate that both regulators produce the desired output current and voltage. The input current for the switchmode regulator is not shown as it obscures the graph, but it has an average value of 57.54 mA. All relevant values can be found in table 2.1.

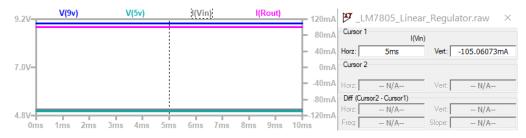


Figure 2.4: Linear Voltage Regulator Output

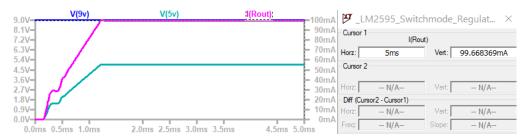


Figure 2.5: Switchmode Voltage Regulator Output

2.4. Summary

Concluding, it has been shown that both regulators behave as expected, but that the levels of noise present in the switchmode regulator make it unsuitable for the design at hand, as input signals, and thus the noise as well, will be amplified to levels of noise in the output signal that are unacceptable for an ADC input. The linear regulator will therefore be used. This choice was made despite the fact that the switchmode regulator is approximately 40% more efficient than the linear regulator. However, since the total current drawn is still very low, the efficiency is not a problem. However, it should be noted that the current drawn should be re-evaluated after the rest of the components have been connected to the regulator, in order to make sure that the current draw requirement still is met, and that the current needed is within the range that the regulator can supply.

Chapter 3

Temperature sensor conditioning circuit

3.1. Intro

The signal obtained from the temperature sensor presents as DC, with a 35 mV, 50 Hz AC signal superimposed, which serves no purpose, but creates noise. The DC component increases linearly with respect to the temperature measured by the sensor. However, the sensor outputs a voltage of 440 mV at 0°C, which increases by 35 mV for every 1°C. These voltage levels are too small for a microcontroller ADC to take as input. Furthermore, as the sensor is only meant to measure human body temperature, the applicable range is only from 34°C to 42°C. The two aforementioned considerations necessitate amplification of the relevant part of the temperature sensor signal to occupy as much of a 0 to 5 V range as possible, as this is the voltage range used by the ADC. To this end, a temperature sensor conditioning circuit is required to transform the given input into the desired output. This conditioning circuit consists of a filter, an offset removing subcircuit, as well as an amplifier. The filter attenuates the AC signal present in the input signal in order to obtain an output signal with a minimal amount of noise. The offset removing subcircuit removes enough of the DC offset to ensure that the output signal is centered around 2.5 V, which is necessary to obtain the largest possible output swing as discussed previously. Finally, the amplifier increases the magnitude of the input signal in order to be suitable as input for an ADC.

3.2. Design

The amplifier was designed first, as its gain serves as the determining factor for the amount of noise reduction that is required from the filter. A TLC2272 op-amp was chosen as it allows for an output very close to its rails. Since the output signal has to be centered around 2.5 V, a differential amplifier was decided upon, as the negative input can be used to adjust the offset present in the output. Given a zero-reference temperature sensor voltage (V_{zero}) of 440 mV, with an increase (V_{Δ}) of 35 mV for every 1°C. Therefore, temperature sensor voltage levels are calculated as follows: $V_{temp} = V_{zero} + V_{\Delta} \times \text{Temp}$

Table 3.1: Temperatures and Corresponding Voltage Levels

Temperature [°C]	32	38	42
Voltage [V]	1.63	1.77	1.91

According to table 3.1, the maximum input voltage swing equals 1.91 - 1.63 = 0.28V, and

has a DC offset of $1.77\,\mathrm{V}$. Amplification is needed to reach an output voltage swing of $5\,\mathrm{V}$. Therefore:

$$A_v = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = \frac{5}{0.28} = 17.86$$

Considering the current design requirement of 25 mA maximum, the input resistor R is selected as $10 \text{ k}\Omega$, which will therefore, at the highest possible voltage level (5 V), use 0.5 mA of current. This gives $R_{feedback} = 178.6 \text{k}\Omega$, according to $A_v = \frac{R_{feedback}}{R}$ [?]. R corresponds to R_1 and R_2 , and $R_{feedback}$ to R_3 and R_4 in the final design diagram (figure 3.1), which is shown here already to aid with the explanation of the design process.

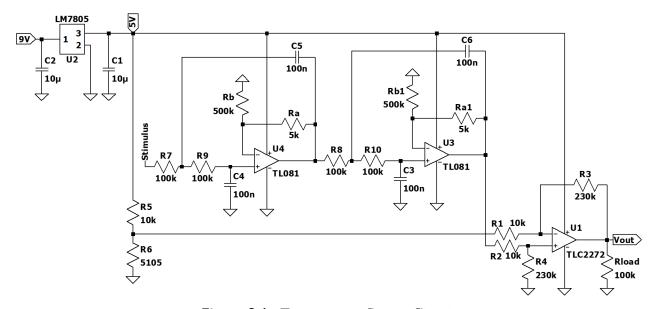


Figure 3.1: Temperature Sensor Circuit

Two points need to be considered:

- The DC offset of the input signal is undesired and has to be removed in order to obtain a zero-mean input signal. This can be achieved by designing another subcircuit that makes use of another op-amp, for example. This adds to the cost and complexity of the circuit.
- 2. The output signal has to be centered around $2.5\,\mathrm{V}$. This means that a DC offset has to be added in the form of a virtual ground.

When considered in conjunction with each other, the DC offset alteration can be resolved in one step, thereby reducing cost and complexity significantly. The decision was therefore made to use a differential amplifier, with the input signal connected to the positive input, after which the voltage required at the negative input can be calculated in such a way as to simultaneously subtract the offset and add the virtual ground in one step, thereby producing an output DC offset of 2.5 V (the lecturer mentions that this is an acceptable approach in Lecture Video 2). This approach also simplifies the design procedure, as it becomes unnecessary to calculate the

virtual ground separately. The differential amplifier, however, has to be non-inverting. The calculation thus reduces to a simple differential amplifier gain formula [?]:

$$V_{out} = \frac{R_{feedback}}{R} (V_{in+} - V_{in-}) \rightarrow 2.5 = \frac{178600}{10000} (1.77 - V_{in-})$$

With V_{out} as 2.5 V, V_{in+} as 1.77 V and the resistor values as calculated previously, $V_{in-} = 1.63$ V. The voltage at V_{in-} can be set by means of a voltage divider circuit, which takes 5 V as input and is calculated as follows (resistor names in formulae are selected to conform with Figure 3.1):

$$V_{in-} = 5(\frac{R_6}{R_6 \times R_5})$$

Selecting R_5 as $10 \,\mathrm{k}\Omega$ gives $R_6 = 4.84 \,\mathrm{k}\Omega$.

The filter has to be designed next. Possible design choices included an active/passive first order low-pass filter, a simple RC filter, or a second order low-pass filter. Simulation of the aforementioned filters has shown the following: the RC filter is very simple, but does not meet the design requirements w.r.t. noise. The passive low-pass filter is relatively simple, but does not meet the settling time requirement. The active low-pass filter meets both the noise and settling time requirements, but requires the TLC2272 op-amp to do so. Since a single TLC2272 op-amp is more expensive than multiple TL081 op-amps, the decision was made to rather use cascaded second order low-pass filters, which make use of the TL081. This is somewhat more complex, but lowers the cost, as the final circuit now only uses three op-amps, two of which are the cheaper TL081 models. The cascaded setup also produces an output signal with extremely low noise. A filter gain of close to unity is desired; for $R_A = 500 \,\mathrm{k}\Omega$, a value of $5 \,\mathrm{k}\Omega$ is suitable for R_A , according to the formula from [?]:

$$A_v = 1 + \frac{R_A}{R_B}$$

The settling time requirement of 100 ms means that a cutoff frequency of more than 10 Hz is needed, while the attenuation of noise requires a cutoff frequency below 50 Hz. In order to minimize noise, the cutoff frequency was selected at 15 Hz - the bandwidth thus also is 15 Hz (only positive frequencies considered). Choosing R (R_7 and R_9 in the diagram) as $100 \,\mathrm{k}\Omega$ gives C (C_4 and C_5) as $106.1 \,\mathrm{nF}$, according to

$$f_c = \frac{1}{2\pi RC}$$

The given cutoff frequency implies a rise time of 19.1 ms according to $t_r \approx \frac{1.8}{w_n} = \frac{1.8}{2\pi(15)}$ [?]. This meets the requirement of 100 ms. After design completion, this filter is then duplicated and connected back-to-back in order to form cascaded second-order low-pass filters, as seen in figure 3.1.

Under most circumstances, it is a good design practice to include a unity gain op-amp at the input of the op-amp responsible for the correct offset, as it acts as a voltage buffer, thereby clamping the voltage against fluctuations caused by the differential amplifier's other input. This design practice was considered, but ultimately decided against, as tests with and without the buffer provided outputs of equal quality (similar to the output shown in section 3.3). The reason a buffer is not needed is due to the signal conditioning circuit already having a very high input resistance, following from the choice of resistors. The only notable differences resulting from the inclusion of a buffer were an increase in current drawn, as well as an increase in cost for the circuit components, as another op-amp is required. Therefore, in order to keep the current consumption below 15 mA, as well as to use reduce cost by only using three op-amps, the voltage buffer was omitted in the final design.

3.3. Results

The designed circuit produces a signal centered at 2.5 V with an output swing of 4.86 V (figure 3.2), exceeding the required 3.5 V. The absolute maximum amount of noise measured is 25.6 mV, and the settling time is 67 ms, thereby meeting the requirements of 50 mV and 100 ms respectively. Total current draw is 12.83 mA, well below the required 15 mA. The cutoff frequency, obtained via AC analysis simulation, is 10.48 Hz (figure C.2). Measurements and graphs of settling time, cutoff frequency and current drawn can be seen in Appendix C. It is thus clear that all requirements, as well as all bonus requirements, have been met with a good margin to spare, all the while using only three op-amps, two of which are the cheaper TL081 models. The output signal (light blue) is shown in figure 3.2.

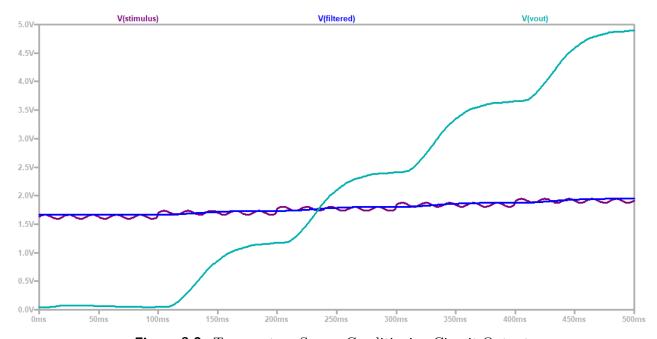


Figure 3.2: Temperature Sensor Conditioning Circuit Output

3.4. Summary

Concluding, the circuit performs very well, and successfully amplifies the temperature sensor output to a level that is readable by the microcontroller ADC, all the while attenuating almost all noise present in the input. The design is somewhat complex, but also cheaper, as it uses less of the TLC2272 op-amps.

Chapter 4

System and conclusion

4.1. System

Concluding, it has been shown that the combination of the voltage regulator and the temperature sensing circuitry works very well to achieve the desired result. Since the design is modular, it should be easy to integrate with the rest of the health monitoring system, by feeding the output of the temperature sensor into the system designed in this report, and then connecting the output of this system to the microcontroller ADC. This requires relatively few connections. Since the cascaded filters ensure extremely low noise levels, the ADC should be capable of distinguishing the measured temperature to a very high degree of accuracy. However, the ADC still has to be calibrated to fit the amplified signal's range, which is now from A to B. Since the noise is low, the measurement error should be less than %, as the quantisation error is %. (E.g. what the calibration will look like and what the the measurement error will be given the range, quantisation error and noise).

4.2. Lessons learnt

- 1. Make sure to understand the instructions before starting to work.
- 2. Texmaker is a nightmare with citations.
- 3. Don't go surfing for the entirety of the first week of class.

Bibliography

Appendix A

Social contract

Sign and inlcude.



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E-design 344 Social Contract

2020

The purpose of this document is to establish commitment between the student and the organisers of E344. Beyond the commitment made here, it is not binding.

In the months preceeding the term, the lecturer (Thinus Booysen) and the Teaching Assistant (Michael Ritchie) spent countless hours to prepare for E344 to ensure that you get your money's worth and that you are enabled to learn from the module and demonstrate and be assessed on your skills. We commit to prepare for the module, to set the tests and assessments fairly, to be reasonably available, and to provide feedback and support as best and fast we can. We will work hard to give you the best opportunity to learn from and pass analogue electronic design E344.

Signature: 13 July 2020 Date:	
I, Daniel von Eschwege the intention to learn of and be assessed on the principals of analogue electronic design. De potential publication of supplementary videos on specific topics, I acknowledge that I am expattend the lectures and lab sessions to make the most of these appointments and learning oppo Moreover, I realise I am expected to spend the additional requisite number of hours on E344 as in the yearbook. I acknowledge that E344 is an important part of my journey to becoming a professional engithat my conduct should be reflective thereof. This includes doing and submitting my own work hard, starting on time, and assimilating as much information as possible. It also includes showin towards the University's equipment, staff, and their time.	espite the pected to rtunities specifie neer, an workin
Signature: Date: 16/08/2020	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •

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Appendix B

GitHub Activity Heatmap

Take a screenshot of your github version control activity heatmap and insert here.

Appendix C

Stuff you want to include

A 1°C step input (35 mV), as shown in figure C.1, was used to determine the settling time. The settling time is measured at the point where the output steps to 90% of the final value (622 mV), which is 560 mV. The settling time was thus measured as 62.07 ms, as shown by the cursor difference in figure ??.

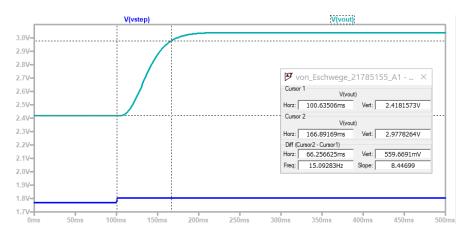


Figure C.1: Settling Time Measurement

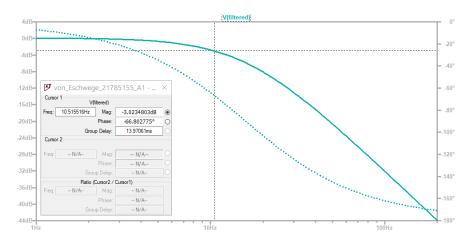


Figure C.2: Cutoff Frequency Measurement