

Physics 124: Lecture 9

Project-related Issues

Adapted from Tom Murphy's lectures

Analog Handling

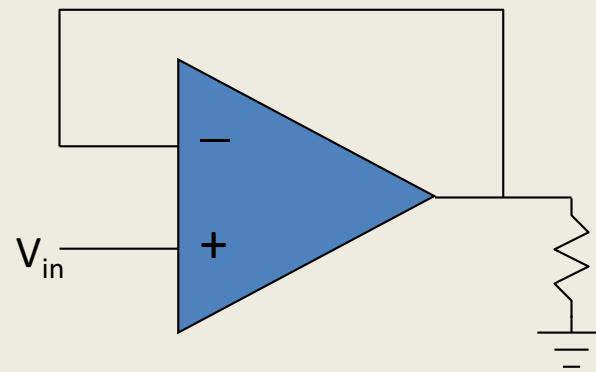
- Once the microcontroller is managed, it's often the analog end that rears its head
 - getting adequate current/drive
 - signal conditioning
 - noise/glitch avoidance
 - debounce is one example
 - dealing with crude simplicity of analog sensors
- As I mentioned before, it's best to convert analog to digital (ADC) close to the sensor and transfer the measurements outcomes digitally
 - I2C: Inter-integrated circuit bus
 - SPI: Serial Peripheral Interface bus

Computers are pretty dumb

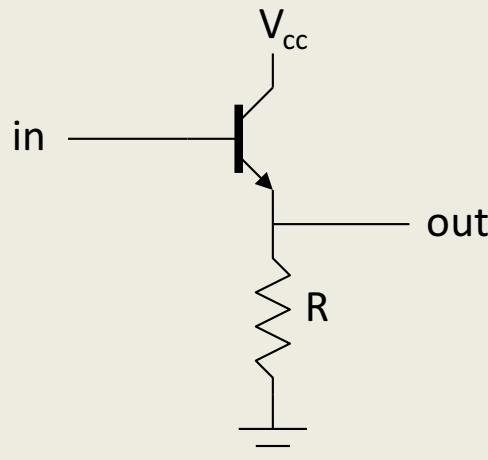
- Operating in the real world requires advanced pattern recognition
 - the Achilles Heel of computers
 - examples of failures/disappointments
 - voice recognition (simple 1-D time series, and even *that's* hard)
 - autopilot cars?
 - intolerance for tiny mistakes/variations
 - many projects require discerning where a source is, avoiding obstacles, ignoring backgrounds, etc.
 - just keep in mind that things that are easy for our big brains (which excel at pattern matching; not so good at tedious precision) may prove very difficult indeed for basic sensors and basic code

Getting Enough Current

- Some devices/sensors are not able to source or sink much current
 - Arduino can do 40 mA per pin, which is big for this business
- On the very low end, an op-amp buffer fixes many ills
 - consider phototransistor hooked to $3\text{ k}\Omega$ sensing resistor
 - we're talking mA of current, so drawing even 0.5 mA away from the circuit to do something else will change the voltage across the resistor substantially
 - enter op-amp with inverting input jumped 'round to output
 - can now source something like 25 mA without taxing V_{in} one iota



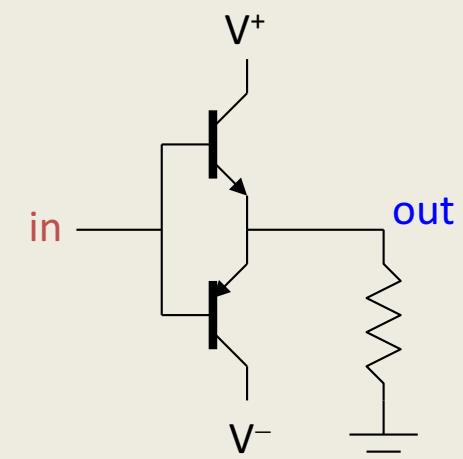
Transistor Buffer



- In the hookup above (emitter follower), $V_{\text{out}} = V_{\text{in}} - 0.6$
 - sounds useless, right?
 - there is no voltage “gain,” but there *is* current gain
 - Imagine we wiggle V_{in} by ΔV : V_{out} wiggles by the same ΔV
 - so the transistor current changes by $\Delta I_e = \Delta V/R$
 - but the base current changes $1/\beta$ times this (much less)
 - so the “wiggler” *thinks* the load is $\Delta V/\Delta I_b = \beta \cdot \Delta V/\Delta I_e = \beta R$
 - the load therefore is less formidable
- The “buffer” is a way to drive a load without the driver feeling the pain (as much): it’s impedance isolation

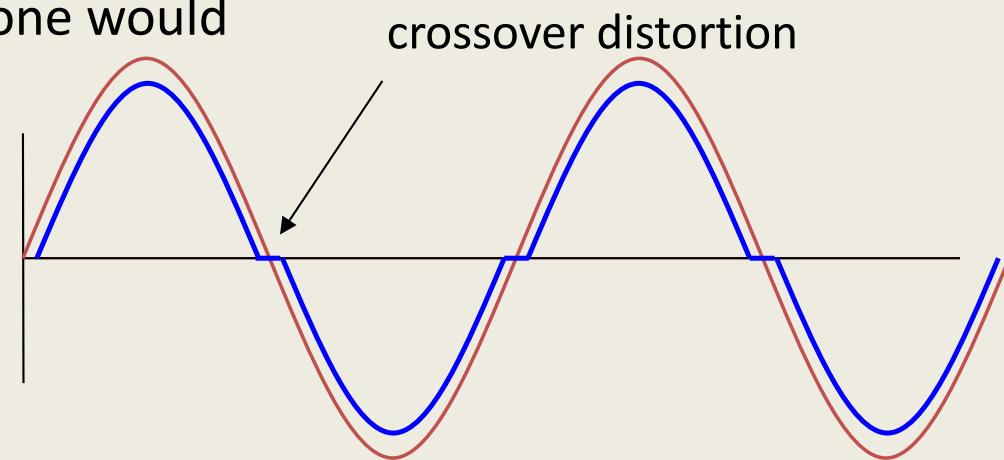
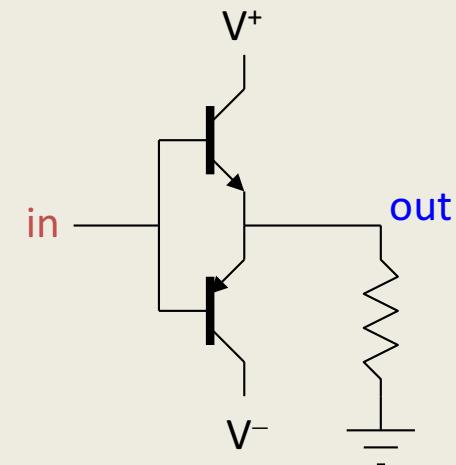
Push-Pull for Bipolar Signals

- Sometimes one-sided buffering is not adequate
 - need two transistors: npn for + side, pnp for –
 - idea is that input sees high-impedance
 - the current into the base is $< 1/100$ of I_{CE}
 - load current provided by power supply, not source
- Called a Push-Pull transistor arrangement
- Only problem is “crossover distortion”
 - npn does not turn on until input is $+0.6$ V
 - pnp does not turn on until input is < -0.6 V
 - creates dead-zone in between

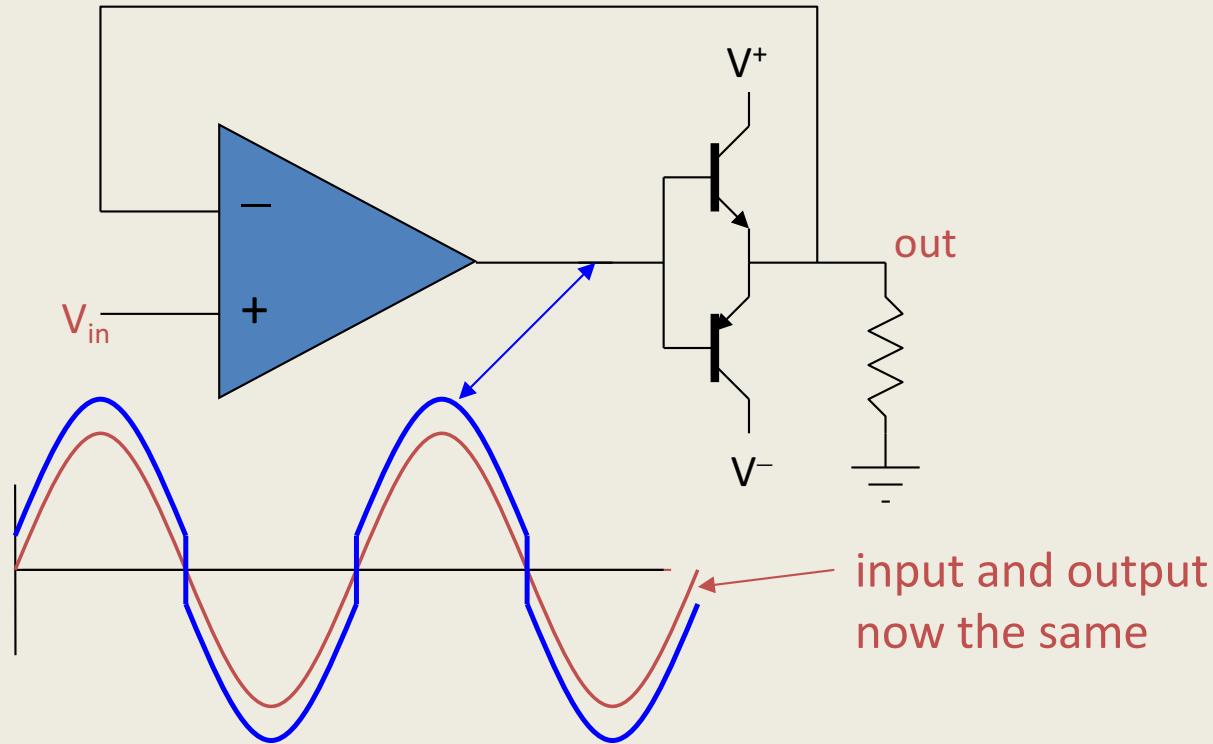


Hiding Distortion

- Consider the “push-pull” transistor arrangement to the right
 - an npn transistor (top) and a pnp (bottom)
 - wimpy input can drive big load (speaker?)
 - base-emitter voltage differs by 0.6V in each transistor (emitter has arrow)
 - input has to be higher than ~ 0.6 V for the npn to become active
 - input has to be lower than -0.6 V for the pnp to be active
- There is a no-man’s land in between where neither transistor conducts, so one would get “crossover distortion”
 - output is zero while input signal is between -0.6 and 0.6 V

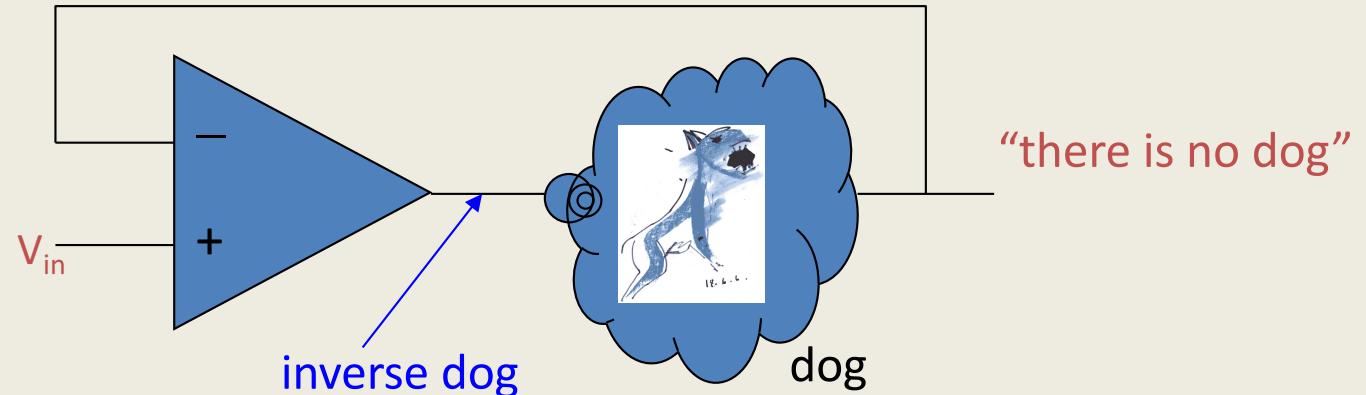


Stick it into an op-amp feedback loop!



- By sticking the push-pull into an op-amp's feedback loop, we guarantee that the output **faithfully** follows the input!
 - after all, the golden rule for op-amps demands that **+ input = – input**
- Op-amp jerks up to 0.6 and down to –0.6 at the crossover
 - **it's almost magic**: it figures out the vagaries/nonlinearities of the thing in the loop
- Now get advantages of push-pull drive capability, without the mess

Dogs in the Feedback

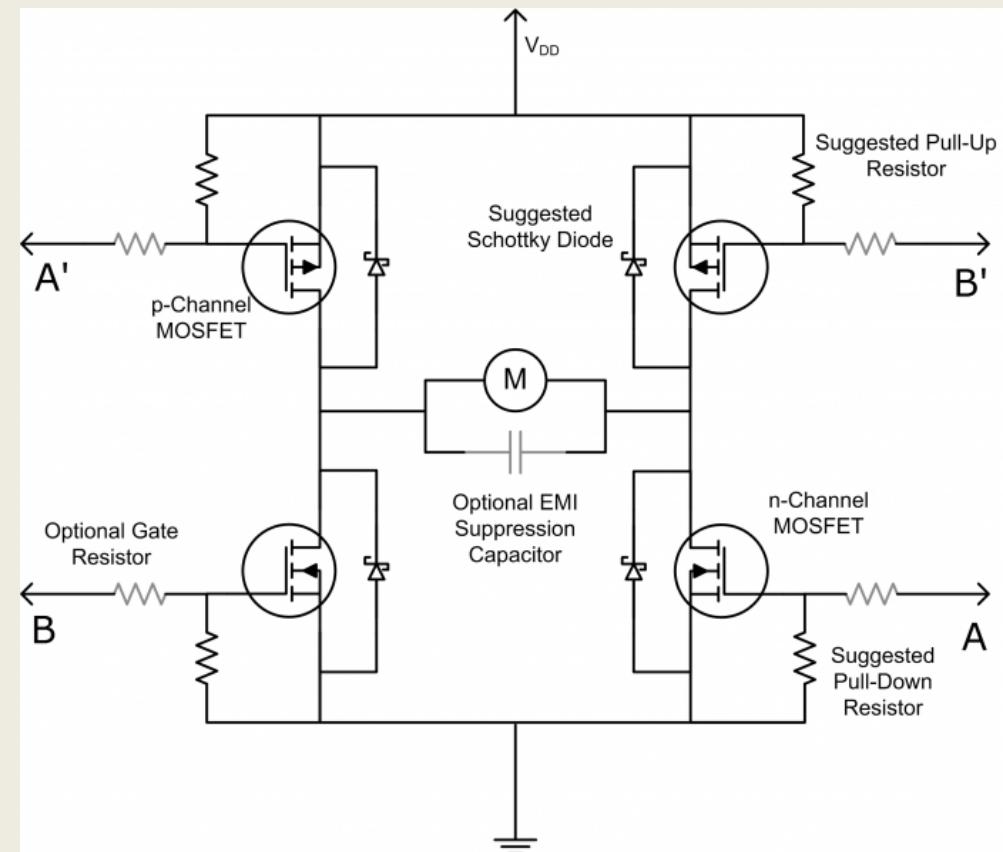


- The op-amp is obligated to contrive the **inverse dog** so that the ultimate output may be as tidy as the input.
- Lesson: you can hide nasty nonlinearities in the feedback loop and the op-amp will “**do the right thing**”

We owe thanks to Hayes & Horowitz, p. 173 of the student manual companion to the *Art of Electronics* for this priceless metaphor.

MOSFETs often a good choice

- MOSFETs are basically voltage-controlled switches
 - n-channel becomes “short” when logic high applied
 - p-channel becomes “short” when logic low applied
 - otherwise open
- Can arrange in H-bridge (or use pre-packaged H-bridge on a chip)
 - so $A=HI$; $A'=LOW$ applies VDD to left, ground to right
 - $B=HI$; $B'=LOW$ does the opp.
 - A and A' always opposite, etc.
 - A and B default to LOW state



Timing Issues

- Microcontrollers are fast, but speed limitations may well become an issue for some
- Arduino processor runs at clock speed of 16 MHz
 - $62.5 \text{ ns} = 0.0625 \mu\text{s}$
 - machine commands take 1, 2, 3, or 4 cycles to complete
 - see chapter 32 of datasheet (pp. 537–539) for table by command
 - but Arduino C commands may have dozens of associated machine commands
 - for example, `digitalWrite()` has 78 commands, though not all will be visited, as some are conditionally branched around (~36 if not PWM pin)
 - testing reveals **4 μs** per `digitalWrite()` operation (**5** if PWM pin)
 - implies about 64 (80) clock cycles to carry out

Timing Exploration, continued

- Program is basically repetitive commands, with `micros()` bracketing actions
 - `micros()` itself (in 16 repeated calls, nothing between) comes in at taking **4 μ s** to complete
 - `Serial.print()` takes **1040 μ s** per character at 9600 baud
 - 8 data bits, start bit, stop bit \rightarrow 10 bits, expect 1041.7 μ s
 - `println()` adds 2-character delay
 - `digitalRead()` takes **4 μ s** per read
 - `analogRead()` takes **122 μ s** per read
- Also keep in mind 20 ms period on servo 50 Hz PWM
- And when thinking about timing, consider **inertia**
 - might detect obstacle 5 cm ahead in < 1 ms, but can you **stop** in time?

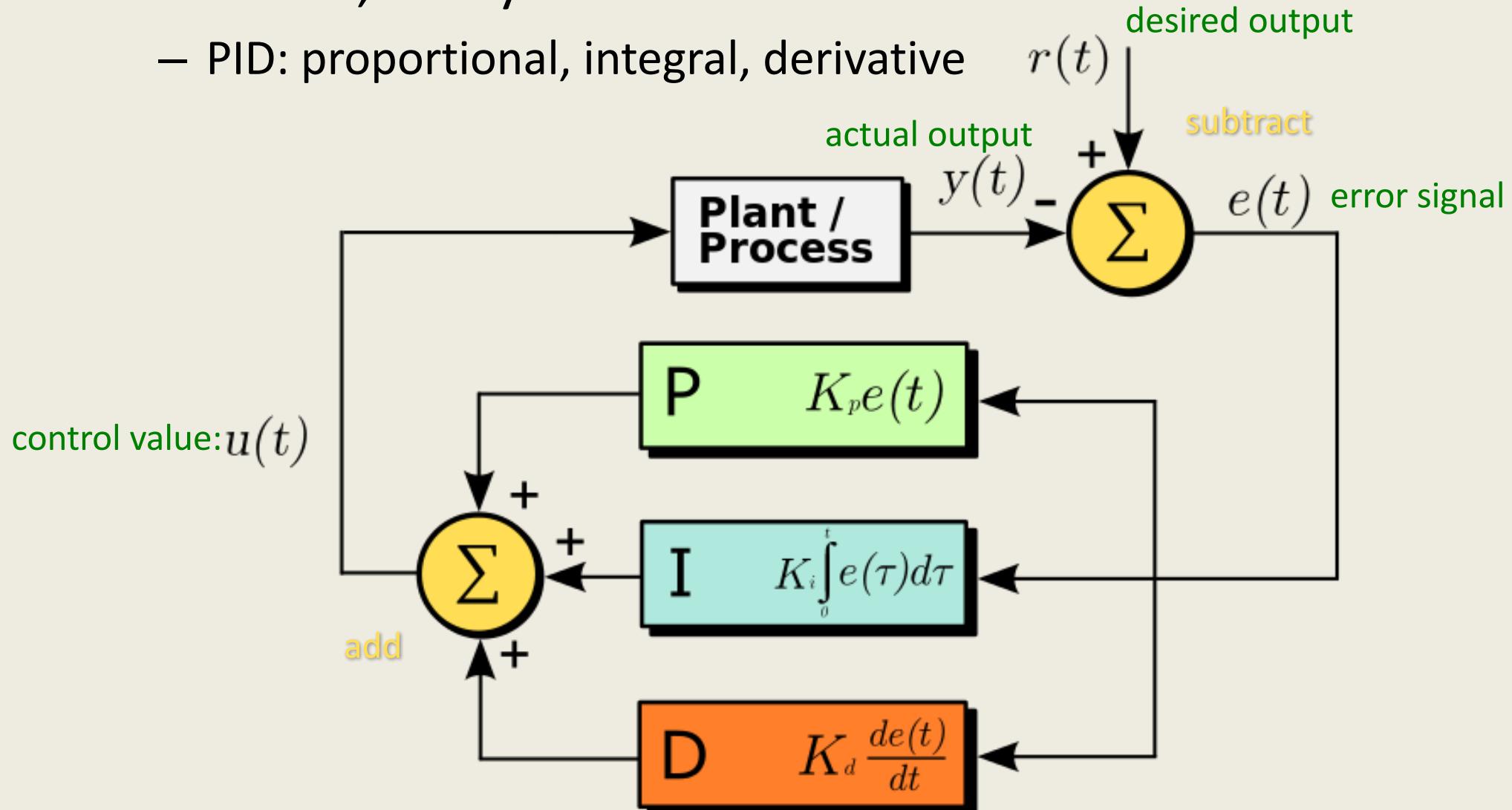
Another Way to Explore Timing

- Don't be shy to use the oscilloscope
 - a pair of `digitalWrite()` commands, HIGH, then LOW, will create a pulse that can be easily triggered, captured, and measured
 - for that matter, you can use digital output pins expressly for the purpose of establishing relative timings between events
 - helps if you have to choreograph, synchronize, or just troubleshoot in the time domain
 - think of the scope as another debugging tool, complementary to Serial, and capable of faster information

Control Problems

- When it comes to controlling something through feedback, always think **PID** first

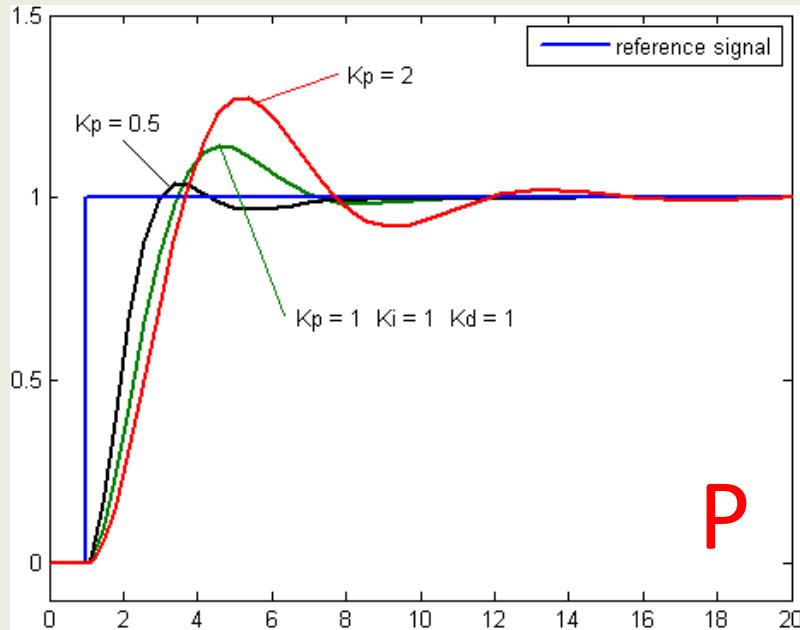
- PID: proportional, integral, derivative



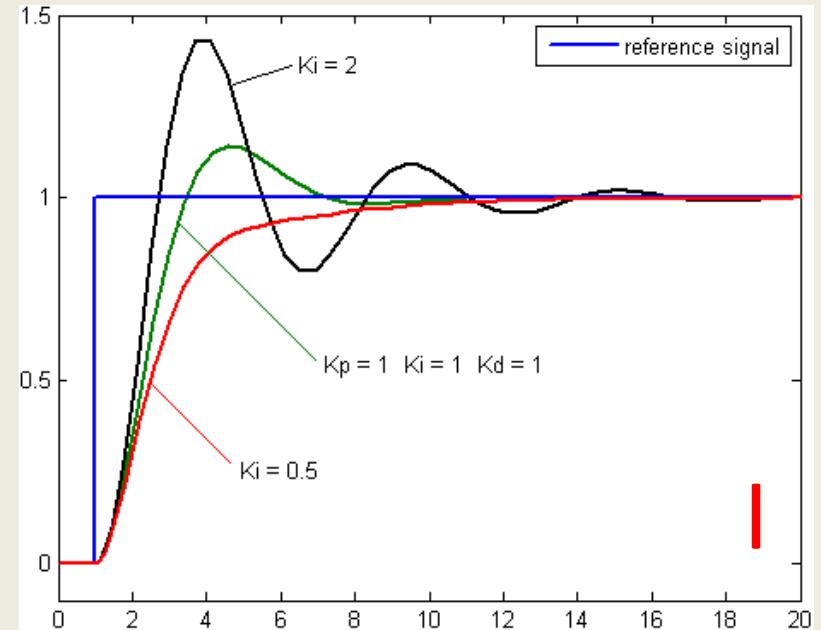
PID, in pieces

- Proportional (Ghost of Conditions Present)
 - *where are we now?*
 - simple concept: take larger action for larger error
 - in light-tracker, drive more degrees the larger the difference between phototransistors
 - higher gain could make unstable; lower gain sluggish
- Integral (Ghost of Conditions Past)
 - *where have we been?*
 - sort of an averaging effect: error \times time
 - responds to nagging offset, fixing longstanding errors
 - looking to past can lead to overshoot, however, if gain is too high
- Derivative (Ghost of Conditions Future)
 - *where are we heading?*
 - damps changes that are too fast; helps control overshoot
 - gain too high amplifies noise and can produce instability

PID, in pictures

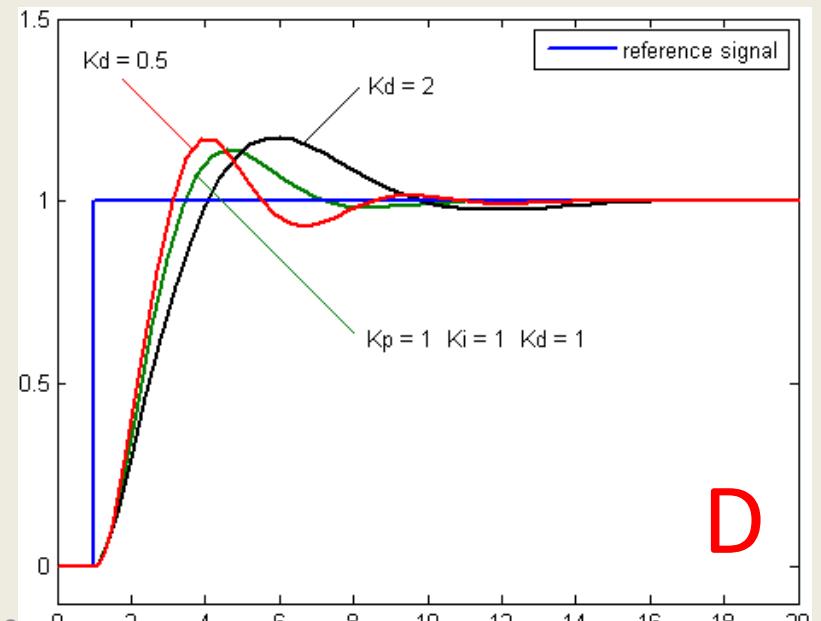


P



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- Impact of changing different gains, while others held fixed
 - blue is desired response
 - green is nominal case
 - $K_p = K_i = K_d = 1$ in this case
 - ideal values depend on system



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Tuning PID Control

- See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/PID_controller
- One attractive suggested procedure (Ziegler-Nichols):
 - first control the system only with proportional gain
 - note ultimate gain, K_u , at which oscillation sets in
 - note period of oscillation at this ultimate gain, P_u
 - If dealing with P only, set $K_p = 0.5K_u$
 - If PI control: set $K_p = 0.45 K_u$; $K_i = 1.2K_p/P_u$
 - If full PID: $K_p = 0.6K_u$; $K_i = 2K_p/P_u$; $K_d = K_p \times P_u / 8$
- Control Theory is a rich, complicated, PhD-earning subject
 - not likely to *master* it in this class, but might well scratch the surface and use some well-proven techniques

Discrete implementation

sampling time Δt

$$\int_0^{t_k} e(\tau) d\tau = \sum_{i=1}^k e(t_i) \Delta t$$

$$\frac{de(t_k)}{dt} = \frac{e(t_k) - e(t_{k-1})}{\Delta t}$$

$$u(t_k) = u(t_{k-1}) + K_p \left[\left(1 + \frac{\Delta t}{T_i} + \frac{T_d}{\Delta t} \right) e(t_k) + \left(-1 - \frac{2T_d}{\Delta t} \right) e(t_{k-1}) + \frac{T_d}{\Delta t} e(t_{k-2}) \right]$$

$$T_i = K_p / K_i, T_d = K_d / K_p$$

For the derivation for PI only and PID (above), see notes on the class website.

Announcements

- Project Proposals due Friday Nov. 3 by 11:59pm
- Week 4/5 lab:
 - could work on light-tracker (due in two weeks, 11/6, 11/7)
 - could work on proposals with “consultants” at hand
- After midterm, we’ll begin project mode