

St. Thomas' College of Engineering & Technology

Department of Electronics and Communication Engineering



MINI PROJECT/ ELECTRONIC DESIGN WORKSHOP

EC681

AY: 2023-24

Group NO: 6

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General Information

Course Name	Mini Project/Electronic Design Workshop	Course Code	EC681	Course Credit	2
Year	3rd	Semester	6th	Session	2023-24
Laboratory Name	Project Lab (Room NO: 114)		Supported By	Dr. Ankush Chattopadhyay	
Faculty/s	1. Dr. Ankush Chattopadhyay 2. Dr. Ramanath Dutta 3. Prof. Sumani Mukherjee		Technical Assistant/s	1. SKK 2. SBn 3. BC 4. MB	

Course Objective:

1. To focus on the product design based on electronic circuits combining hardware and software.
2. To encompass components, devices, analog or digital ICs, micro controller with which functional familiarity has been introduced.
3. To perform comprehensive literature survey/ need analysis, based on that the problem statements are defined.
4. To propose the detailed specifications, methodology, resources requirements, critical issues involved in design and implement the design.
5. To implement the design by working in a team of 3-4 members.
6. To completed mini project within the specified time span and prepare the detail documentation in the form of mini project report.

Course Outcomes

After completion of the projects, student will be able to:

Outcome no.	Outcome Statements	Bloom's Level
CO1	Conceive a problem statement either from rigorous literature survey or from a the real life problem i.e., the requirements raised from need analysis	5
CO2	Design, implement and test the prototype/algorithm in an innovative way to solve the complex engineering problems	6
CO3	Apply technical knowledge in the solution of complex real-life problems	3
CO4	Write comprehensive report on any project work	6
CO5	Understand the impact of the suggested solutions in health, society, cost etc	2
CO6	Apply the knowledge acquired during the project, in future larger project, higher studies or any professional job	3

Bloom's Level: Remember=1; Understand=2; Apply=3; Analyze=4; Evaluate =5; Create=6

CO-PO/PSO matrix of the course

	PO												PSO	
CO No.	PO1	PO2	PO3	PO4	PO5	PO6	PO7	PO8	PO9	PO10	PO11	PO12	PSO1	PSO2
CO 1	2	3	2	3	1	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	-	3
CO 2	3	3	3	3	3	-	-	-	2	2	3	2	2	2
CO 3	3	2	3	3	3	1	-	1	2	1	2	2	3	2
CO 4	2	1	2	2	2	-	-	1	2	3	2	2	-	-
CO 5	1	-	1	1	-	2	2	3	1	1	1	2	2	-
CO 6	3	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3

Course – PO/PSO matrix

	PO1	PO2	PO3	PO4	PO5	PO6	PO7	PO8	PO9	PO10	PO11	PO12	PSO1	PSO2
EC681	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2

Enter correlation levels 1, 2 or 3 as defined below:

1: Slight (Low)

2: Moderate (Medium)

3: Substantial (High)

It there is no correlation, put “-”

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MINI PROJECT-1

TOPIC: Compare two digital numbers (two bits) and display the result in a 7-Segment Display.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Digital systems often require the comparison of numerical values and the clear presentation of the results. This project involves the design of a digital circuit to compare two 2-bit binary numbers and display the outcome on a 7-segment display. This setup is essential in numerous digital electronics applications, such as calculators, digital meters, and other display systems.

The focus of the project is on creating a circuit that accepts two 2-bit binary inputs, A and B. The circuit will compare these inputs to determine if the first number (A) is greater than, less than, or equal to the second number (B). Based on the comparison, the circuit will drive a 7-segment display to indicate the result: 'A' if the first number is greater, 'B' if the second number is greater, and 'E' if the numbers are equal.

To accomplish this, the project uses basic digital logic gates like AND, OR, NOT, and XOR to implement the comparison logic. Instead of utilizing a pre-made 7-segment display driver IC, the project involves designing a custom logic circuit to control the 7-segment display. This custom logic is developed by creating a truth table for each segment of the display and simplifying the logic using Karnaugh maps.

This hands-on project not only reinforces the understanding of digital logic principles but also enhances problem-solving skills by requiring the application of theoretical knowledge to create a functional hardware implementation. The project illustrates how fundamental concepts of digital electronics can be applied to develop practical and effective digital systems.

1.2 LITERATURE SURVEY

The domain of digital comparators is a well-established area in digital electronics, forming the foundation for various computational and display systems. Digital comparators play a crucial role in arithmetic logic units (ALUs), digital signal processors (DSPs), and numerous other applications requiring binary number comparisons. The fundamental task of these devices is to determine whether one binary number is greater than, less than, or equal to another.

Several research papers and textbooks offer comprehensive insights into the design and implementation of digital comparators. For instance, "Digital Design" by M. Morris Mano and

Michael D. Ciletti provides an extensive overview of the principles and types of comparators, including single-bit and multi-bit comparators, along with their practical applications in digital systems [1].

In their paper, Sharma et al. (2019) explore the design and efficiency optimization of digital comparators, emphasizing the importance of speed and power consumption in contemporary digital circuits [2]. They examine various techniques to enhance comparator performance, which is vital for high-speed computing and real-time processing applications.

A study by Patil et al. (2018) focuses on the implementation of comparators using different logic families and their impact on power and delay metrics [3]. This research highlights the significance of selecting suitable logic gates and optimization methods to achieve desired performance levels in specific applications.

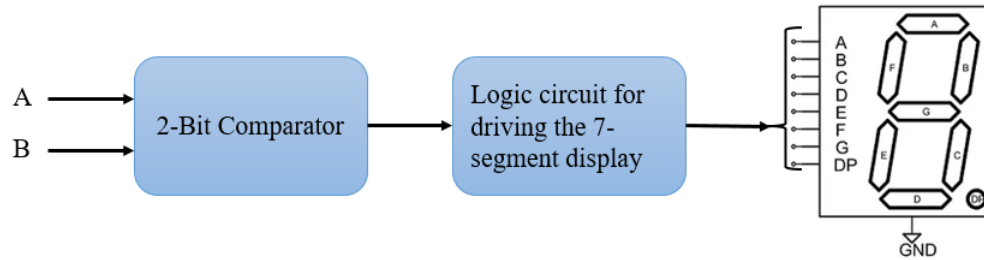
Moreover, a practical approach to teaching digital logic design is presented in "Digital Systems: Principles and Applications" by Ronald J. Tocci and Neal S. Widmer. This textbook emphasizes hands-on projects involving basic logic gates and small-scale integration (SSI) components, akin to the approach taken in this project [4]. It provides valuable insights into the educational benefits of engaging students in practical, hardware-based digital logic design projects.

Previous works have primarily concentrated on more complex multi-bit comparators or different display methods such as light-emitting diodes (LEDs) and liquid crystal displays (LCDs). However, this project aims to simplify the comparison process for educational purposes using basic digital circuits and a 7-segment display. The use of a 7-segment display is particularly advantageous for visualization in educational settings, as it provides a clear and straightforward representation of the comparison results.

The project leverages fundamental concepts of digital logic design, such as the use of truth tables and Karnaugh maps for logic simplification, to implement the comparator and display logic. By building the comparator using basic gates (AND, OR, NOT, XOR), the project offers a deeper understanding of the underlying mechanisms of digital comparison and display systems.

In summary, the literature provides a solid framework for understanding and implementing digital comparators. This project builds on these foundational concepts by applying them to a practical, hands-on design that emphasizes educational value and the core principles of digital electronics.

1.3 BLOCK DIAGRAM

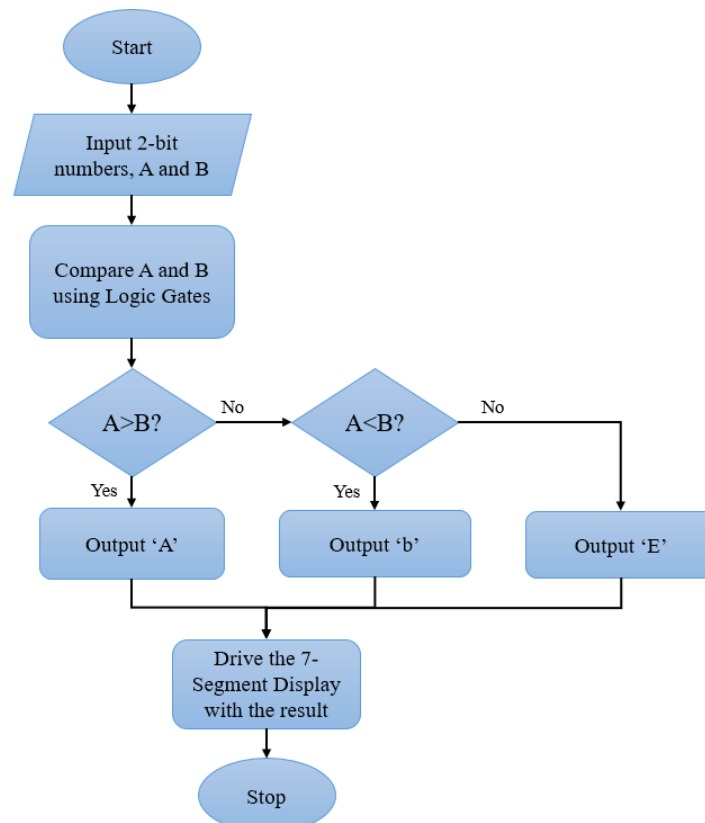


1.4 FLOWCHART/ALGORITHM

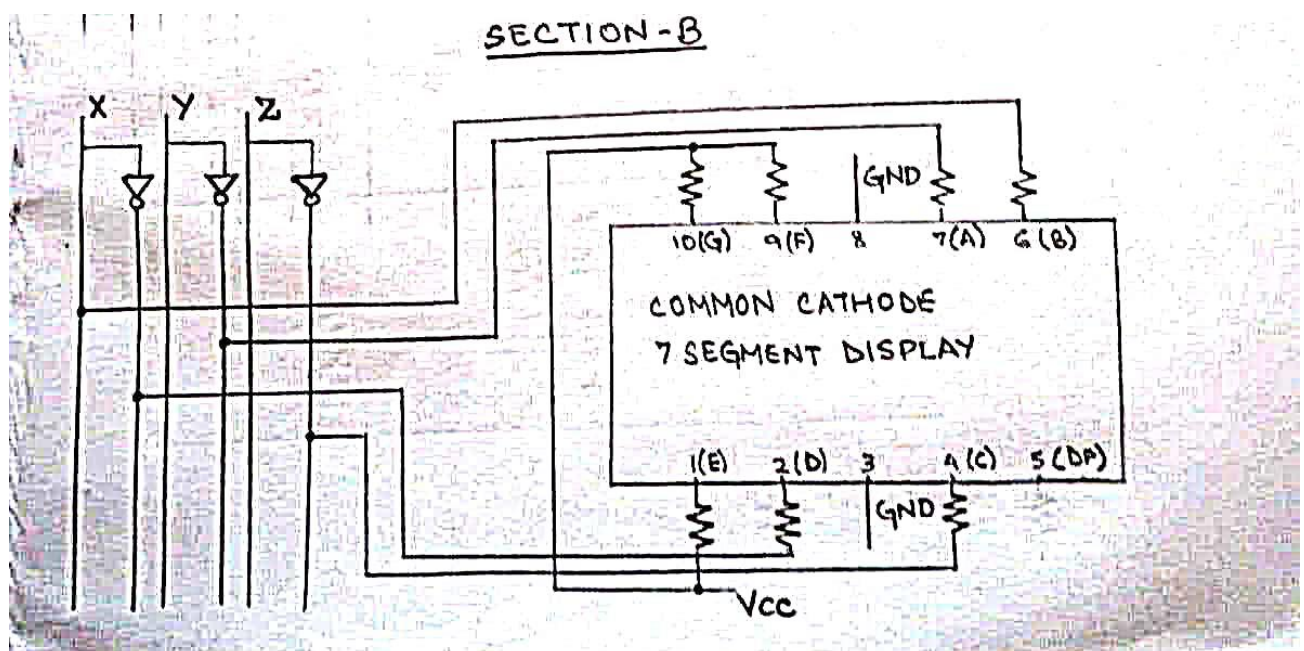
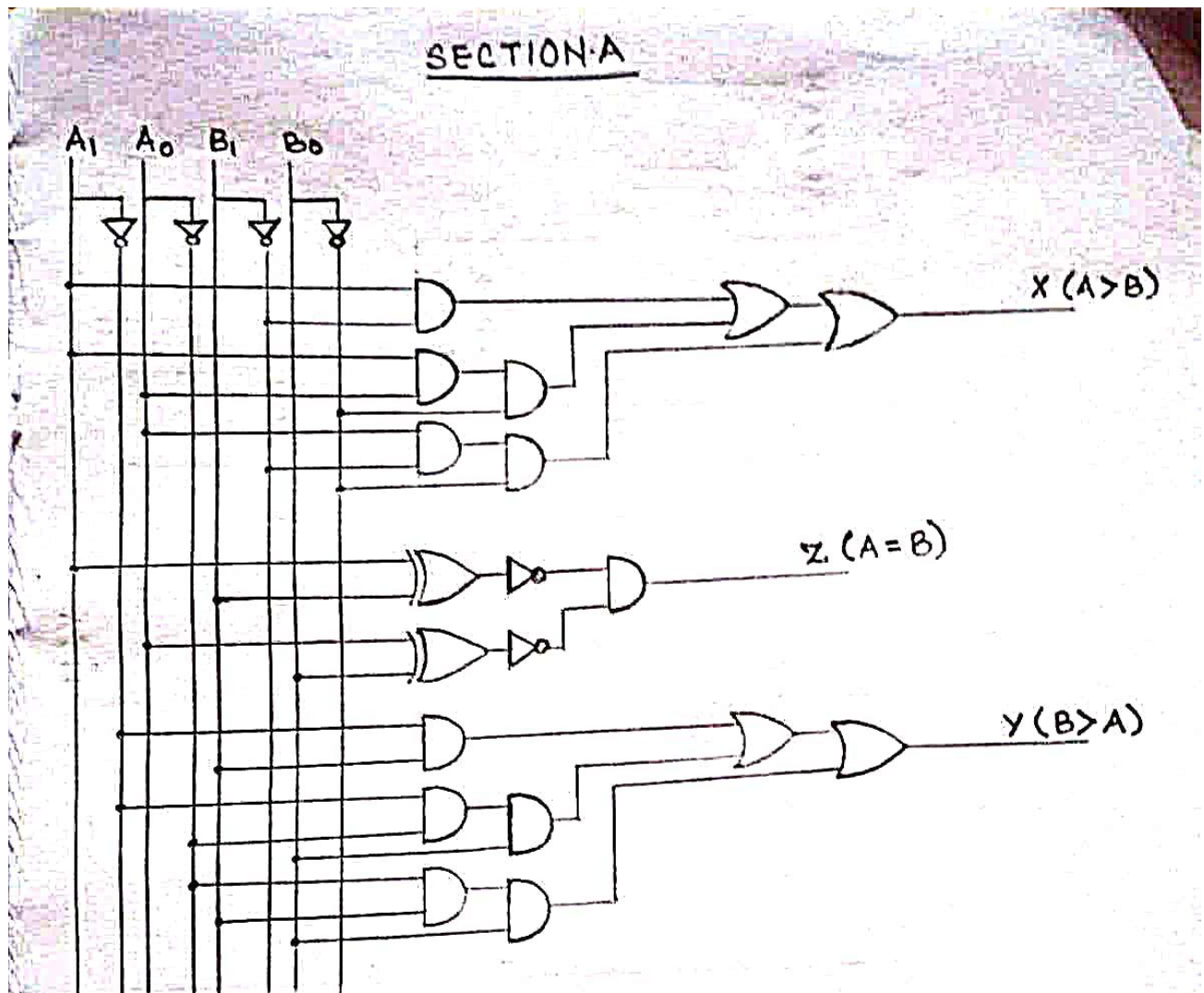
Algorithm:

1. Start
2. Input 2-bit numbers A and B
3. Compare A and B using logic gates
 - If $A > B$, set output to 'A'
 - If $A < B$, set output to 'b'
 - If $A == B$, set output to 'E'
4. Drive the 7-segment display with the result using custom logic
5. End

Flowchart:



1.5 CIRCUIT DIAGRAM



1.6 COMPONENT LIST

Component	Specification	Quantity
AND Gate	74LS08	3
OR Gate	74LS32	1
NOT Gate	74LS04	2
XOR Gate	74LS86	1
7-Segment Display	Common Cathode	1
Resistors	220 Ω	7
Breadboard	-	2

1.7 DETAILED DESCRIPTION

The project entails using fundamental logic gates to compare two 2-bit numbers and designing a custom logic circuit to control the 7-segment display. This section offers a thorough explanation of the design process, the logic implementation, and the method by which the 7-segment display is managed using the outputs from the comparator.

Comparator Design:

1. **Inputs:** The inputs to the comparator are two 2-bit numbers, represented as A (A1, A0) and B (B1, B0).
2. **Truth Table:**

INPUT				OUTPUT		
A1	A0	B1	B0	A < B	A = B	A > B
0	0	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	1	1	0	0
0	0	1	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	1	1	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	1	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	1
1	0	0	1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	1	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	1
1	1	0	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	0	1	0

- **Greater Than ($A > B$):**

- For A to be greater than B, the following conditions must be met:
 - $A_1 > B_1$, or
 - $A_1 == B_1$ and $A_0 > B_0$

$A > B$

	$B_1 B_0$	00	01	11	10
$A_1 A_0$	00	0	0	0	0
	01	1	0	0	0
	11	1	1	0	1
	10	1	1	0	0

SOP OF $A > B$:-
 $A_1 \bar{B}_1 + A_1 A_0 \bar{B}_0 + A_0 \bar{B}_1 B_0$

- **Less Than ($A < B$):**

- For A to be less than B, the following conditions must be met:
 - $B_1 > A_1$, or
 - $B_1 == A_1$ and $B_0 > A_0$

$A < B$

	$B_1 B_0$	00	01	11	10
$A_1 A_0$	00	0	1	1	1
	01	0	0	1	1
	11	0	0	0	0
	10	0	0	1	0

SOP OF $A < B$:-
 $\bar{A}_1 B_1 + \bar{A}_1 \bar{A}_0 B_0 + \bar{A}_0 B_1 B_0$

- **Equal To ($A == B$):**

- For A to be equal to B, the following conditions must be met:
 - $A_1 == B_1$ and $A_0 == B_0$

$A = B$

	$B \backslash A$	00	01	11	10
$A \backslash B$	00	1	0	0	0
	01	0	1	0	0
	11	0	0	1	0
	10	0	0	0	1

SOP of $A = B$:-

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \bar{A}\bar{A}\bar{B}\bar{B} + \bar{A}A\bar{B}B + A\bar{A}B\bar{B} + A\bar{A}B\bar{B} \\
 &= \bar{A}\bar{B}(\bar{A}\bar{B} + A\bar{B}) + A\bar{B}(A\bar{B} + \bar{A}\bar{B}) \\
 &= (\bar{A}\bar{B} + \bar{A}\bar{B})(\bar{A}\bar{B} + \bar{A}\bar{B}) \\
 &= (\bar{A}\bar{B})(\bar{A}\bar{B})
 \end{aligned}$$

7-Segment Display Logic:

1. Truth Table and Karnaugh Maps:

- The outputs of the comparator are used to drive a 7-segment display. Each segment (a, b, c, d, e, f, g) of the display must be controlled based on the comparison result ($A > B$, $A < B$, $A = B$).
- A truth table is created for each segment, specifying the desired output for the characters 'A', 'b', and 'E'.
- Karnaugh maps are used to simplify the logic expressions for each segment.

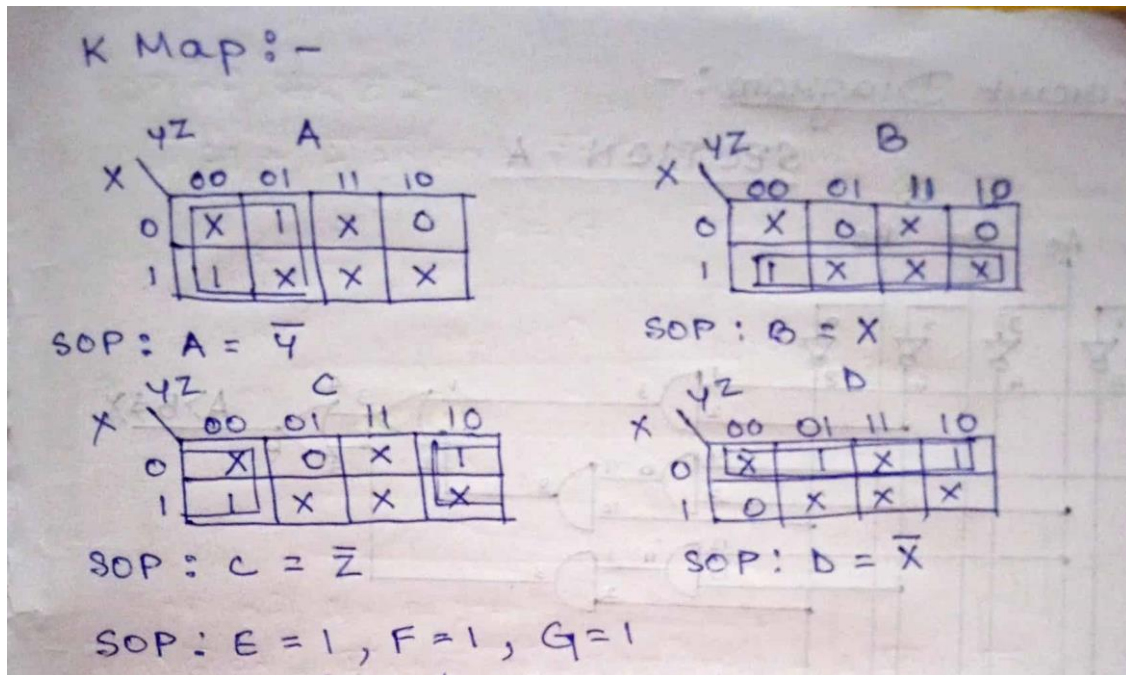
Truth Table :-

X	Y	Z		A	B	C	D	E	F	G
$A > B$	$A < B$	$A = B$								
0	0	0								
0	0	1	E	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	b	0	0	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	1								
1	0	0	A	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
1	0	1								
1	1	0								
1	1	1								

2. Logic Implementation:

- Segment 'a':** It is lit for the characters 'A' and 'E'.

- **Segment 'b':** It is lit for the characters 'A'.
- **Segment 'c':** It is lit for the characters 'A' and 'b'.
- **Segment 'd':** It is lit for the characters 'b' and 'E'.
- **Segment 'e':** It is lit for all the characters 'A', 'b' and 'E'.
- **Segment 'f':** It is lit for all the characters 'A', 'b' and 'E'.
- **Segment 'g':** It is lit for all the characters 'A', 'b' and 'E'.



3. Connecting Logic to the 7-Segment Display:

- The outputs of the simplified logic expressions for each segment are connected to the corresponding segments of the 7-segment display.
- This direct control of the display segments using logic gates eliminates the need for a dedicated 7-segment display driver IC.

Circuit Implementation:

- The comparator and 7-segment display logic circuits are implemented on a breadboard or PCB using basic components such as resistors, wires, and logic gates (e.g., 7408, 7432, 7404, 7486).
- The inputs A and B are provided through switches or a microcontroller, and the comparison result is visually displayed on the 7-segment display.

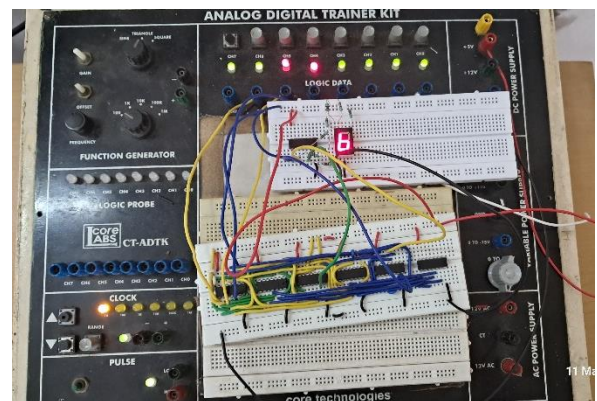
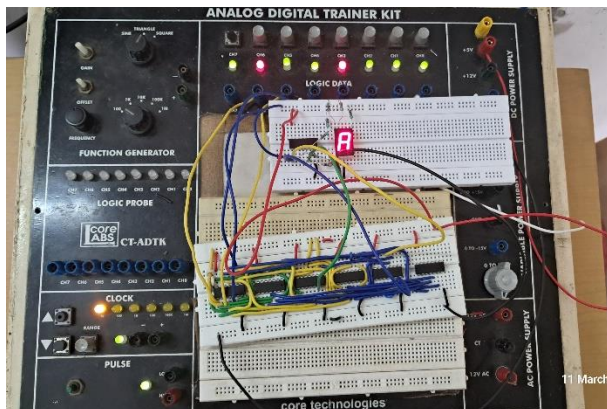
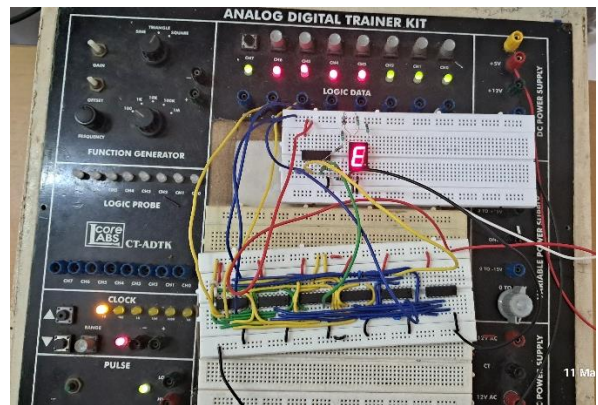
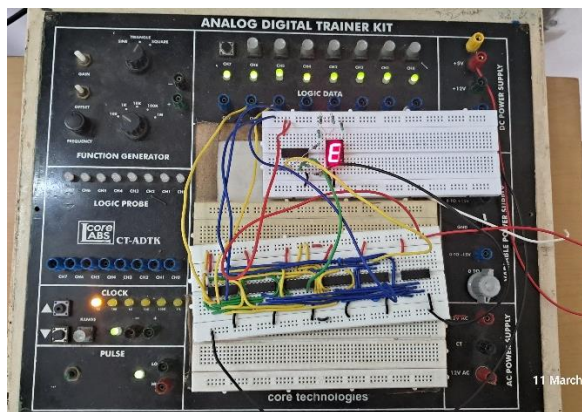
In conclusion, this project involves designing a digital comparator using basic logic gates and implementing custom logic to drive a 7-segment display. The use of truth tables and Karnaugh maps ensures that the logic is optimized and efficient. This project not only enhances understanding of

digital logic design but also provides practical experience in constructing and troubleshooting digital circuits.

1.8 RESULT AND ANALYSIS

The project involves utilizing basic logic gates to compare two 2-bit numbers and designing a custom logic circuit to drive a 7-segment display. This section offers a comprehensive explanation of the design process, the logic implementation, and the method by which the 7-segment display is controlled using the outputs from the comparator.

The constructed circuit effectively compares two 2-bit numbers and displays the result on a 7-segment display. The circuit was tested with all possible combinations of 2-bit inputs (00, 01, 10, 11) for both A and B, validating the accuracy of the comparison and display logic. When A was greater than B, the display showed 'A'; when B was greater than A, the display showed 'b'; and when A was equal to B, the display showed 'E'.



Testing Procedure:

1. **Input Combinations:** Each combination of the 2-bit numbers A and B was systematically tested. The test cases included:
 - A = 00, B = 00; A = 00, B = 01; A = 00, B = 10; A = 00, B = 11

- A = 01, B = 00; A = 01, B = 01; A = 01, B = 10; A = 01, B = 11
- A = 10, B = 00; A = 10, B = 01; A = 10, B = 10; A = 10, B = 11
- A = 11, B = 00; A = 11, B = 01; A = 11, B = 10; A = 11, B = 11

2. Comparison Logic Verification:

- For each input combination, the comparison logic was verified by checking the outputs of the logic gates.
- The conditions for $A > B$, $A < B$, and $A = B$ were confirmed by monitoring the intermediate signals using a logic analyzer.

3. Display Output Verification:

- The output on the 7-segment display was observed for each input combination.
- The display correctly showed 'A' when $A > B$, 'b' when $B > A$, and 'E' when $A = B$.

Detailed Results:

1. A > B Scenarios:

- Inputs: A = 10, B = 01; Display Output: 'A'
- Inputs: A = 11, B = 10; Display Output: 'A'
- The segments lit for 'A' matched the expected configuration based on the simplified logic expressions.

2. A < B Scenarios:

- Inputs: A = 01, B = 10; Display Output: 'b'
- Inputs: A = 00, B = 01; Display Output: 'b'
- The segments lit for 'b' matched the expected configuration based on the simplified logic expressions.

3. A = B Scenarios:

- Inputs: A = 10, B = 10; Display Output: 'E'
- Inputs: A = 01, B = 01; Display Output: 'E'
- The segments lit for 'E' matched the expected configuration based on the simplified logic expressions.

Analysis:

The project's success is attributed to its systematic approach to logic design and implementation. By using truth tables and Karnaugh maps, the logic was efficiently simplified, ensuring minimal gate usage while maintaining precise functionality. This project demonstrates the practical application of theoretical concepts in digital electronics, offering a robust learning experience.

In conclusion, the successful implementation and testing of this digital comparator project affirm its educational and practical significance. The project underscores the importance of fundamental digital logic design and lays the groundwork for more complex digital systems. Through this hands-on project, we gained valuable insights into the intricacies of digital comparisons and display mechanisms, enhancing our overall understanding and skills in digital electronics.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This project showcases a practical application of digital logic design by comparing two 2-bit numbers and displaying the result on a 7-segment display. It provides hands-on experience with basic logic gates and the process of designing custom logic circuits using truth tables and Karnaugh maps, which are essential skills in digital electronics.

By undertaking this project, we gained a deeper understanding of the functioning of digital comparators and how to translate logical conditions into physical outputs. The use of basic gates (AND, OR, NOT, XOR) in constructing the comparator circuit offers foundational insights into digital design, reinforcing theoretical concepts through practical application.

Additionally, the project's focus on deriving custom logic for the 7-segment display driver, rather than using a pre-made IC, highlights the importance of problem-solving and critical thinking in electronics. We learned to:

- Construct truth tables to define the logic for each segment of the display.
- Simplify these logical expressions using Karnaugh maps, a fundamental technique for minimizing Boolean functions.
- Implement and troubleshoot these simplified expressions using discrete logic gates.

The successful completion of this project highlights the effective integration of theory and practice. It illustrates how basic digital components can be combined to develop more complex and functional systems. The project also underscores the importance of accuracy in digital design, as even minor mistakes in logic implementation can result in incorrect display outputs.

Furthermore, this project acts as a foundation for more advanced digital systems design. The skills gained here are directly applicable to larger-scale digital design tasks, such as creating ALUs, memory address decoders, and other essential components of microprocessors and microcontrollers. Grasping the basics of digital comparison and display logic also paves the way for exploring programmable logic devices (PLDs) and field-programmable gate arrays (FPGAs), where these principles are implemented on a much larger and more complex scale.

In summary, this project on comparing two digital numbers and showcasing the result on a 7-segment display successfully connects theoretical knowledge with practical application. It fosters crucial skills in logic design, problem-solving, and circuit implementation, rendering it an invaluable educational resource in the domain of digital electronics.

1.10 REFERENCES

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2. Sharma, R., Gupta, S., & Mehra, R. (2019). "Design and Optimization of Digital Comparator." Journal of Electronic Design Technology.
3. Patil, R., Desai, S., & Kulkarni, S. (2018). "Implementation of Digital Comparators using Different Logic Families." International Journal of Computer Applications.
4. Tocci, Ronald J., and Neal S. Widmer. "Digital Systems: Principles and Applications." Pearson.
5. <https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/magnitude-comparator-in-digital-logic/>
6. <https://www.alldatasheet.com/datasheet-pdf/pdf/5638/MOTOROLA/74LS04.html>
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MINI PROJECT-2

TOPIC: Design an Audio Amplifier circuit and measure the output power.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This project entails the creation of an audio amplifier circuit utilizing a UA741 operational amplifier along with CL100 and CK100 transistors to boost audio signals and measure the resultant output power. The objective is to grasp the functioning of audio amplifiers, their components, and their practical applications in everyday scenarios.

Audio amplifiers play a critical role in various electronic devices, such as radios, televisions, smartphones, and home theater systems, by enhancing the quality and strength of audio signals. An amplifier elevates a weak input signal to a higher level, making it appropriate for driving loudspeakers and other audio output devices.

The UA741 operational amplifier is a commonly used element in audio amplification due to its reliability and flexibility. It acts as the pre-amplifier stage, where the initial audio signal is amplified before being further boosted by the power amplifier stage, which in this project employs CL100 and CK100 transistors. These transistors are selected for their capability to handle higher power levels, making them ideal for driving the output load, which in this scenario, is a speaker.

This practical project not only reinforces the theoretical knowledge acquired during coursework but also provides essential insights into practical electronics, which is crucial for future projects and professional endeavors in the field of electronics and communication engineering.

2.2 LITERATURE SURVEY

Overview of Existing Works:

Audio amplifiers are essential components in electronic systems, designed to enhance audio signals for improved sound quality and sufficient power to drive speakers. Various amplifier classes have been developed, each with unique characteristics and applications.

- **Class A Amplifiers:** Renowned for their excellent linearity and minimal signal distortion, Class A amplifiers operate with the active device (transistor or vacuum tube) conducting throughout the entire input signal cycle. While they deliver high-fidelity audio output, they also suffer from significant power dissipation and low efficiency, typically ranging from 20-30% [1].

- **Class B Amplifiers:** These amplifiers improve efficiency by having the active device conduct for only half of the input signal cycle. This design, however, introduces crossover distortion at the transition point between the positive and negative halves of the signal, potentially degrading audio quality [2].
- **Class AB Amplifiers:** Combining the benefits of Class A and Class B, Class AB amplifiers conduct for more than half but less than the entire signal cycle. This design reduces crossover distortion and improves efficiency to about 50-70% compared to Class A amplifiers [2].
- **Class D Amplifiers:** Achieving high efficiency (over 90%) through pulse-width modulation (PWM), Class D amplifiers convert the input signal into a series of high-frequency pulses. The complexity of the circuit design and potential electromagnetic interference (EMI) require careful filtering to maintain audio fidelity [3].

Disadvantages of Existing Works:

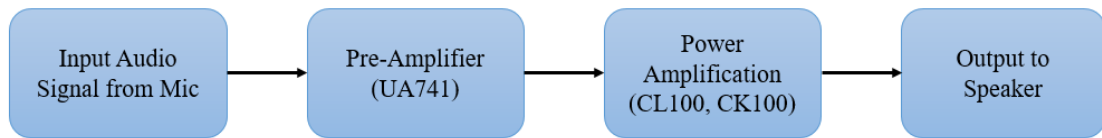
- **Class A Amplifiers:** Although they offer high-fidelity output, their continuous operation results in high power consumption and significant heat dissipation, making them less suitable for portable or energy-efficient applications [1].
- **Class B Amplifiers:** The main drawback is the introduction of crossover distortion at the zero-crossing point of the input signal, which can cause noticeable audio distortion at low signal levels [2].
- **Class AB Amplifiers:** While these amplifiers strike a balance between Class A and Class B, they still face challenges with heat dissipation and slightly higher power consumption compared to Class B designs [2].
- **Class D Amplifiers:** Despite their high efficiency, the complex circuitry and the need for effective EMI management make these amplifiers more challenging to design and implement. The switching nature of Class D amplifiers can also introduce high-frequency noise that must be filtered out to prevent audio distortion [3].

Research Insights:

Recent research has been directed towards enhancing the efficiency and performance of audio amplifiers. For instance, a study by Gupta et al. (2021) explores advanced techniques in Class D amplifier design to reduce EMI and improve audio quality through enhanced filtering methods [1]. Another paper by Johnson et al. (2020) investigates hybrid amplifier designs that combine elements of Class AB and Class D to balance efficiency and audio fidelity [2]. Additionally, the integration of

digital signal processing (DSP) in modern audio amplifiers has been recognized as a significant advancement, allowing for more precise control over audio output and the mitigation of distortion issues [3].

2.3 BLOCK DIAGRAM

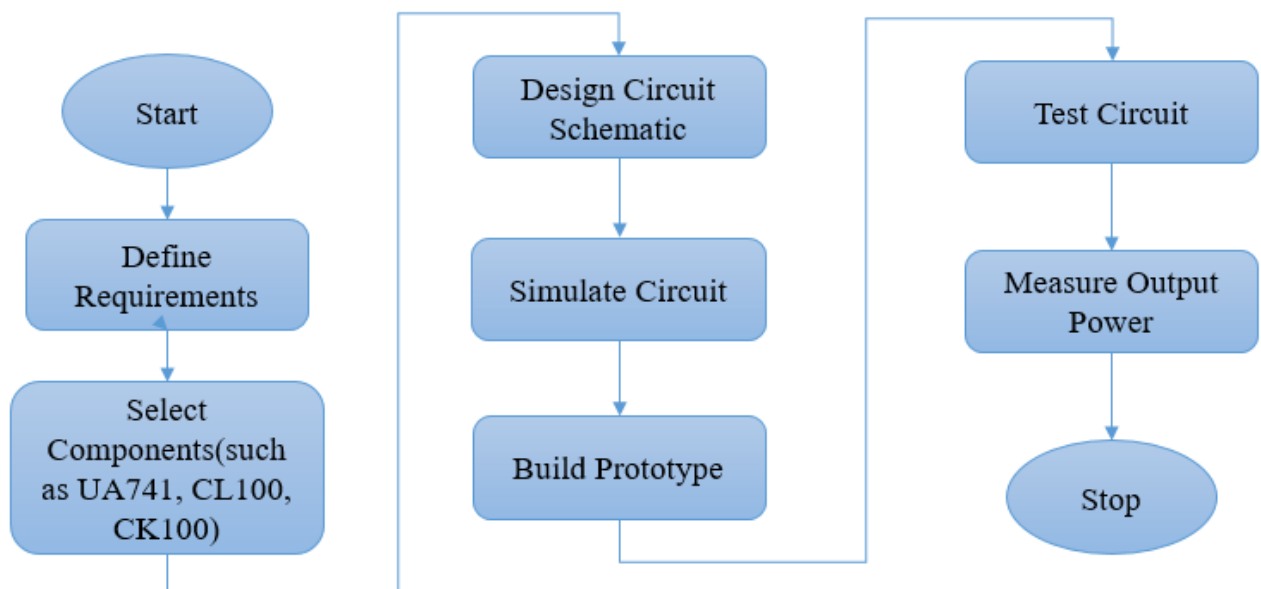


2.4 FLOWCHART/ALGORITHM

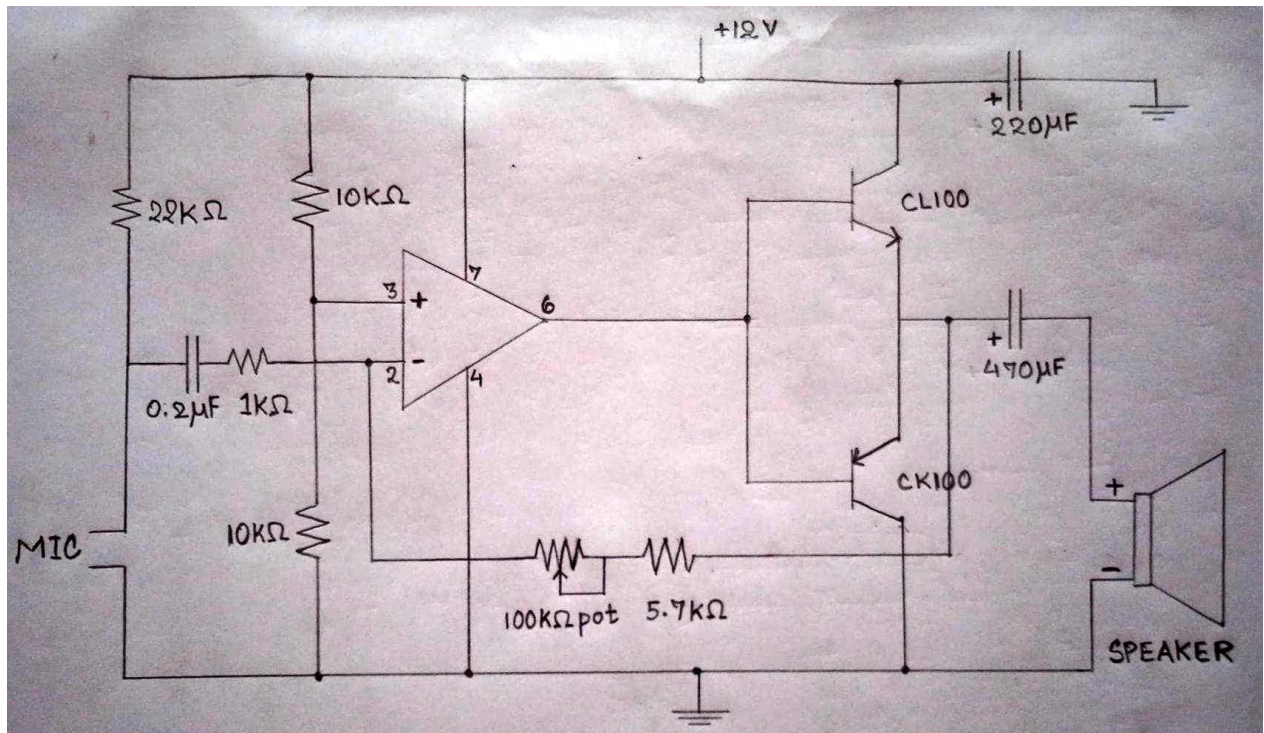
Algorithm:

1. **Input Stage:** Receive the input audio signal.
2. **Pre-Amplification:** Boost the audio signal using UA741 operational amplifier.
3. **Power Amplification:** Further amplify the signal using CL100 and CK100 transistors.
4. **Output Stage:** Deliver the amplified audio signal to the speaker.
5. **Measurement:** Measure the output power using appropriate instruments.

Flowchart:



2.5 CIRCUIT DIAGRAM



2.6 COMPONENT LIST

Component	Specification	Quantity
Operational Amplifier	UA741	1
Transistors	CL100	1
	CK100	1
Potentiometer	100K	1
Microphone	Electret Condenser Microphone	1
Speaker	4 Ω, 3 W	1
Resistors	1KΩ	1
	5.7KΩ (5.6KΩ + 100Ω)	1
	10KΩ	1
	22KΩ	1
Capacitors	0.2μF, Ceramic	1
	220μF, Electrolytic	1
	470μF, Electrolytic	1
Breadboard	-	1

2.7 DETAILED DESCRIPTION

Working Principle:

The audio amplifier circuit amplifies low-power audio signals to a higher power suitable for driving speakers. The UA741 operational amplifier is used for pre-amplification, while CL100 and CK100 transistors are used for power amplification. Below is a detailed description of the various components and their roles in the circuit:

1. Microphone (MIC):

- **Purpose:** Captures the audio signal.
- **Description:** The microphone converts sound waves into an electrical signal, which serves as the input to the amplifier circuit.

2. Input Stage:

- **Components:**

- 0.2 μ F Capacitor
- 1k Ω Resistor
- 10k Ω Resistor

- **Description:** The audio signal from the microphone passes through a 0.2 μ F coupling capacitor, which blocks any DC components. The signal then passes through a 1k Ω resistor, which works with the 10k Ω resistor to form a voltage divider, setting the appropriate input voltage level for the operational amplifier (op-amp).

3. Operational Amplifier (UA741):

- **Pins:**

- Pin 2: Inverting Input
- Pin 3: Non-Inverting Input
- Pin 4: Negative Power Supply
- Pin 6: Output
- Pin 7: Positive Power Supply

- **Description:** The UA741 is configured as a non-inverting amplifier. The audio signal is fed into the non-inverting input (pin 3). The feedback network consisting of a 100k Ω potentiometer and a 5.7k Ω resistor connected between the output (pin 6) and the inverting input (pin 2) sets the gain of the amplifier.

4. Transistors (CL100 and CK100):

- **Purpose:** Provide additional amplification and drive the speaker.

- **Description:**

- **CL100:** Acts as a current amplifier, receiving the output from the UA741 and boosting the current to drive the CK100 transistor.
- **CK100:** Further amplifies the current to provide sufficient power to the speaker.

- **Connections:**

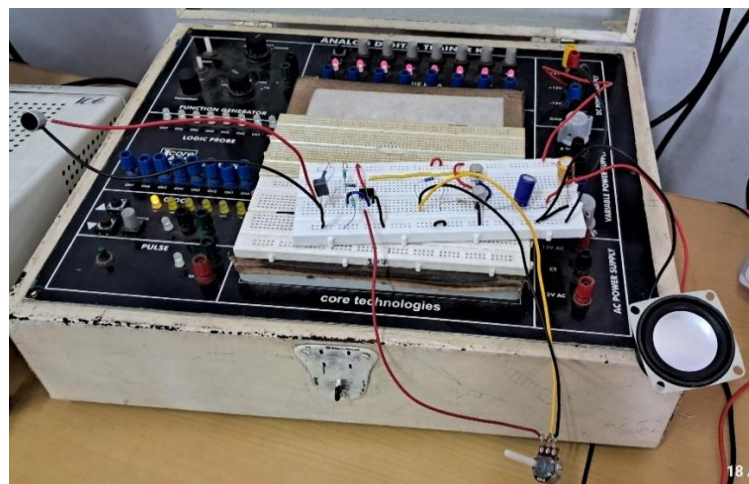
- The collector of the CL100 is connected to the +12V power supply through a 220 μ F capacitor, which stabilizes the voltage supply.
- The emitter of the CL100 is connected to the base of the CK100, forming a Darlington pair configuration for higher current gain.
- The CK100's collector is connected to the speaker through a 470 μ F capacitor, which blocks DC and allows AC signals to pass, ensuring only the amplified audio signal reaches the speaker.

5. Output Stage:

- **Speaker Specifications:** 4 Ω , 3W
- **Description:** The amplified audio signal is fed into the speaker, converting the electrical signal back into sound.

This detailed description and analysis provide a comprehensive overview of the audio amplifier circuit, highlighting its design, component functions, and performance metrics.

2.8 RESULT AND ANALYSIS



Testing of the Circuit:

During the testing phase of our audio amplifier circuit, we provided an input signal with an amplitude of 150mV peak-to-peak. The output signal measured at the speaker terminals had an amplitude of 7V peak-to-peak.

To calculate the amplification factor (gain) of the circuit, we use the formula:

$$\text{Gain} = \frac{\text{Output Amplitude}}{\text{Input Amplitude}}$$

$$\text{Gain} = \frac{7V}{150mV} = 46.67$$

Thus, the amplification factor (gain) of the audio amplifier circuit is 46.67.

These results indicate that our audio amplifier circuit successfully amplified the input signal by a factor of 46.67, demonstrating effective performance in boosting the signal to drive the 4Ω speaker with adequate power.

Output Power Measurement:

- **Voltage Measured Across Speaker:** $7V_{PP} = \frac{7}{2\sqrt{2}} V_{RMS} = 2.475 V_{RMS}$
- **Speaker Resistance:** 4Ω
- **Calculated Power:** $P = \frac{(V_{RMS})^2}{R} = \frac{(2.475 V_{RMS})^2}{4\Omega} = 1.531W$

This calculated power output confirms that the amplifier provides sufficient power to the 4Ω speaker while staying well within its 3W power rating. The analysis verifies that the amplifier design meets the intended specifications and operates effectively within safe parameters, ensuring the longevity and reliability of both the amplifier and the speaker.

Output Sound Quality: The sound quality was assessed subjectively by listening to the amplified output through the speaker. The audio output was clear and free from noticeable distortion, indicating that the amplifier preserved the integrity of the input signal while providing sufficient power.

2.9 CONCLUSION

The audio amplifier circuit designed in this project successfully amplified audio signals to a suitable level for driving a 4Ω speaker, showcasing a practical application of theoretical electronics concepts. By employing the UA741 operational amplifier along with CL100 and CK100 transistors, the project offered valuable insights into the selection, characteristics, and limitations of these components. The UA741 op-amp was pivotal in the pre-amplification stage, providing the necessary voltage gain, while the CL100 and CK100 transistors facilitated current amplification in the power stage, ensuring efficient signal enhancement with minimal distortion.

The hands-on experience in circuit design and implementation was a critical component of this project. Setting up the feedback network for the op-amp to determine the desired gain and designing the complementary push-pull stage using power transistors required meticulous attention and precise component arrangement. This process underscored the significance of practical skills in creating a functional and efficient amplifier circuit. Additionally, the iterative cycle of testing, troubleshooting, and refining the circuit highlighted the essential role of diagnostics in resolving issues and optimizing performance.

Several advantages were apparent in the chosen design. The circuit's high amplification factor (46.67) provided a substantial boost from the input signal of 150mV peak-to-peak to an output of 7V peak-to-peak. The use of widely available and cost-effective components like the UA741, CL100, and CK100 made the design economical and accessible. The adjustable gain feature, facilitated by the 100k Ω potentiometer, allowed for flexible tuning to meet specific requirements. Capacitive coupling effectively blocked DC components, ensuring that only the AC audio signal was amplified. The Darlington pair configuration of the transistors significantly improved the current driving capability, essential for delivering sufficient power to the speaker. Additionally, power supply decoupling capacitors contributed to stability and noise reduction, resulting in cleaner amplification.

Efficiency and performance optimization were key learning outcomes, particularly in understanding the trade-offs between different amplifier classes. The Class AB configuration of the power stage successfully balanced efficiency and distortion, making it suitable for real-world applications. Managing heat dissipation with appropriate heat sinks ensured the circuit's reliability and stability under various operating conditions.

This project also emphasized the importance of bridging theoretical knowledge with practical application. Concepts such as feedback, gain, frequency response, and signal amplification were not only understood but also applied in a hands-on environment, reinforcing theoretical learning with tangible results. This integration is crucial for developing a comprehensive understanding of electronics and for preparing for more complex projects in the future.

Overall, the project was a success, achieving a clear, powerful output suitable for driving a 4 Ω speaker with an output power of 1.531W. The amplifier circuit not only met the design goals but also provided a robust platform for future exploration and enhancement. Potential future work could involve investigating different amplifier classes, integrating digital signal processing (DSP) for enhanced audio control, or designing more complex multi-stage amplification systems for improved

performance. This project lays a solid foundation for these advancements, significantly contributing to ongoing learning and development in the field of electronics and communication engineering.

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MINI PROJECT-3

TOPIC: Design a thermometer using DHT11 & Arduino UNO to display the temperature in °F.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Temperature measurement is crucial in numerous areas such as meteorology, environmental monitoring, and various industrial applications. In this mini-project, we develop a digital thermometer utilizing the DHT11 temperature and humidity sensor in combination with the Arduino UNO microcontroller. The main objective is to accurately measure ambient temperature and display the readings in degrees Fahrenheit on the serial monitor of the Arduino IDE.

The DHT11 sensor is selected for its simplicity, user-friendliness, and affordability. It provides a digital output directly, removing the need for intricate analog-to-digital conversion circuitry. The Arduino UNO, a popular microcontroller board based on the ATmega328P, acts as the core of this project, handling sensor data processing and serial communication.

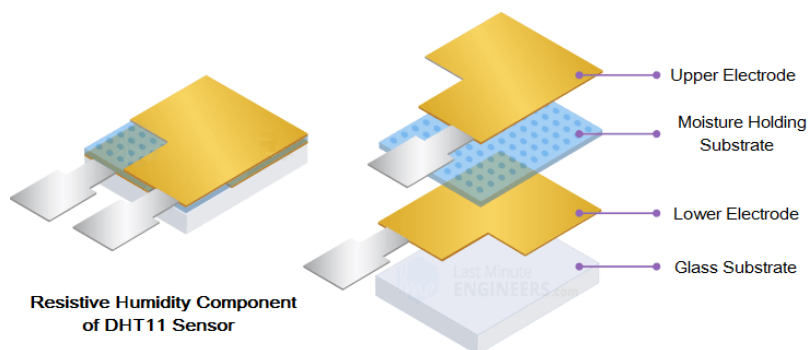
This project aims to offer practical experience with sensor integration, data processing, and serial communication using Arduino.

The DHT-11 sensor

DHT-11 is a basic digital temperature and humidity sensor. The sensor comes pre-calibrated and requires no external circuit for measuring the temperature or humidity.

For sensing humidity, DHT-11 has a resistive component that has two electrodes with a moisture-holding substrate between them. When the substrate absorbs water vapours, it releases ions that increase the conductivity between the electrodes.

When there's higher relative humidity, the resistance between the electrodes is reduced, and when there's a lower relative humidity, the resistance between electrodes is increased. This change in resistance is proportional to the relative humidity.



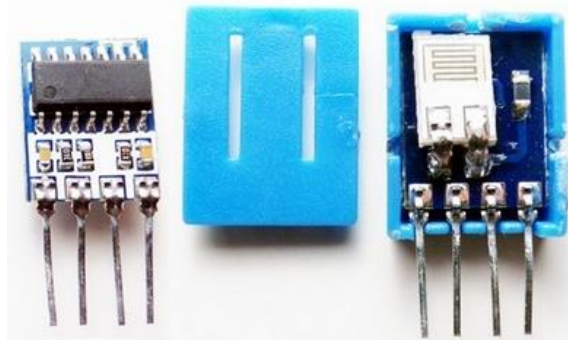
For sensing temperature, the DHT-11 has an NTC Thermistor, which is a thermal resistor. The thermistor contained in the DHT11 has a negative temperature coefficient, so its resistance decreases with increases in temperature.



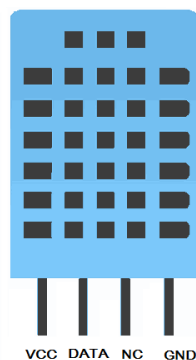
NTC Thermistor

The sensor contains a 14-pin, 8-bit microcontroller IC that:

- Senses analog signals from the humidity-resistive component and the thermistor
- Converts analog voltages to digital values, according to the stored calibration coefficients
- Outputs a digital signal carrying values of humidity, temperature, and a checksum byte



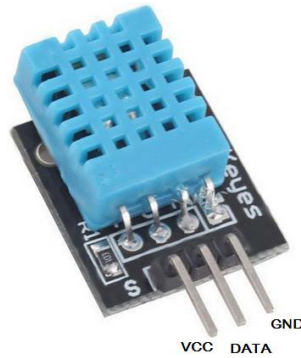
The DHT-11 sensor reads the relative humidity value in a percentage range from 20 to 90% RH. It senses temperature in degrees centigrade, ranging from 0° to 50°C.



DHT-11 Sensor Pinout

The DHT11 sensor module

A DHT11 sensor module is also available. This module has a built-in supporting circuitry, meaning the sensor can be interfaced without additional circuits. The module has a 10 K Ω pull-up resistor between the VCC and DATA pin, and a decoupling capacitor on the power supply for filtering noise. The module has only three pins: VCC, DATA, and Ground.



DHT11 Sensor Module

To support the circuit, the sensor module must ensure proper communication with a controller. If the sensor is used, an external pull-up resistor can be employed. The GPIO of microcontroller boards has built-in, pull-up and pull-down resistors. This ensures the DATA pin of the DHT11 sensor can be directly interfaced with a microcontroller pin that's configured to use an internal pull-up.

3.2 LITERATURE SURVEY

Temperature sensors are essential components in numerous applications, ranging from industrial processes to consumer electronics. They deliver precise and dependable measurements necessary for monitoring and controlling environments. Common temperature sensors include the LM35, DS18B20, and DHT11, each with distinct features and use cases.

1. LM35 Temperature Sensor:

The LM35 is a widely-used analog temperature sensor that produces a linear voltage output directly proportional to the temperature in Celsius. It is renowned for its high accuracy ($\pm 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$) and simplicity. However, as an analog sensor, it necessitates an analog-to-digital converter (ADC) to interface with digital microcontrollers like the Arduino, adding complexity and the need for calibration to ensure precise readings. LM35 sensors are commonly used in scenarios where accurate temperature measurements are crucial, such as laboratory environments and precision climate control systems [1].

2. DS18B20 Temperature Sensor:

The DS18B20 is a digital temperature sensor that utilizes the 1-Wire communication protocol, allowing multiple sensors to connect to a single data line. It provides temperature data in a digital format, simplifying microcontroller interfacing. The DS18B20 offers higher accuracy ($\pm 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ over a range of -10°C to $+85^{\circ}\text{C}$) and a broader temperature range than the DHT11. Its digital nature removes the need for an ADC, making it easier to use in digital systems. This

sensor is particularly suitable for industrial applications where high accuracy is necessary and multiple sensors need to be monitored simultaneously [2].

3. DHT11 Temperature and Humidity Sensor:

The DHT11 is an economical digital sensor that provides both temperature and humidity data. It is widely used in hobbyist and educational projects due to its affordability and ease of use. The DHT11 communicates via a single-wire protocol, simplifying connections to microcontrollers. However, it has a limited accuracy of $\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$ and a narrower operating temperature range (0°C to 50°C) compared to sensors like the DS18B20. Despite these limitations, the DHT11 is suitable for basic applications where high precision is not crucial[3].

Comparison and Relevance to the Project:

While the LM35 and DS18B20 are excellent choices for applications needing high accuracy and a broad temperature range, the DHT11 was chosen for this project due to its simplicity and dual functionality (temperature and humidity measurement). The DHT11's digital output simplifies interfacing with the Arduino UNO, eliminating the need for additional circuitry for analog-to-digital conversion. Furthermore, the sensor's ease of use and availability make it a practical choice for educational purposes and introductory projects in embedded systems.

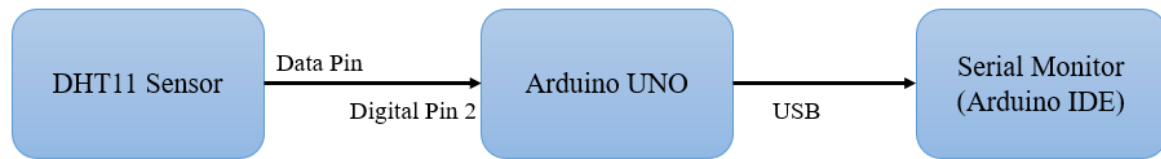
Challenges and Limitations:

Despite the extensive use of temperature sensors, several challenges must be addressed:

- **Accuracy:** Ensuring precise readings requires careful calibration and consideration of sensor placement.
- **Response Time:** The speed at which a sensor responds to temperature changes is crucial for real-time applications.
- **Environmental Factors:** Humidity, airflow, and other environmental conditions can affect sensor performance.

The DHT11's digital output simplifies interfacing with the Arduino UNO, as it does not require additional circuitry for analog-to-digital conversion. The DHT11 sensor, with its balance of cost, ease of use, and functionality, is a suitable choice for this mini-project. It offers a practical introduction to digital sensor interfacing and temperature measurement, laying the foundation for more advanced projects. By using the Arduino UNO, students can concentrate on learning core concepts without the added complexity of analog signal processing.

3.3 BLOCK DIAGRAM

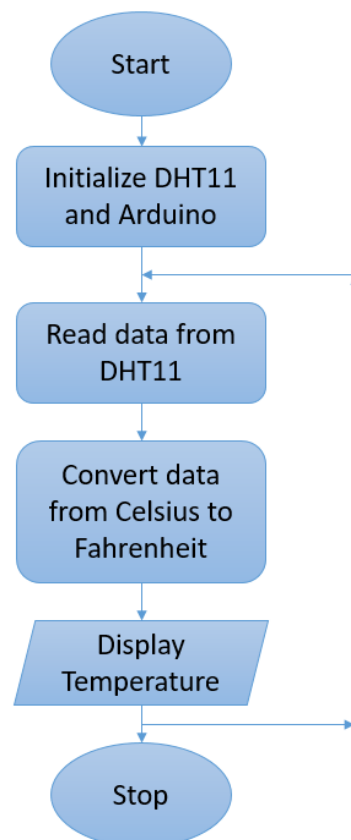


3.4 FLOWCHART/ALGORITHM

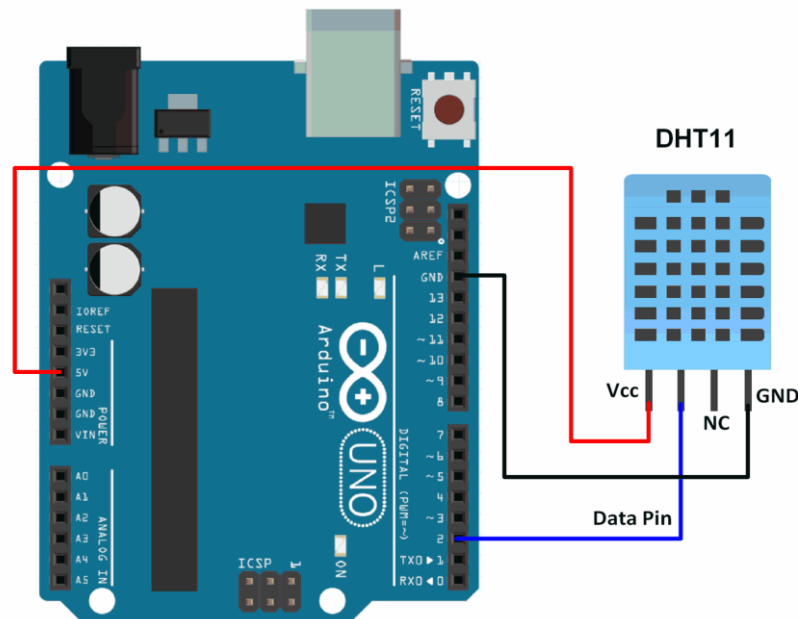
Algorithm:

1. Set up serial communication for displaying data on the serial monitor.
2. Set the DHT11 sensor data pin as input.
3. Send the start signal to the DHT11 sensor.
4. Read the raw data bits from the sensor.
5. Extract temperature data from the raw bits.
6. Convert the temperature from Celsius to Fahrenheit.
7. Display the temperature in Fahrenheit on the serial monitor.
8. Repeat the process at regular intervals.

Flowchart:



3.5 CIRCUIT DIAGRAM



3.6 COMPONENT LIST

- Arduino UNO
- DHT11 Temperature and Humidity Sensor
- Breadboard
- Jumper wires
- USB cable (for Arduino power and programming)

3.7 DETAILED DESCRIPTION

The DHT11 sensor is connected to the Arduino UNO, which reads the temperature data in Celsius. The Arduino then converts this data to Fahrenheit using the formula $T(^{\circ}F) = T(^{\circ}C) \times 1.8 + 32$. The converted temperature is displayed on the serial monitor of the Arduino IDE. This process is done without using any predefined libraries for the DHT11 sensor. Instead, the communication protocol and data parsing are implemented manually in the Arduino code.

Interfacing DHT-11 with Arduino

The DHT-11 sensor can be directly interfaced with Arduino. It can be provided 5V DC and ground from Arduino. The sensor's data pin can also be directly connected to any of Arduino's digital I/O pins. But the digital I/O pin to which it's interfaced must be configured to use an internal pull-up. Otherwise, an external pull-up resistor of 10K must be connected between VCC and DATA pin of DHT-11. Alternatively, the DHT-11 sensor module can be used.

How DHT11 works

The DHT-11 sensor uses a one-wire protocol to communicate the humidity and temperature values. The sensor act as a slave to a host controller.

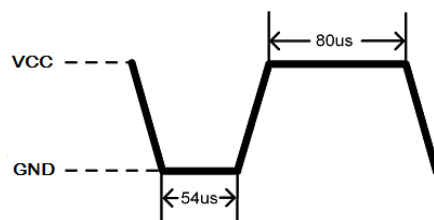
The digital communication between the DHT11 and the host controller (like Arduino) can be breakdown into four steps:

1. **Start signal.** To start communicating with the DHT11 sensor, the host (Arduino) must send a start signal to the DATA pin of the DHT11 sensor. The DATA pin is then pulled HIGH by the default. The start signal is a logical LOW for 18 milliseconds, which is followed by a LOW-to-HIGH transition (rising edge).



Start Signal from Host to DHT11 Sensor

2. **Response.** After receiving a start signal from the host, DHT-11 sends a response signal to indicate that it's ready to transmit the sensor data. The response pulse is a logical LOW for 54 microseconds and then a logical HIGH for 80 microseconds.



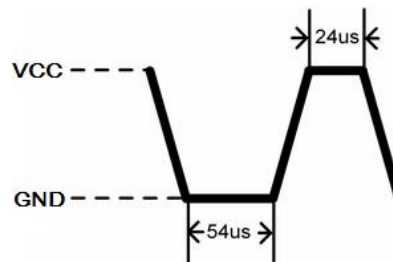
Response Signal from DHT11 to Host

3. **Data.** After sending a response pulse, DHT11 will begin transmitting sensor data containing the values of humidity, temperature, and checksum byte. The data packet consists of 40 bits, with five 8-bit segments or bytes.

The first two bytes contain the value of relative humidity, whereby the first byte is an integral part of the humidity value and the second byte is a decimal part of the humidity value. The next two bytes contain the value of temperature, whereby the third byte is an integral part of the temperature value and the fourth is a decimal part of the temperature value.

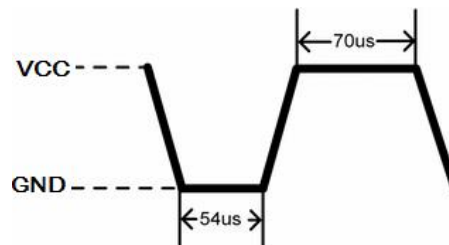
The last byte is a checksum byte, which must be equal to the binary sum of the first four bytes. If the checksum byte is not equal to the binary sum of the humidity and temperature values, there's an error in the values.

The bits are transmitted as timing signals, where the pulse width of the digital signal determines whether it's bit 1 or bit 0. Bit 0 starts with a logical LOW signal (Ground) for 54 microseconds, followed by a logical HIGH signal (VCC) for 24 microseconds.



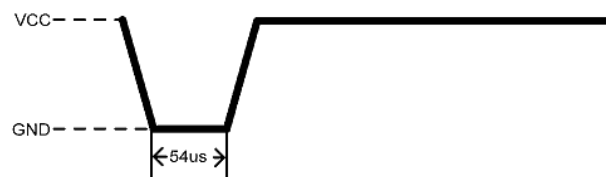
DHT11 Bit 0

Bit 1 starts with a logical LOW signal (ground) for 54 microseconds, followed by a logical HIGH signal (VCC) for 70 microseconds.



DHT11 Bit 1

4. **End of the frame.** After transmitting the 40-bit data packet, the sensor sends a logical LOW for 54 microseconds and then will pull HIGH on the data pin. After this, the sensor goes into a low-power consumption sleep mode. The data from the sensor can be sampled at a rate of 1 Hz or once every second.



DHT11 End of Data Packet

Reading sensor data from DHT11

To read sensor data from the DHT11 sensor, Arduino must first send it the start signal. To do so, the pin that DHT11's DATA pin is interfaced with must be set to a digital output. A digital pulse of 18 milliseconds must be passed to the DATA pin, followed by a rising edge. Immediately afterward, the Arduino pin must be set to a digital input with an internal pull-up.

Now, read the response signal from the DHT11 at the Arduino pin. If a falling edge is detected within 90 microseconds, this means that DHT11 has successfully sent a response pulse.

The data received from the DHT11 sensor can be sampled by polling the logical level of the digital pulse while tracking the pulse width. It's possible to track the pulse width by measuring the time elapsed from a particular instant of time, while polling for a logical HIGH or LOW.

There are `millis()` and `micros()` functions available that track the time elapsed since Arduino boots. The `millis()` function provides the time from the boot in milliseconds and the `micros()` function provides the time from the boot in microseconds.

Arduino Serial Monitor

Arduino IDE has an integrated serial monitor that can be used to receive and send serial data via a desktop's USB ports. The serial monitor can be opened by navigating to Tools->Serial Monitor.

In this project, we will send sensor data that's read from the DHT11 sensor to a desktop computer via Arduino UNO. In this case, the DHT11 will be interfaced with Arduino, and Arduino will be connected to the desktop computer via a USB cable. The Arduino is programmed so that the sensor data is observed on Arduino IDE's Serial Monitor.

How the project works

The data pin of DHT11 is connected to Arduino UNO's pin 2. Arduino is programmed to send a start signal to the DHT11 sensor, and then to read the response pulse and serial data from the sensor.

For detecting the response signal and reading serial data from DHT11, the input digit signal at the Arduino pin is polled and the pulse width for the TON and TOFF is determined. This is done by comparing the time elapsed for a logical HIGH input after the rising edge of the signal and the time elapsed for a logical LOW input after the falling edge of the signal at the Arduino pin.

By measuring the pulse width of the TON signal of the response signal, it determines if the start pulse has been successfully applied to DHT11's data pin. If the pulse width of the TON after the rising edge in response signal does not exceed 90 microseconds, this means the start signal has been successfully applied to DHT11's DATA pin. Otherwise, there will be a `TIMEOUT_ERROR` when applying the start signal to DHT11's data pin.

After receiving the response pulse from DHT11, the serial data from it is read at the Arduino pin. Bits 0 and 1 are detected by measuring the pulse width after the rising edge of the signal. If the pulse width exceeds 30 microseconds, it's bit 1. Otherwise, it's bit 0.

The bits are stored in a 16-bit variable and transferred to other 16-bit variables for the humidity and temperature values, and to an 8-bit variable for checksum byte.

The read bits — with the humidity and temperature value, checksum byte, and error codes — are sent to the serial port in this format.

Arduino Code:

```
void setup()
{
    Serial.begin(9600);
}

void dec2bin(int n)
{
    int c, k;

    for (c = 15; c >= 0; c--)
    {
        k = n >> c;

        if (k & 1)
            Serial.print("1");
        else
            Serial.print("0");
    }
}

void dec2bin8(int n)
{
    int c, k;

    for (c = 7; c >= 0; c--)
    {
        k = n >> c;

        if (k & 1)
            Serial.print("1");
        else
            Serial.print("0");
    }
}

void wait_for_dht11()
{
    delay(2000);
}

void start_signal(uint8_t dht11_pin)
{
    pinMode(dht11_pin, OUTPUT);
    digitalWrite(dht11_pin, LOW);
    delay(18);
    digitalWrite(dht11_pin, HIGH);
}
```

```

pinMode(dht11_pin, INPUT);
digitalWrite(dht11_pin, HIGH);
}

void read_dht11(uint8_t dht11_pin)
{
    uint16_t rawHumidity = 0;
    uint16_t rawTemperature = 0;
    uint8_t checksum = 0;
    uint16_t data = 0;

    uint8_t humi;
    uint8_t humd;
    uint8_t tempi;
    uint8_t tempd;

    unsigned long startTime;

    for (int8_t i = -3; i < 80; i++)
    {
        byte live;
        startTime = micros();

        do
        {
            live = (unsigned long)(micros() - startTime);
            if (live > 90)
            {
                Serial.println("ERROR_TIMEOUT");
                return;
            }
        } while (digitalRead(dht11_pin) == (i & 1) ? HIGH : LOW);

        if (i >= 0 && (i & 1))
        {
            data <<= 1;

            // TON of bit 0 is maximum 30 usecs and of bit 1 is at least 68 usecs.
            if (live > 30)
            {
                data |= 1; // we got a one
            }
        }

        switch (i)
        {
            case 31:
                rawHumidity = data;

```

```

        break;
    case 63:
        rawTemperature = data;
    case 79:
        checksum = data;
        data = 0;
        break;
    }
}

Serial.println("Temperature Raw Data: ");
dec2bin(rawTemperature);
Serial.print("\t");
tempi = rawTemperature >> 8;
dec2bin8(tempi);
Serial.print("\t");
rawTemperature = rawTemperature << 8;
tempd = rawTemperature >> 8;
dec2bin8(tempd);
Serial.println("");
Serial.print("Temperature Degree Celcius: ");
Serial.print(tempi);
Serial.print(".");
Serial.print(tempd);
Serial.print("C");
Serial.println("");
float x = tempi + 0.1 * tempd;
float temp_f = x * (9.0 / 5.0) + 32.0;
Serial.print("Temperature Degree Farenheit: ");
Serial.print(temp_f);

Serial.println("");
Serial.println("");
Serial.println("");
}

void loop()
{
    for (unsigned int x = 0; x < 1000; x++)
    {
        wait_for_dht11();
        start_signal(2);
        read_dht11(2);
    }
    Serial.end();
}

```

Programming guide:

The Arduino sketch begins with the `setup()` function, where the baud rate for the serial communication is set to 9600 bps.

Then, the following user-defined functions are written:

dec2bin(int n) – converts a 16-bit integer to its binary representation. It loops through a 16-bit integer value bit-by-bit right, shifting one bit each time and masking it with 1 (using `&` operator) to determine if that particular bit in the integer value is 1 or 0. This function returns nothing, but serially prints the binary representation of the argument passed to it. It's used to convert the read humidity and temperature values to their binary representations.

dec2bin8(int n) – converts an 8-bit integer to its binary representation. It loops through the 8-bit integer value bit-by-bit right, shifting one bit each time and masking it with 1 (using `&` operator) to determine if that particular bit in the integer value is 1 or 0. The function returns nothing, but serially prints the binary representation of the argument passed to it. It's used to convert the read checksum value, the integral and decimal parts of humidity value, and the integral and decimal parts of temperature value to their binary representations.

wait_for_dht11() – provides a delay of two seconds. This time is required to get DHT11 ready for data transmission after its host (Arduino) boots. If this delay is not provided, the DHT11 sensor will not respond to the host controller and, in initial attempts to read the sensor data from DHT11, there will be a timeout error.

void wait_for_dht11()

```
{
    delay(2000);
}
```

start_signal(uint8_t dht11_pin) – generates the start signal for the DHT11 sensor. This function takes the pin where DHT11's DATA pin is interfaced as an argument. The pin is first set as digital output using the `pinMode()` function. It's cleared (LOW) for 18 milliseconds using the `digitalWrite()` and the `delay()` functions. Then, it's set (HIGH) to provide the rising edge of the digital signal. Immediately afterward, the pin is set as digital input and it's pulled HIGH.

void start_signal(uint8_t dht11_pin)

```
{
    pinMode(dht11_pin, OUTPUT);
    digitalWrite(dht11_pin, LOW);
```

```

    delay(18);
    digitalWrite(dht11_pin, HIGH);
    pinMode(dht11_pin, INPUT);
    digitalWrite(dht11_pin, HIGH);
}

```

read_dht11(uint8_t dht11_pin) – used to read sensor data from DHT11. It takes the pin where DHT11's DATA pin is connected as an argument. First, the variables are defined to store the:

- Raw humidity value (containing both integral and decimal parts)
- Raw temperature value (containing both integral and decimal parts)
- Checksum byte
- Bit stream from the DHT11 sensor (variable 'data')
- Integral part of the humidity value
- Decimal part of the humidity value
- Integral part of the temperature value
- Decimal part of the temperature value
- Variable to store instant of time at the rising or falling edge of the signal

```

void read_dht11(uint8_t dht11_pin)
{

```

```

    uint16_t rawHumidity = 0;
    uint16_t rawTemperature = 0;
    uint8_t checksum = 0;
    uint16_t data = 0;
    uint8_t humi;
    uint8_t humd;
    uint8_t tempi;
    uint8_t tempd;
    unsigned long startTime;

```

A for-loop is run to detect DHT11's response signal and bit stream. A variable 'live' is declared to store the TON time and the current instant of time is stored in the variable 'startTime.'

```

for ( int8_t i = -3 ; i < 80; i++ ) {
    byte live;
    startTime = micros();

```

In a do-while loop, the response signal will be detected. It's determined if the digital signal at Arduino pin is HIGH as a condition for the loop. While the signal remains HIGH, the elapsed time from the last measured time instant is polled.

If it's greater than 90 microseconds, the start signal was not properly applied to the DHT11 DATA pin. Otherwise, if there is a falling edge causing the while loop to exit before 90 microseconds, the response signal has been successfully received from DHT11.

Now, we are ready to detect the bit stream from DHT11.

```
do {
    live = (unsigned long)(micros() – startTime);
    if ( live > 90 ) {
        Serial.println(“ERROR_TIMEOUT”);
        return;
    }
}while ( digitalRead(dht11_pin) == (i & 1) ? HIGH : LOW );
```

The for-loop has already run four times in an attempt to detect the response signal. The Arduino pin is read LOW after exiting the previous do-while loop due to a falling edge. Now we can start reading the bit stream. When the loop counter is greater or equal to 0 and is even (like 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, etc.) when it is masked with 1 (& operation), the following if the condition will be false. So, do nothing when there is the TOFF of the digital pulse.

```
if ( i >= 0 && (i & 1) ) {
```

When the loop counter is odd, the if condition will be true. Check if the time elapsed (for the TON of the digital pulse) is greater than 30 microseconds. If so, left shift the variable storing the bit stream and append 1. Otherwise, simply left shift the variable storing bit 0.

```
data <<= 1;
    // TON of bit 0 is maximum 30 usecs and of bit 1 is at least 68 usecs.
    if ( live > 30 ) {
        data |= 1; // we got a one
    }
}
```

When the loop counter has run 31 times since detecting the bit stream, which means 16 bits have been read, store that bit stream to the raw humidity value. When the loop counter has run 63 times since detecting bit stream, so the next 16 bits have been read, store that bit stream to the raw temperature value.

When the loop counter has run 79 times since detecting a bit stream, and 8 bits have been read, store that bit stream to checksum byte.

```
switch ( i ) {
  case 31:
    rawHumidity = data;
    break;
  case 63:
    rawTemperature = data;
  case 79:
    checkSum = data;
    data = 0;
    break;
}
}
```

Now that we have the humidity value, temperature value, and checksum byte, transfer them to the serial port in the format stated above. In this project as we are required to make a thermometer, we will only print Temperature Data Only

```
Serial.println("Temperature Raw Data: ");
dec2bin(rawTemperature);
Serial.print("\t");
tempi = rawTemperature >> 8;
dec2bin8(tempi);
Serial.print("\t");
rawTemperature = rawTemperature << 8;
tempd = rawTemperature >> 8;
dec2bin8(tempd);
Serial.println("");
Serial.print("Temperature Degree Celcius: ");
Serial.print(tempi);
Serial.print(".");
Serial.print(tempd);
Serial.print("C");
Serial.println("");
```

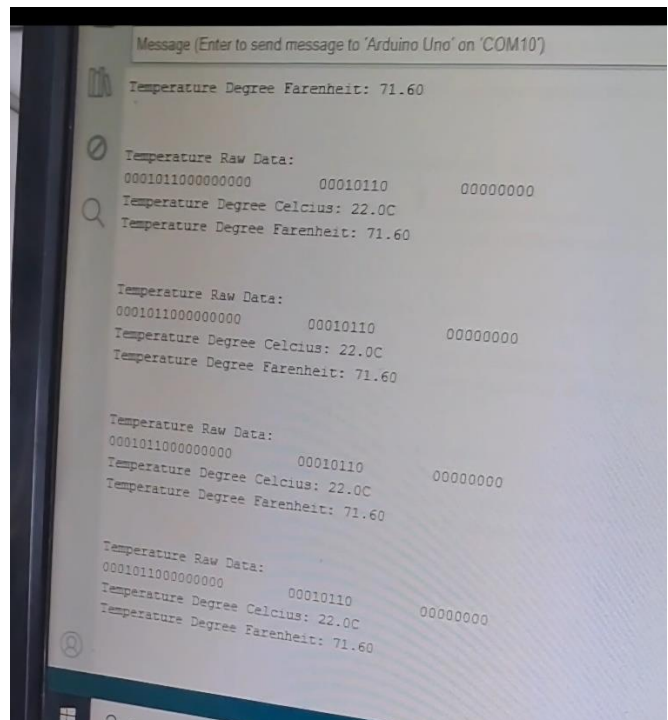
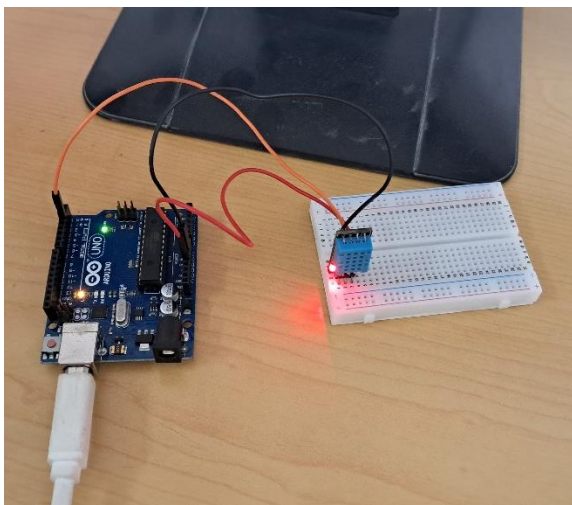
```

float x = temp_i + 0.1 * temp_d;
float temp_f = x * (9.0 / 5.0) + 32.0;
Serial.print("Temperature Degree Fahrenheit: ");
Serial.print(temp_f);
Serial.println("");
Serial.println("");
Serial.println("");
}

```

In the loop() function, the wait_for_dht11(), start_signal() and read_dht11() functions are executed 1000 times in the same sequence. So, the sensor data is read five times from the DHT11 sensor. The serial communication is then closed using the Serial.end() method.

3.8 RESULT AND ANALYSIS



- Output:** The thermometer accurately measures and displays the ambient temperature in Fahrenheit on the serial monitor. This output verifies that the system correctly reads the temperature data from the DHT11 sensor and converts it to Fahrenheit. We tested the system by using different items to vary the temperature: ice cubes for lower temperatures, which resulted in a minimum reading of 68°F; room temperature, which was approximately 82.40°F; and a soldering iron for higher temperatures, which produced a maximum reading of 113°F.

- **Accuracy:** We used a thermometer to compare the actual temperature with the temperature output from the DHT11 sensor. The temperature readings were accurate within $\pm 2^{\circ}\text{F}$, which falls within the DHT11 sensor's specified range of 0°F to 122°F . This level of accuracy is sufficient for basic temperature monitoring applications, such as home environment monitoring or educational projects.
- **Observations:**
 - **Response Time:** The response time is satisfactory for real-time temperature monitoring. The DHT11 sensor and Arduino system update the temperature reading every two seconds, which is sufficient for most practical applications where rapid temperature changes are not expected.
 - **Reliability:** The system consistently produces reliable temperature readings without significant fluctuations, demonstrating stable performance over multiple test cycles.
 - **User Interface:** Displaying the temperature on the serial monitor of the Arduino IDE provides a simple and effective user interface for observing temperature changes in real-time.

These results indicate that the design and implementation of the thermometer using the DHT11 sensor and Arduino UNO are successful, meeting the project's objectives. The system's performance aligns with the expected specifications and demonstrates the feasibility of using Arduino and DHT11 for basic temperature monitoring tasks.

3.9 CONCLUSION

The project effectively showcases the use of the DHT11 sensor and Arduino UNO to create a straightforward digital thermometer. The system is capable of delivering real-time temperature readings in Fahrenheit with satisfactory accuracy. The design and implementation process, which involved writing custom code for sensor communication and data parsing, highlights the versatility and capability of the Arduino platform in managing sensor data.

Key Achievements:

- **Accurate Temperature Readings:** The thermometer provides consistent temperature readings within the DHT11 sensor's accuracy range ($\pm 2^{\circ}\text{F}$), making it suitable for basic monitoring applications.
- **Real-time Monitoring:** The system updates temperature readings every two seconds, allowing users to observe ambient temperature changes in real-time.

- **Educational Value:** By implementing DHT11 sensor communication without relying on predefined libraries, the project offers valuable insights into the fundamentals of digital sensor interfacing and data processing in embedded systems.
- **Simplicity and Cost-effectiveness:** The use of readily available components like the DHT11 sensor and Arduino UNO ensures that the project remains affordable and easy to replicate, making it accessible for educational purposes and hobbyist projects.

This project serves as a foundation for more advanced sensor-based applications, demonstrating how basic components can be effectively utilized to create functional and practical solutions. The skills and knowledge gained from this project are transferable to various other projects in the fields of embedded systems and the Internet of Things (IoT). Overall, the successful completion of this project underscores the potential of Arduino-based systems in educational settings and their relevance in real-world scenarios.

3.10 **REFERENCES**

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