

45 **1.2 GHz MULTIFUNCTION FREQUENCY METER**

PART 4 (FINAL): THE PC LINK (CONTINUED) AND MEASUREMENT PRINCIPLES

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The PC may not transmit characters to the counter while this is busy executing the command string. Any character, in particular US, has the same effect as pressing the BREAK key on the instrument: it halts the execution of the command string, and takes the counter back to its start state (default). This may, of course, be used to break off a measurement on purpose.

By transmitting a DC3 character, the PC prompts the counter to transmit the contents of all registers (Fig. 10i).

Control function DC4 is used by the PC to read the current command stored in the counter (Fig. 10j). The retum transmission starts with the first function contained in the command string. An ACK code indicates that the complete command has been transmitted. If the DC4 is followed immediately by ACK, the command memory is empty.

All functions contained in a command may also be executed directly. one by one (Fig. lOk). This is achieved by having the computer send the function to the counter (in connect mode). This is particularly useful when toggletype settings such as buzzer on/off are to be changed.

A command string consists of a number of functions arranged as a sequence. On changing to command entry mode (STX), a polnter in the counter points to the first function in the command string (Fig. 10i). Any function sent to the counter is then added to the command string at the pointer position. Next, the pointer is increased by one. To check thts loading process, the counter returns a copy of the stored character to the PC. If the command memory is full, the next function recetved is not stored, and a GS code is sent to the PC. Control function HT causes the function at the pointer position to be returned to the PC, and increases the pointer by one wtthout storing the function. Control function CAN moves the pointer back one Iocation, and transmits the character at the new 10 cation.

The counter returns a NAK code if it receives anything it can not interpret (I.e., any unknown control character or f unction) — see Fig. 10m.

The RS code allows the PC to reset

the counter (Fig. 10n). This function is equivalent to switching the counter off and on again. After a reset, all register contents are undefined.

A US code, finally, causes the counter to revert to its start (defauIt) state (break, Fig. 10o). At the same time, it leaves the connect or command entry mode.

Commands

A command consists of a number of individual indicators. The PC should build the command string in accordance with the structure of the menu overview shown in Fig. 8 (part 2). That is, from the top (reset) to the bottom (exit and start), with the functions preceding the parameters. As already mentioned, the relevant codes may be found in the boxes shown in Fig. 8. Table 3 lists all functions and associated codes.

An example is in order at this point to illustrate how a command string may be built. Let us assume that the following measurement is required.

Type: Gate time: 1 s; Start on: START ke frequency on channel A;

The string is shown analysed in Fig. 11. Also refer back to Fig. 8 to understand how the PC follows the menu structure. The two-position hexadecimal numbers are transmitted to the counter as one byte. The number of bytes per command is not fixed, since it is possible, as shown by the exam-

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Table 4. Function descriptions

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Fig.12. **The** 'classic' **digital frequency meter counts the periods of the input signal for a** predetined time.

pIe. that more than one parameter is required to complete the **settings.**

The counter executes the command from the right to the left, i.e., the set**tings** before the **functions.**

You may not use parameters that are shown without a box code (Fig. 8). or that are marked with an asterisk in Table 3. Since the counter does not run a 'plausibility check' on received command strings, the user must make sure that these consist of meaningful parameters. This is not difficult to ensure by virtue of a useful trick that may be used during program development: simply use manual control to give the instrument the desired settings, and then read out the string using the DC4 command.

The frequency measurement principle

In an earlier instalment of this article it was stated that a separate instalment was to be devated to the frequency measurement principle used by the instrument. The division of the complete article into instalments having taken a slightly different form than originally planned, we have decided to include this Information in the present (final) instalment.

The usual way of measuring frequencies is to count the number of pulses that occur within a predefined gate time. Although this is not the most accurate method, it is by Iar the simplest. The number crunching power of a microcontroller or microprocessor, however, allows us to devise much more advanced measurement methods. of which practical applications may be found in Refs. 1 and 2.

Although the same measurement principle is used for the frequency meter function of the 1.2-GHz multifunction frequency meter, this instrument makes even more use of combined software and hardware possibilities offered by the microcontroller. Also, there are now two counters instead of one counter and a programmable divider (of which the setting is determined beforehand by running a 'sample' measurement). The second counter replaces the programmable divider (in digital design, dividers and counters are often considered identical components). The nice thing about this new setup is that the sampie measurement is no longer required, which results in a shorter measurement time. To understand how this works, It may be useful to recap the operation of the pulse counting principle used in 'classic' frequency meters.

The classic approach

To refresh your memory, Fig. 12 shows the architecture of the classic, pulse counting, frequency meter. A clock circuit supplies a gate signal that serves to connect the Input signal to the counter for an accurately determined time, *T.* The number of pulses *N* counted during the gate time *T* thus gives the input signal frequency $(F=N/T)$.

The accuracy of the measurement is detennined by two factors: first, the accuracy of the gate time, and, secondly, the number of pulses counted. The latter factor is responsible for the relatively low accuraey at low frequencies. As illustrated by the timing diagram in Fig. 12, there may be an error

of one in the number of pulses counted. As shown, it all depends on how the gate time, *T*, coincides with the periods of the input signal. The resulting absolute error, Δ_{abs} , is calculated from

$$
\Delta_{\text{abs}} = 1 \text{ (pulse) / } T \text{ (s) [Hz]}
$$

Consequently, the measured frequency may have an error of 1 Hz at a gate time of 1 s, and 10 Hz at a gate time of 0.1 s. This error becomes smaller as the frequency increases, when the main cause of errors is increastngly on aecount of gate stgnal deviations. The table below shows the effect of the counting error at a gate time of 0.1 s:

Frequencies lower than 10 Hz are not gtven simply because they can not be measured at a gate time of 0.1 s. Inevitably, lower frequencies require longer measurement times, which brings us to another disadvantage of the classic frequency measurement principle: measuring low frequencies accurately takes a lot of time.

Ratio-based measurements

A measurement principle that is eminently suited to microprocessor implementation is shown in Fig. 13. The basic principle is very simple. A certain time is reserved to measure the periods of the input signal and those of the reference frequeney. Dividing the two gives the ratio of the input frequency and the reference frequency. Multiplying this ratio wtth the reference frequency then yields the frequeney of the input stgnal.

If we say "a certain time", this has to be taken literally, since the gate time is really only an auxiliary signal in this setup. The input signal frequency is calculated exclusively on the basis of the counter states *N :*

$$
f = f_{\text{ref}} \left(N_1 / N_2 \right).
$$

Bear in mind, however, that the measurement has to run for at least one period of the input signal.

The fact that the gate time is an independent parameter, opens up the possibility to use the computer for 'fine tuning' of the result, or, in other words, make the measurement a little more accurate. This is necessary anyway because both counters make an error of one pulse if the gate time were

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Start immediately **05FH**
 Start on signal **060H**

Start on signal A

Start on signal
 Start on signal A **... 060H 2011 2012 1 1 2013 2014**

indeed arbitrary. This potential problem is solved by having the computer adjust the gate time such that counter 1 processes a whole nuruber of periods. This rules out errors in the number of pulses counted by counter I. The timing diagram in Fig. 13 shows what happens. After the gate time *T* has elapsed. the system keeps counting for a time Δt , so as to include the input signal period that has just started. Unfortunately, the above 'trick' can not be applied to counter 2. That is nothing to worry about, however, provided the counter is fed with a great many pulses. If this is so, the error introduced by the single missing pulse is considerably reduced, as already explained in the section on the classic frequency meter. The number of pulses to be counted by counter 2 depends on the reference frequency (f_{ref}) and the gate time. The reference frequency being fixed $(500 \text{ kHz}$ in the case of the multifunction frequency meter), it will be obvious that we must maintain a reasonably long gate time (the shortest gate time that can be set on the instrument. 100 μ s, is just about acceptable).

AJthough an error of one pulse is inherent in the operation of counter 2, there is still a means of increasing the accuracy of the measurement. To begin with, we have the computer provide a fixed logic level (for instance, 0)

at tbe input of the counter wben the gate time starts. This is achieved with a software-controlled inverter. In this way, we are certain that the first (already running) perrod of the reference signal is included in the count as long as possible. Also, we can have the computer check the logic level of f_{ref} at the end of the gate time. In fact, this produces an error that is smaller than one pulse. All in all, we can safely assurne an error of one pulse for the error calculation. The relative error made by counter 2 is $1/N₂$. To ensure the smallest possible relative error, *N2* must be as large as possible. This can be achieved by making f_{ref} and/or the gate time as large as possible,

Returning to the measured frequency calculation, $f = f_{ref}$ ($N1/N2$), you may spot another source of errors: tbe reference frequency. The relative error in this frequency is determined by the quartz crystal used to generate tbe reference clock. The total measurement error thus becomes:

$$
\Delta_{\rm rel} = \Delta f_{\rm ref} + 1/N_2.
$$

To calculate the error. it is easier to write $f_{\text{ref}}(T + \Delta t)$ instead of N2, because f_{ref} is known, *T* is set on the instrument, and Δt is negligible at relatively high frequencies. and easily calculated at low frequencies on the basis of the measurement result. In addition, the more extensive notation indicates clearly that the relative accuracy of the measurement depends exclusively on (1) the reference frequency. (2) its stability, and (3) the time reserved for the measurement. instead of on the measured frequency.

So, what does it all do in the case of the instrument described? Assuming a measurement time of 0.1 s and a referenee frequency aecuracy of, for instance, 100 ppm (0.01%), the relative error is as small as

 $\Delta_{rel} = 0.01\% + 100\%/500 \text{ kHz} \times 0.1 \text{ s}$ $= 0.012%$

or 120 ppm. Obviously, the relative error is even smaller if the stability of the reference frequency is better, and the measurement time longer.

The functions indicated in Fig. 13 are not easily found back in the circuit diagram of the instrument (Fig. 2 in part 1). In fact, only the gate signal (on connector K5) and a piece of counter 1 are obvious, the rest is implemented by the hardware contained in the mlcrocontroller.

References:

1. 'Microprocessor-controlled frequency meter. *Elektor Electronics* January 1985.

2. 'Multifunction measurement eard for PCs' *Elektor Electronics* January and February 1991.

Fig. 13. Sy virtue of the dual-counter approach, a computer-based frequency meter achieves greater accuracy than a 'classic' design (compare Fig. 12).