

Esami di Stato per l'abilitazione alla professione di Ingegnere
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Nuovo Ordinamento - Sez. A
Settore Informazione - Classe 29/S Ingegneria Meccatronica
Prova Pratica

1 Problema

Il candidato deve sviluppare un progetto di fattibilità per un sistema di auto-localizzazione e navigazione, da installarsi su un robot mobile, per la sorveglianza interna di una struttura industriale, priva di guide ottiche o altri landmark specifici. Il robot deve poter fare uso solo dei sensori seguenti: gli encoder presenti sulle ruote, un accelerometro bi-assiale e una bussola a stato solido.

A bordo sono tuttavia presenti sensori a ultrasuoni (o altro) che permettono al rover di evitare gli ostacoli.

La mappa della struttura è nota; il punto di partenza e l'assetto iniziale del rover sono noti.

2 Ipotesi per il progetto

Il candidato sviluppi il progetto considerando le seguenti ipotesi semplificative:

- Il robot mobile (per brevità chiamato *rover*) si muove liberamente all'interno di edifici (*indoor motion*) su una superficie sostanzialmente piana e priva di asperità, tale per cui è sufficiente un accelerometro bi-assiale.
- Il rover si muove entro il campo magnetico terrestre, che è misurabile e costante nel tempo.
- Il tempo è da considerarsi discreto, con un periodo di campionamento costante pari a $T = 10\text{ms}$.
- Il rover è modellizzabile come un "uniciclo", ossia un corpo quasi puntiforme dotato di tre gradi di libertà: $x(k), y(k), \theta(k)$; si veda lo schema di Figura 1.
- Il rover è dotato di due motori cc; il primo (motore 1) aziona l'unica ruota e fornisce la velocità di avanzamento $v(k)$, il secondo (motore 2) aziona lo sterzo e fornisce la velocità di rotazione $w(k)$ intorno all'asse verticale. Ciascun motore è fornito di un motoriduttore ideale. Le caratteristiche dei motoriduttori possono essere anche diverse tra loro e sono lasciate alla scelta del candidato.
- Ciascun motore è dotato di un encoder incrementale, posto a monte del motoriduttore;

- U rover possiede massa totale m (telaio + ruota + motori + motoriduttori, ecc), un momento d'inerzia intorno all'asse orizzontale J_1 e un momento d'inerzia intorno all'asse verticale J_2 , entrambi costanti nel tempo.
- D contatto tra ruota e terreno è ideale (puntiforme) e il moto avviene senza strisciamento tra ruota e terreno;
- Gli attriti interni sono modellizzabili con i coefficienti f_1 (motore 1 + motoriduttore 1) e f_2 (motore 2 + motoriduttore 2)
- Si assume una coppia di disturbo $A\theta(k)$ che in ogni istante k genera un disturbo di assetto $A\theta(k) \in [-2^\circ, 2^\circ]$, uniformemente distribuito

3 Punti da sviluppare

Il candidato deve sviluppare i seguenti punti:

1. Fornire i requisiti funzionali del sistema di auto-localizzazione e navigazione. Discutere se sono necessari altri sensori di posizione assoluta (come landmark ottici, a radiofrequenza ecc.) oppure i sensori di bordo sono sufficienti alla auto-localizzazione e navigazione.
2. Ricavare il modello cinematico del robot, ossia come si ottengono $x(k), y(k), \theta(k)$ a partire da $\dot{x}(k), \dot{y}(k), \dot{\theta}(k)$.
3. Ricavare le equazioni dinamiche del robot; considerare come comandi $v(k), \omega(k)$, come uscite $x(k), y(k), \theta(k)$, e come disturbo $A\theta(k)$.
4. Poiché si vogliono utilizzare gli encoder, l'accelerometro e la bussola per migliorare le prestazioni di autolocalizzazione del rover, il candidato deve presentare un progetto a livello di sistema (con l'ausilio di schemi a blocchi funzionali, diagrammi ecc.) dove risulti come si possono integrare reciprocamente le misure dei sensori per fornire le uscite $x(k), y(k), \theta(k)$.
5. Discutere la relazione tra le prestazioni dei sensori e la precisione ottenibile dalla autolocalizzazione (soprattutto a bassa velocità, quando gli encoder tendono a fornire misure affette da maggiore errore).

Il candidato deve decidere se montare l'encoder a valle o a monte del motoriduttore (misura l'angolo ruota oppure l'angolo motore?), e motivare la scelta anche in funzione della precisione a bassa velocità.

4 Materiale di supporto

In allegato vengono fornite:

- a) Estratto specifiche del Low-Cost ± 2 g Dual-Axis Accelerometer ADXL202E della Analog Device.
- b) Estratto Application Note AN-602 per l'uso dell'accelerometro come pedometro in applicazioni di navigazione personale.
- c) Estratto Application Note AN00022 relative a bussole a stato solido Philips KMZ51 e KMZ52.

Figure

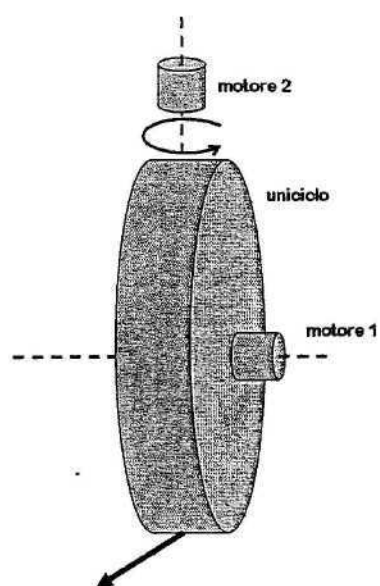


Figura 1: Schema dell'unicielo.

Using the ADXL202 in Pedometer and Personal Navigation Applications

by Harvey Weinberg

INTRODUCTION

iMEMS® accelerometers have sparked the interest of many designers looking for ways to build accurate pedometers. The personal navigation system is an extension of the pedometer with an electronic compass integrated to the pedometer to allow a user to determine their position relative to some starting point. This application note will discuss the issues that designers will face in these applications and describe some strategies for the implementation of personal navigation systems.

THE CLASSICAL IMPLEMENTATION

Accelerometers have been used as position sensors in inertial navigation systems for many years. Inertial navigation systems use a combination of accelerometers and gyroscopes to determine position by means of "dead reckoning," where the deviation of position from a known reference (or starting point) is determined by integration of acceleration in each axis over time. The math is fairly straightforward:

$$\text{Position} = \text{Starting Position} + \frac{A \times t^2}{2}$$

However for low speed movement, the accuracy of such a system over any reasonable length of time is poor because small errors accumulate and eventually amount to very large errors. This is most easily illustrated with an example of a person walking at 5 km/h (1.39 m/s) over a five minute period. The average acceleration for the 416 m traveled would be:

$$A_{\text{avg}} = \frac{2 \times \text{Displacement}}{t^2} = \frac{833}{300^2} = 0.00926 \text{ m/s}^2 = 0.944 \text{ mg}$$

Since the temperature coefficient of the ADXL202 is approximately 2 mg/°C, a temperature deviation of even 0.5°C over the five minutes would add 1 mg of error—more than the desired signal itself! In fact, a change in inclination of the accelerometer of just 0.06°C would be greater than 1 mg.

To minimize the error, we must know the orientation of the accelerometer and have some method of "resetting"

the integrator to known reference positions fairly often. Many systems use GPS receivers or position switches to provide this periodic reference position information. If this absolute positional information was available fairly often (say every 10 seconds), we could greatly reduce the error.

In 10 seconds, the average acceleration would be 28.4 mg. Assuming we could hold all the errors to 1 mg over 10 seconds and fix the orientation of the accelerometer, we would have a positional error of approximately 0.5 m—much better than a GPS system alone could do. So, using dead reckoning as an adjunct to an existing positioning system may be very useful, but it is not very accurate when used alone.

As an example of where dead reckoning works well, consider an elevator. Magnetic position switches are placed on its track every meter. However, we wish to control the positioning of the elevator to 10 mm. The classic solution is to use an optical encoder on a wheel coupled to the track as a "fine position" sensor. Since mechanical sensors are prone to wear, we wish to replace the encoder wheel with an accelerometer to improve long term reliability.

Assuming we can hold the errors stable to 1 mg over a few seconds and the elevator travels at 1 m/s, we can find the positional error as:

$$E_{\text{pos}} = \frac{A \times t^2}{2} = \frac{1 \text{ mg} \times 9.8 \text{ m/s} \times 1}{2} = 4.9 \text{ mm}$$

well within our target.

PEDOMETERS

When trying to determine how far a person has walked, there is other information available to us. When people walk, there is Z-axis (vertical) movement of the body with each step. A simple but inaccurate way to measure distance walked is to use this Z-axis movement to determine how many steps have been taken and then multiply the number of steps taken by the average stride length.

A common algorithm for step counting uses some manner of peak detection. Generally, sampling is performed

at 10 Hz to 20 Hz and then averaged down to 2 Hz to 3 Hz to remove noise. The step detection routine then looks for a change in slope of the Z-axis acceleration. These changes in slope indicate a step.

Only looking for the change in slope at appropriate times can improve step counting accuracy. Stride frequency tends to change no more than $\pm 15\%$ per step during steady state walking. Looking for the peak only during a time window as predicted by the last few steps $\pm 15\%$ will result in more accurate step counting.

IMPROVING THE ACCURACY

Unfortunately, using a fixed value for stride length will always result in a low accuracy System. Stride length (at a given walking speed) can vary as much as $\pm 40\%$ from person to person and depends largely on leg length. Some pedometers ask the user to program their stride length to eliminate most of this error. However, each individual's stride length will vary by up to $\pm 50\%$ depending on how fast one is walking (at low speeds, people tend to take short steps while at high speeds, their stride is much longer). Knowledge of leg length cannot eliminate this error. But by looking closely at the application, we can find ways to improve the situation.

While walking, the knee is bent only when the foot is off the ground. Therefore we can look at the leg as being a lever of fixed length while the foot is on the ground. Figure 1 illustrates how the hip and, by extension, the upper body move vertically when walking. By geometry of similar angles we know that:

$$\alpha = \theta$$

So we can show that:

$$Stride \approx \frac{2 \times Bounce}{\alpha}$$

Where *Bounce* is the vertical displacement (Z axis) of the hip (or upper body).

Bounce (Z-axis displacement) can be calculated as the second integral of the Z-axis acceleration. α is a small angle and is difficult to measure since there is a lot of shock present in all axes while walking. We have demonstrated empirically that we can simply use a Constant for a without a large accuracy penalty. In fact, we can approximate distance traveled by:

$$Distance \approx \sqrt{A_{max} - A_{min}} \times n \times K$$

where:

- A_{min} is the minimum acceleration measured in the Z axis in a single stride.
- A_{max} is the maximum acceleration measured in the Z axis in a single stride.

- n is the number of steps walked.
- K is a Constant for unit conversion (i.e., feet or meters traveled).

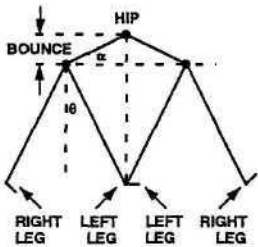


Figure 1. Vertical Movement of Hip while Walking

This technique has been shown to measure distance walked to within $\pm 8\%$ across a variety of subjects of different leg lengths. Close coupling of the accelerometer to the body is important to maintain accuracy. An adaptive algorithm that "learns" the user's stride characteristics could improve the accuracy significantly.

A BASIC program listing for the Parallax BASIC Stamp® (BS2) processor that performs step counting and distance calculation and displays distance and steps walked on a standard 16 X 2 LCD display is included in the Appendix of this application note.

ADDING DIRECTION SENSING

To fully implement a personal navigation System, some method of direction sensing is required. An electronic compass normally handles this task. Honeywell and Phillips (among others) manufacture low cost electronic compass sensor components and modules that are suitable for personal navigation applications. A microcontroller is used to keep track of where you are (relative to the starting position) by vector addition using the distance information derived from the accelerometer along with directional information from the electronic compass.

The accelerometer and microcontroller may also be used to improve the accuracy of the electronic compass by implementing a compass tilt correction algorithm (consult electronic compass manufacturer's application notes regarding tilt correction techniques).

CONCLUSION

While dead reckoning can be used to improve the positional resolution of a System where the dead reckoning time is short, it is not very useful for long-term position measurement. Careful examination of the application can often reveal surprisingly simple solutions. In this case, a single simple mathematical equation along with a simple step counting routine outperforms traditional dead reckoning techniques.



Low-Cost ± 2 g Dual-Axis Accelerometer with Duty Cycle Output

ADXL202E*

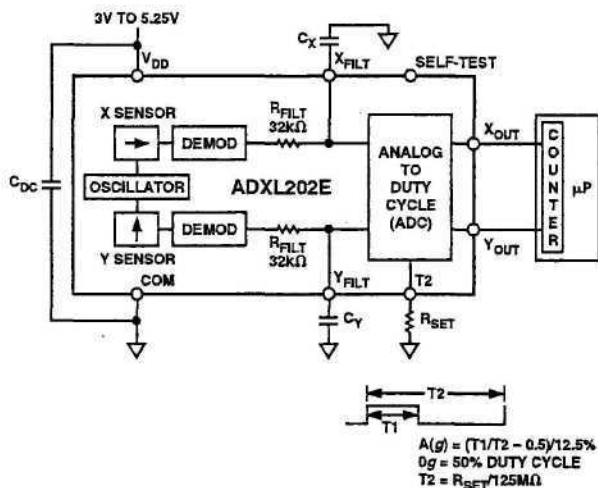
FEATURES

- 2-Axis Acceleration Sensor on a Single IC Chip
- 5 mm x 5 mm x 2 mm Ultrasmall Chip Scale Package
- 2 mg Resolution at 60 Hz
- Low-Power < 0.6 mA
- Direct Interface to Low-Cost Microcontrollers via Duty Cycle Output
- BW Adjustment with a Single Capacitor
- 3 V to 5.25 V Single Supply Operation
- 1000 g Shock Survival

APPLICATIONS

- 2-Axis Tilt Sensing with Faster Response than Electrolytic, Mercury, or Thermal Sensors
- Computer Peripherals
- Information Appliances
- Alarms and Motion Detectors
- Disk Drives
- Vehicle Security

FUNCTIONAL BLOCK DIAGRAM



GENERAL DESCRIPTION

The ADXL202E is a low-cost, low-power, complete 2-axis accelerometer with a digital output, all on a single monolithic IC. It is an improved version of the ADXL202AQC/JQC. The ADXL202E will measure accelerations with a full-scale range of ± 2 g. The ADXL202E can measure both dynamic acceleration (e.g., vibration) and static acceleration (e.g., gravity).

The outputs are analog voltage or digital signals whose duty cycles (ratio of pulsewidth to period) are proportional to acceleration. The duty cycle outputs can be directly measured by a microprocessor counter, without an A/D converter or glue logic. The duty cycle period is adjustable from 0.5 ms to 10 ms via a single resistor (R_{SET}).

The typical noise floor is 200 ($\mu\text{L}/\text{N}/\text{Hz}$), allowing signals below 2 mg (at 60 Hz bandwidth) to be resolved.

The bandwidth of the accelerometer is set with capacitors C_X and C_Y at the X_{FILT} and Y_{FILT} pins. An analog output can be reconstructed by filtering the duty cycle output.

The ADXL202E is available in 5 mm X 5 mm X 2 mm 8-lead hermetic LCC package.

*Patents Pending

REV. A

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ADXL202E—SPECIFICATIONS

($T_A = T_{MIN}$ to T_{MAX} , $T_A = 25^\circ\text{C}$ for J Grade only, $V_{DD} = 5\text{ V}$, $R_{SET} = 125\text{ k}\Omega$, Acceleration = 0 g , unless otherwise noted.)

Parameter	Conditions	TPC ¹ Graph	ADXL202JE			ADXL202AE			Unit
			Min	Typ	Max	Min	Typ	Max	
SENSOR INPUT	Each Axis								
Measurement Range ²			± 2			± 2			g
Nonlinearity	Best Fit Straight Line			0.2			0.2		% of FS
Alignment Error ³		X		± 1			± 1		Degrees
Alignment Error	X Sensor to Y Sensor			0.01			0.01		Degrees
Cross-Axis Sensitivity ⁴		X		± 2			± 2		%
SENSITIVITY	Each Axis								
Duty Cycle per g	T1/T2, $V_{DD} = 5\text{ V}$	X	10.5	12.5	14.5	10	12.5	15	%/g
Duty Cycle per g	T1/T2, $V_{DD} = 3\text{ V}$	X	9.0	11	13.0	8.5	11	13.5	%/g
Sensitivity X_{FILT} , Y_{FILT}	$V_{DD} = 5\text{ V}$	X	265	312	360	250	312	375	mV/g
Sensitivity X_{FILT} , Y_{FILT}	$V_{DD} = 3\text{ V}$	X	140	167	195	140	167	200	mV/g
Temperature Drift ⁵	Delta from 25°C	X		± 0.5			± 0.5		%
ZERO g BIAS LEVEL	Each Axis								
0 g Duty Cycle	T1/T2, $V_{DD} = 5\text{ V}$	X	34	50	66	30	50	70	%
0 g Duty Cycle	T1/T2, $V_{DD} = 3\text{ V}$	X	31	50	69	31	50	69	%
0 g Voltage X_{FILT} , Y_{FILT}	$V_{DD} = 5\text{ V}$	X	2.1	2.5	2.9	2.0	2.5	3.0	V
0 g Voltage X_{FILT} , Y_{FILT}	$V_{DD} = 3\text{ V}$	X	1.2	1.5	1.8	1.2	1.5	1.8	V
0 g Duty Cycle vs. Supply		X		1.0	4.0		1.0	4.0	%/V
0 g Offset vs. Temperature ⁵	Delta from 25°C	X		2.0			2.0		$\text{mg}/^\circ\text{C}$
NOISE PERFORMANCE									
Noise Density	@ 25°C	X		200			200	1000	$\mu\text{g}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ rms
FREQUENCY RESPONSE									
3 dB Bandwidth	At Pins X_{FILT} , Y_{FILT}			6			6		kHz
Sensor Resonant Frequency				10			10		kHz
FILTER									
R_{FILT} Tolerance	32 k Ω Nominal			± 15			± 15		%
Minimum Capacitance	At Pins X_{FILT} , Y_{FILT}		1000			1000			pF
SELF-TEST									
Duty Cycle Change	Self-Test "0" to "1"			10			10		%
DUTY CYCLE OUTPUT STAGE									
F_{SET}	$R_{SET} = 125\text{ k}\Omega$		0.7		1.3	0.7		1.3	kHz
Output High Voltage	$I = 25\text{ }\mu\text{A}$		$V_S - 200\text{ mV}$			$V_S - 200\text{ mV}$			V
Output Low Voltage	$I = 25\text{ }\mu\text{A}$				200			200	mV
T2 Drift vs. Temperature				50			50		$\text{ppm}/^\circ\text{C}$
Rise/Fall Time				200			200		ns
POWER SUPPLY									
Operating Voltage Range			3		5.25	3.0		5.25	V
Quiescent Supply Current				0.6	1.0		0.6	1.0	mA
Turn-On Time	C_{FILT} in μF		$160 \times C_{FILT} + 0.3$			$160 \times C_{FILT} + 0.3$			ms
TEMPERATURE RANGE									
Specified Performance AE						-40		+85	$^\circ\text{C}$
Operating Range			0		70	-40		+85	$^\circ\text{C}$

NOTES

¹Typical Performance Characteristics.

²Guaranteed by measurement of initial offset and sensitivity.

³Alignment error is specified as the angle between the true and indicated axis of sensitivity (see TPC 15).

⁴Cross-axis sensitivity is the algebraic sum of the alignment and the inherent sensitivity errors.

⁵Defined as the output change from ambient to maximum temperature or ambient to minimum temperature.

Specifications subject to change without notice.

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS*

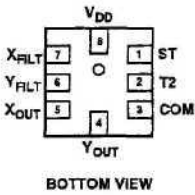
Acceleration (Any Axis, Unpowered for 0.5 ms). 1000 g
Acceleration (Any Axis, Powered for 0.5 ms). 500 g
+V_S. -0.3 V to +6.0 V
Output Short Circuit Duration, (Any Pin to Common)
. Indefinite
Operating Temperature. -55°C to +125°C
Storage Temperature. -65°C to +150°C

*Stresses above those listed under Absolute Maximum Ratings may cause permanent damage to the device. This is a stress rating only; functional operation of the device at these or any other conditions above those indicate in the operational sections of this specification is not implied. Exposure to absolute maximum rating conditions for extended periods may affect device reliability.

Drops onto hard surfaces can cause shocks of greater than 1000 g and exceed the absolute maximum rating of the device. Care should be exercised in handling to avoid damage.

Package Characteristics			
Package Weight	ΘJA	Ojc	Device
8-Lead LCC	120°C/W	tbd°C/W	<1.0 grams

PIN CONFIGURATION



PIN FUNCTION DESCRIPTIONS

Pin No.	Mnemonic	Description
1	ST	Self-Test
2	T2	Connect R _{SET} to Set T2 Period
3	COM	Common
4	YOUT	Y-Channel Duty Cycle Output
5	XoUT	X-Channel Duty Cycle Output
6	YFILT	Y-Channel Filter Pin
7	XFILT	X-Channel Filter Pin
8	VDD	3 V to 5.25 V

ORDERING GUIDE

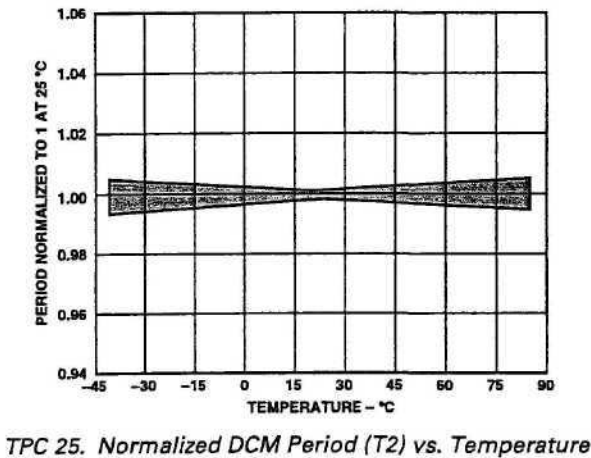
Model	No. of Axes	Specified Voltage	Temperature Range	Package Description	Package Option
ADXL202JE	2	3 V to 5 V	0 to 70°C	8-Lead LCC	E-8
ADXL202AE	2	3 V to 5 V	-40°C to +85°C	8-Lead LCC	E-8

CAUTION.

ESD (electrostatic discharge) sensitive device. Electrostatic charges as high as 4000 V readily accumulate on the human body and test equipment and can discharge without detection. Although the ADXL202E features proprietary ESD protection circuitry, permanent damage may occur on devices subjected to high-energy electrostatic discharges. Therefore, proper ESD precautions are recommended to avoid performance degradation or loss of functionality.



ADXL202E



DEFINITIONS

- TI Length of the "on" portion of the cycle.
- T2 Length of the total cycle.
- Duty Cycle Ratio of the "on" time (TI) of the cycle to the total cycle (T2). Defined as TI/T2 for the ADXL202E/ADXL210.
- Pulsewidth Time period of the "on" pulse. Defined as TI for the ADXL202E/ADXL210.

THEORY OF OPERATION

The ADXL202E is a complete, dual-axis acceleration measurement system on a single monolithic IC. It contains a polysilicon surface-micromachined sensor and signal conditioning circuitry to implement an open loop acceleration measurement architecture. For each axis an output circuit converts the analog signal to a duty cycle modulated (DCM) digital signal that can be decoded with a counter/timer port on a microprocessor. The ADXL202E is capable of measuring both positive and negative accelerations to at least ±2 g. The accelerometer can measure static acceleration forces such as gravity, allowing it to be used as a tilt sensor.

The sensor is a surface micromachined polysilicon structure built on top of the silicon wafer. Polysilicon springs suspend the structure over the surface of the wafer and provide a resistance against acceleration forces. Deflection of the structure is measured using a differential capacitor that consists of independent fixed plates and central plates attached to the moving mass. The fixed plates are driven by 180° out of phase square waves. An acceleration will deflect the beam and unbalance the differential capacitor, resulting in an output square wave whose amplitude is proportional to acceleration. Phase sensitive demodulation techniques are then used to rectify the signal and determine the direction of the acceleration.

The output of the demodulator drives a duty cycle modulator (DCM) stage through a 32 kΩ resistor. At this point a pin is available on each channel to allow the user to set the signal bandwidth of the device by adding a capacitor. This filtering improves measurement resolution and helps prevent aliasing.

After being low-pass filtered, the analog signal is converted to a duty cycle modulated signal by the DCM stage. A single resistor sets the period for a complete cycle (T2), which can be set between 0.5 ms and 10 ms (see Figure 12). A 0 g acceleration produces a

nominally 50% duty cycle. The acceleration signal can be determined by measuring the length of the TI and T2 pulses with a counter/timer or with a polling loop using a low cost microcontroller.

An analog output voltage can be obtained either by buffering the signal from the XFILT and YFILT pins or by passing the duty cycle signal through an RC filter to reconstruct the dc value.

The ADXL202E will operate with supply voltages as low as 3.0 V or as high as 5.25 V.

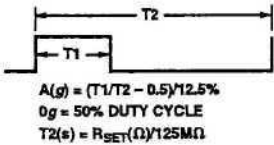


Figure 1. Typical Output Duty Cycle

APPLICATIONS
POWER SUPPLY DECOUPLING

For most applications a single 0.1 μF capacitor, CDC, will adequately decouple the accelerometer from signal and noise on the power supply. However, in some cases, especially where digital devices such as microcontrollers share the same power supply, digital noise on the supply may cause interference on the ADXL202E output. This may be observed as a slowly undulating fluctuation of voltage at XFILT and YFILT. If additional decoupling is needed, a 100 Ω (or smaller) resistor or ferrite beads, may be inserted in the supply line of the ADXL202E.

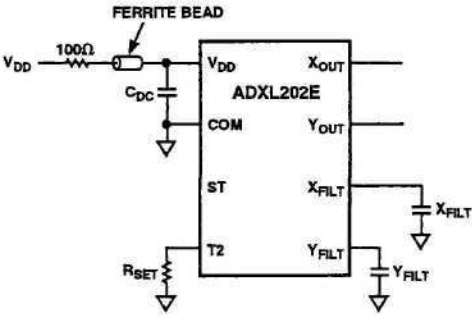


Figure 2.

DESIGN PROCEDURE FOR THE ADXL202E

The design procedure for using the ADXL202E with a duty cycle output involves selecting a duty cycle period and a filter capacitor. A proper design will take into account the application requirements for bandwidth, signal resolution and acquisition time, as discussed in the following sections.

Decoupling Capacitor C_{DC}

A 0.1 μF capacitor is recommended from V_{DD} to COM for power supply decoupling.

ST

The ST pin controls the self-test feature. When this pin is set to V_{DD}, an electrostatic force is exerted on the beam of the accelerometer. The resulting movement of the beam allows the user to test if the accelerometer is functional. The typical change in output will be 10% at the duty cycle outputs (corresponding to 800 m^g). This pin may be left open circuit or connected to common in normal use.

Duty Cycle Decoding

The ADXL202E's digital output is a duty cycle modulator. Acceleration is proportional to the ratio T1/T2. The nominal output of the ADXL202E is:

$0\text{ g} \approx 50\% \text{ Duty Cycle}$

Scale factor is 12.5% Duty Cycle Change per g

These nominal values are affected by the initial tolerance of the device including zero g offset error and sensitivity error.

T2 does not have to be measured for every measurement cycle. It need only be updated to account for changes due to temperature, (a relatively slow process). Since the T2 time period is shared by both X and Y channels, it is necessary only to measure it on one channel of the ADXL202E. Decoding algorithms for various microcontrollers have been developed. Consult the appropriate Application Note.

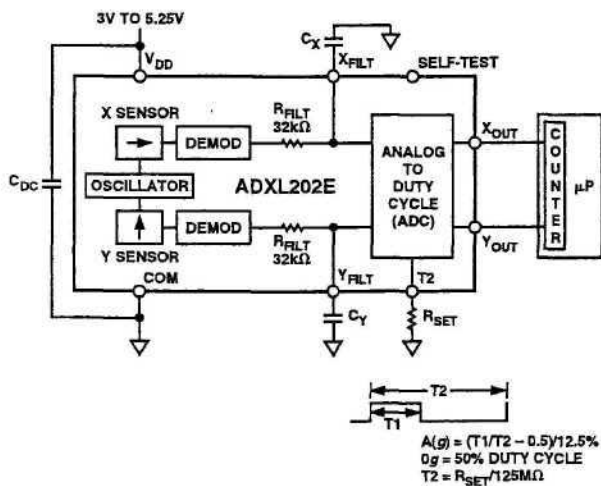


Figure 3. Block Diagram

Setting the Bandwidth Using C_x and C_y

The ADXL202E has provisions for bandlimiting the X_{FILT} and Y_{FILT} pins. Capacitors must be added at these pins to implement low-pass filtering for antialiasing and noise reduction. The equation for the 3 dB bandwidth is:

$$F_{-3\text{dB}} = \frac{1}{(2\pi(32\text{ k}\Omega) \times C(x,y))}$$

or, more simply,
$$F_{-3\text{dB}} = \frac{5\mu\text{F}}{C_{(x,y)}}$$

The tolerance of the internal resistor (R_{FILT}) is typically as much as ±15% of its nominal value of 32 kΩ; so the bandwidth will vary accordingly. A minimum capacitance of 1000 pF for C(x, Y) is required in all cases.

Table I. Filter Capacitor Selection, C_x and C_y

Bandwidth	Capacitor Value
10 Hz	0.47 μF
50 Hz	0.10 μF
100 Hz	0.05 μF
200 Hz	0.027 μF
500 Hz	0.01 μF
5 kHz	0.001 μF

Setting the DCM Period with R_{SET}

The period of the DCM output is set for both channels by a single resistor from RSET to ground. The equation for the period is:

$$T2 = \frac{R_{SET} (\Omega)}{125\text{ M}\Omega}$$

A 125 kΩ resistor will set the duty cycle repetition rate to approximately 1 kHz, or 1 ms. The device is designed to operate at duty cycle periods between 0.5 ms and 10 ms.

Table II. Resistor Values to Set T2

T2	R _{SET}
1 ms	125 kΩ
2 ms	250 kΩ
5 ms	625 kΩ
10 ms	1.25 MΩ

Note that the RSET should always be included, even if only an analog output is desired. Use an RSET value between 500 kΩ and 2 MΩ when taking the output from XFLT or YFLT. The RSET resistor should be placed close to the T2 Pin to minimize parasitic capacitance at this node.

Selecting the Right Accelerometer

For most tilt sensing applications the ADXL202E is the most appropriate accelerometer. Its higher sensitivity (12.5%/g) allows the user to use a lower speed counter for PWM decoding while maintaining high resolution. The ADXL210 should be used in applications where accelerations of greater than ±2 g are expected.

ADXL202E

MICROCOMPUTERINTERFACES

The ADXL202E is specifically designed to work with low-cost microcontrollers. Specific code sets, reference designs, and application notes are available from the factory. This section will outline a general design procedure and discuss the various trade-offs that need to be considered.

The designer should have some idea of the required performance of the system in terms of:

- Resolution:** the smallest signal change that needs to be detected.
- Bandwidth:** the highest frequency that needs to be detected.
- Acquisition Time,** the time that will be available to acquire the signal on each axis.

These requirements will help to determine the accelerometer bandwidth, the speed of the microcontroller clock and the length of the T2 period.

When selecting a microcontroller it is helpful to have a counter timer port available. The microcontroller should have provisions for software calibration. While the ADXL202E is a highly accurate accelerometer, it has a wide tolerance for initial offset. The easiest way to null this offset is with a calibration factor saved on the microcontroller or by a user calibration for zero g. In the case where the offset is calibrated during manufacture, there are several options, including external EEPROM and microcontrollers with "one-time programmable" features.

DESIGN TRADE-OFFS FOR SELECTING FILTER CHARACTERISTICS: THE NOISE/BW TRADE-OFF

The accelerometer bandwidth selected will determine the measurement resolution (smallest detectable acceleration). Filtering can be used to lower the noise floor and improve the resolution of the accelerometer. Resolution is dependent on both the analog filter bandwidth at XFILT and on the speed of the microcontroller counter.

The analog output of the ADXL202E has a typical bandwidth of 5 kHz, while the duty cycle modulators' bandwidth is 500 Hz. The user must filter the signal at this point to limit aliasing errors. To minimize DCM errors the analog bandwidth should be less than 1/10 the DCM frequency. Analog bandwidth may be increased to up to 1/2 the DCM frequency in many applications. This will result in greater dynamic error generated at the DCM.

The analog bandwidth may be further decreased to reduce noise and improve resolution. The ADXL202E noise has the characteristics of white Gaussian noise that contributes equally at all frequencies and is described in terms of $\mu g/\sqrt{Hz}$; i.e., the noise is proportional to the square root of the bandwidth of the accelerometer. It is recommended that the user limit bandwidth to the lowest frequency needed by the application, to maximize the resolution and dynamic range of the accelerometer.

With the single pole roll-off characteristic, the typical noise of the ADXL202E is determined by the following equation:

$$Noise (rms) = (200 \mu g/\sqrt{Hz}) \times (\sqrt{BW \times 1.6})$$

At 100 Hz the noise will be:

$$Noise (rms) = (200 \mu g/\sqrt{Hz}) \times (\sqrt{100 \times (1.6)}) = 2.53 mg$$

Often the peak value of the noise is desired. Peak-to-peak noise can only be estimated by statistical methods. Table IH is useful for estimating the probabilities of exceeding various peak values, given the rms value.

Table DI. Estimation of Peak-to-Peak Noise

Nominal Peak-to-Peak Value	% of Time that Noise Will Exceed Nominal Peak-to-Peak Value
2.0 x rms	32%
4.0 x rms	4.6%
6.0 x rms	0.27%
8.0 x rms	0.006%

The peak-to-peak noise value will give the best estimate of the uncertainty in a single measurement.

Table IV gives typical noise output of the ADXL202E for various Cx and Cy values.

Table IV. Filter Capacitor Selection, Cx and Cy

Bandwidth	Cx/Cy	rms Noise	Peak-to-Peak Noise Estimate 95% Probability (rms x 4)
10Hz	0.47 μF	0.8 m μ	3.2 mg
50 Hz	0.10 μF	1.8 mg	7.2 mg
100 Hz	0.05 pF	2.5 mg	10.1 mg
200 Hz	0.027 μF	3.6 mg	14.3 m μ
500 Hz	0.01 μF	5.1 mg	22.6 mg

CHOOSING T2 AND COUNTER FREQUENCY: DESIGN TRADE-OFFS

The noise level is one determinant of accelerometer resolution. The second relates to the measurement resolution of the counter when decoding the duty cycle output.

The ADXL202E's duty cycle converter has a resolution of approximately 14 bits; better resolution than the accelerometer itself. The actual resolution of the acceleration signal is, however, limited by the time resolution of the counting devices used to decode the duty cycle. The faster the counter clock, the higher the resolution of the duty cycle and the shorter the T2 period can be for a given resolution. The following table shows some of the trade-offs. It is important to note that this is the resolution due to the microprocessors' counter. It is probable that the accelerometer's noise floor may set the lower limit on the resolution, as discussed in the previous section.

Table V. Trade-Offs Between Microcontroller Counter Rate, T2 Period, and Resolution of Duty Cycle Modulator

T2(ms)	RSET (MI)	ADXL202E Sample Rate	Counter-Clock Rate (MHz)	Counts per T2 Cycle	Counts per ^	Resolution (mg)
1.0	124	1000	2.0	2000	250	4.0
1.0	124	1000	1.0	1000	125	8.0
LO	124	1000	0.5	500	62.5	16.0
5.0	625	200	2.0	10000	1250	0.8
5.0	625	200	1.0	5000	625	1.6
5.0	625	200	0.5	2500	312.5	3.2
10.0	1250	100	2.0	20000	2500	0.4
10.0	1250	100	1.0	10000	1250	0.8
10.0	1250	100	0.5	5000	625	1.6

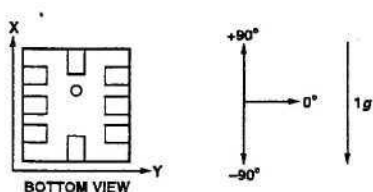
STRATEGIES FOR USING THE DUTY CYCLE OUTPUT WITH MICROCONTROLLERS

Application notes outlining various strategies for using the duty cycle output with low cost microcontrollers are available from the factory.

USING THE ADXL202E AS A DUAL-AXIS TILT SENSOR

One of the most popular applications of the ADXL202E is tilt measurement. An accelerometer uses the force of gravity as an input vector to determine orientation of an object in space.

An accelerometer is most sensitive to tilt when its sensitive axis is perpendicular to the force of gravity, i.e., parallel to the earth's surface. At this orientation its sensitivity to changes in tilt is highest. When the accelerometer is oriented on axis to gravity, i.e., near its +1 g or -1 g reading, the change in output acceleration per degree of tilt is negligible. When the accelerometer is perpendicular to gravity, its output will change nearly 17.5 mV per degree of tilt, but at 45° degrees it is changing only at 12.2 mV per degree and resolution declines. The following table illustrates the changes in the X and Y axes as the device is tilted ±90° through gravity.



Axis Orientation to Horizon (°)	X Output		Y Output (g)	
	X Output (g)	A per Degree of Tilt (mg)	Y Output (g)	A per Degree of Tilt (mg)
-90	-1.000	-0.2	0.000	17.5
-75	-0.966	4.4	0.259	16.9
-60	-0.866	8.6	0.500	15.2
-45	-0.707	12.2	0.707	12.4
-30	-0.500	15.1	0.866	8.9
-15	-0.259	16.8	0.966	4.7
0	0.000	17.5	1.000	0.2
15	0.259	16.9	0.966	-4.4
30	0.500	15.5	0.866	-8.6
45	0.707	12.4	0.707	-12.2
60	0.866	8.9	0.500	-15.0
75	0.966	4.7	0.259	-16.8
90	1.000	0.2	0.000	-17.5

Figure 4. How the X and Y Axes Respond to Changes in Tilt

A DUAL AXIS TILT SENSOR: CONVERTING ACCELERATION TO TILT

When the accelerometer is oriented so both its X and Y axes are parallel to the earth's surface it can be used as a two axis tilt sensor with a roll and a pitch axis. Once the output signal from the accelerometer has been converted to an acceleration that varies between -1 g and +1 g, the output tilt in degrees is calculated as follows:

$$\text{Pitch} = \text{ASIN} (4x11 \text{ g})$$

$$\text{Roll} = \text{ASIN} (4y11 \text{ g})$$

Be sure to account for overranges. It is possible for the accelerometers to output a signal greater than ±1 g due to vibration, shock or other accelerations.

MEASURING 360° OF TILT

It is possible to measure a full 360° of orientation through gravity by using two accelerometers oriented perpendicular to one another (see Figure 5). When one sensor is reading a maximum change in output per degree, the other is at its minimum.

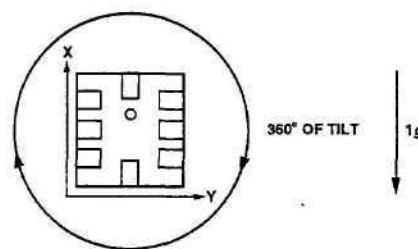


Figure 5. Using a Two-Axis Accelerometer to Measure 360° of Tilt

USING THE ANALOG OUTPUT

The ADXL202E was specifically designed for use with its digital outputs, but has provisions to provide analog outputs as well.

Duty Cycle Filtering

An analog output can be reconstructed by filtering the duty cycle output. This technique requires only passive components. The duty cycle period (T2) should be set to <1 ms. An RC filter with a 3 dB point at least a factor of > 10 less than the duty cycle frequency is connected to the duty cycle output. The filter resistor should be no less than 100 kΩ to prevent loading of the output stage. The analog output signal will be ratiometric to the supply voltage. The advantage of this method is an output scale factor of approximately double the analog output. Its disadvantage is that the frequency response will be lower than when using the X_{FILT}, Y_{FILT} output.

X_{FILT}, Y_{FILT} Output

The second method is to use the analog output present at the X_{FILT} and Y_{FILT} pins. Unfortunately, these pins have a 32 kΩ output impedance and are not designed to drive a load directly. An op amp follower may be required to buffer this pin. The advantage of this method is that the full 5 kHz bandwidth of the accelerometer is available to the user. A capacitor still must be added at this point for filtering. The duty cycle converter should be kept running by using R_{SET} < 10 MD. Note that the accelerometer offset and sensitivity are ratiometric to the supply voltage. The offset and sensitivity are nominally:

$$0 \text{ g Offset} = V_{DD}/2$$

$$\text{ADXL202E Sensitivity} = (60 \text{ mV} \times V_s)/g$$

Magnetic Field Sensor

KMZ52

FEATURES

- High sensitivity
- Integrated compensation coil
- Integrated set/reset coil.

APPLICATIONS

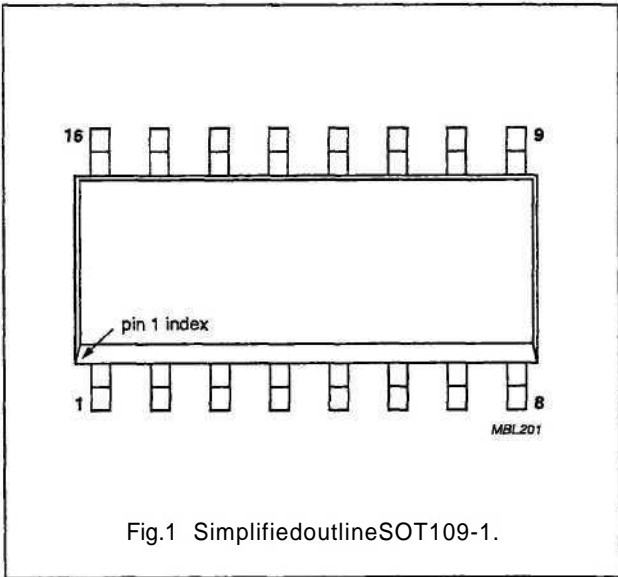
- Navigation
- Current and earth magnetic field measurement
- Traffio detection.

DESCRIPTION

The KMZ52 is an extremely sensitive magnetic field sensor, employing the magnetoresistive effect of thin-film permalloy. The sensor contains two magnetoresistive Wheatstone bridges physically offset from one another by 90° and integrated compensation and set/reset coils. The integrated compensation coils allow magnetic field measurement with current feedback loops to generate outputs that are independent of drift in sensitivity. The orientation of sensitivity may be set or changed (flipped) by means of the integrated set/reset coils. A short current pulse should be applied to the compensation coils to recover (set) the sensor after exposure to strong disturbing magnetic fields. A negative current pulse will reset the sensor to reversed sensitivity. By use of periodically alternated flipping pulses and a lock-in amplifier, the output is made independent of sensor and amplifier offset.

PINNING

SYMBOL	PIN	DESCRIPTION
+Ifiip2	1	flip coil
VcC2	2	bridge supply voltage
GND2	3	ground
+ ⁱ comp2	4	compensation coil
GND1	5	ground
+ ⁱ comp1	6	compensation coil
+ ⁱ comp1	7	compensation coil
-Voi	8	bridge output voltage
+V _{o1}	9	bridge output voltage
-Ifliip1	10	flip coil
+ ⁱ fiip1	11	flip coil
Veci	12	bridge supply voltage
- ⁱ comp2	13	compensation coil
-V _{o2}	14	bridge output voltage
+V _{o2}	15	bridge output voltage
-Ifliip2	16	flip coil



Magnetic Field Sensor

KMZ52

QUICK REFERENCE DATA

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	MIN.	TYP.	MAX.	UNIT
V _{CC}	bridge supply voltage	–	5	8	V
S	sensitivity (uncompensated)	12	16	–	$\frac{\text{mV/V}}{\text{kA/m}}$
V _{offset}	offset voltage per supply voltage	–1.5	0	+1.5	mV/V
R _{bridge}	bridge resistance	1	2	3	kΩ
R _{comp}	compensation coil resistance	100	170	300	Ω
A _{comp}	field factor of compensation coil; note 1	19	22	25	$\frac{\text{A/m}}{\text{mA}}$
R _{flip}	resistance of set/reset coil	1	2	3	Ω
I _{flip}	recommended flipping current for stable operation; note 2	±800	±1000	±1200	mA
t _{flip}	flip pulse duration; note 2	1	3	100	μs

Notes

1. The compensation coi) generates a field $H_{\text{comp}} = A_{\text{comp}} \times I_{\text{comp}}$ in addition to the external field H_{ext} . Sensor output will become zero if $H_{\text{ext}} = H_{\text{comp}}$.
2. Average power consumption of the flipping coil, defined by current, pulse duration and pulse repetition rate may not exceed the specified limit, see Chapter "Limiting values".

LIMITING VALUES

In accordance with the Absolute Maximum System (IEC 60134).

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	MIN.	MAX.	UNIT
V _{CC}	bridge supply voltage	–	8	V
P _{tot}	total power dissipation	–	130	mW
T _{stg}	Storage temperature	–65	+150	°C
T _{amb}	maximum operating temperature	–40	–125	°C
I _{comp}	maximum compensation current	–	15	mA
I _{flip (max)}	maximum flipping current	–	1500	mA
P _{flip (max)}	maximum flipping power dissipation	–	50	mW
V _{is0.}	voltage between isolated systems: flip coil and Wheatstone bridge; compensation coil and Wheatstone bridge; flip coil and compensation coil	–	60	V

THERMAL CHARACTERISTICS

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	VALUE	UNIT
R _{thj-a}	terminal resistance from junction to ambient	105	KW

Magnetic Field Sensor

KMZ52

CHARACTERISTICS

 $T_{\text{bridge}} = 25\text{ °C}$; $V_{\text{CC1}} = V_{\text{CC2}} = 5\text{ V}$; unless otherwise specified.

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	CONDITIONS	MIN.	TYP.	MAX.	UNIT
V_{CC}	bridge supply voltage	note 1	–	5	8	V
H	field strength operating range in sensor plane		–0.2	–	+0.2	kA/m
S	sensitivity	open circuit	12	16	–	$\frac{\text{mV/V}}{\text{kA/m}}$
TCS	temperature coefficient of sensitivity	$T_s = -25\text{ to }+125\text{ °C}$	–	0.31	–	%/K
k_{SX}	sensitivity synchronism	note 2	92	100	108	%
TCV_0	temperature coefficient of output voltage	$V_{\text{CC}} = 5\text{ V}$; $T_{\text{bridge}} = -25\text{ to }+125\text{ °C}$	–	–0.4	–	%/K
R_{bridge}	bridge resistance	note 3	1	2	3	k Ω
$\text{TCR}_{\text{bridge}}$	temperature coefficient of bridge resistance	$T_{\text{bridge}} = -25\text{ to }+125\text{ °C}$; note 4	–	0.3	–	%/K
V_{offset}	offset voltage per supply voltage		–1.5	0	+1.5	mV/V
$\text{TCV}_{\text{offset}}$	temperature coefficient of offset voltage	$T_{\text{bridge}} = -25\text{ to }+125\text{ °C}$; note 5	–3	0	+3	$\frac{\mu\text{V/V}}{\text{K}}$
FH	hysteresis of output voltage		–	–	2	%FS
R_{comp}	resistance of compensation coil	note 6	100	170	300	Ω
A_{comp}	field factor of compensation coil		19	22	25	$\frac{\text{A/m}}{\text{mA}}$
R_{flip}	resistance of set/reset coil	note 7	1	2	3	Ω
TCR_{flip}	temperature coefficient of resistance of set/reset coil	$T_{\text{flip}} = -25\text{ to }+125\text{ °C}$	–	0.39	–	%/K
I_{flip}	recommended flipping current for stable operation		± 800	± 1000	± 1200	mA
t_{flip}	flip pulse duration		1	3	100	μs
R_{isol}	isolating resistance	note 8	1	–	–	M Ω
V_{isol}	voltage between isolated systems	note 8	–	–	50	V
$R_{\text{isol_dice}}$	isolating resistance between dice	die 1 to die 2	1	–	–	M Ω
f	operating frequency		0	–	1	MHz
α	angle die-to-die	note 9	88	90	92	deg
β	angle dice-to-package	note 9	–5	0	+5	deg

Notes

1. Due to the ratiometric output, the same supply voltage (V_{CC}) must be applied to both dice in one KMZ52 device.

$$2. k_{\text{SX}} = 100 \times \frac{A_{\text{comp1}} \times S_1}{A_{\text{comp2}} \times S_2} \%$$

3. Bridge resistance die 1: between pins 5 and 12; bridge resistance die 2: between pins 2 and 3.

$$4. \text{TCR}_{\text{bridge}} = 100 \times \frac{R_{\text{bridge}(T_2)} - R_{\text{bridge}(T_1)}}{R_{\text{bridge}(T_1)} (T_2 - T_1)} \quad \text{Where } T_1 = -25\text{ °C}; T_2 = 125\text{ °C}.$$

Magnetic Field Sensor

KMZ52

5. $TCV_{offset} = \frac{V_{offset(T_2)} - V_{offset(T_1)}}{(T_2 - T_1)}$ Where $T_1 = -25^{\circ}\text{C}$; $T_2 = 125^{\circ}\text{C}$.
6. Resistance of compensation coil die 1: between pins 6 and 7;
resistance of compensation coil die 2: between pins 4 to 13.
7. Resistance of set/reset coil die 1: between pins 10 and 11;
resistance of set/reset coil die 2: between pins 1 to 16.
8. Isolating resistance die 1: pins 7 and 8, 7 and 10 and 8 to 10;
isolating resistance die 2: pins 1 to 2, 1 to 4 and 2 to 4.
9. Angle die-to-die: die 2 is turned by 90 ± 2 degrees in anticlockwise direction with respect to die 1;
angle dice-to-package: both dice in their fixed die-to-die position are tilted towards the package edges by 0 ± 5 degrees.

1. INTRODUCTION

The magnetic compass is a crucial navigation tool in many areas, even in times of the global positioning System (GPS). Replacing the "old" magnetic needle compass or the gyrocompass by an electronic solution offers advantages like having a solid-state component without moving parts and the ease of interfacing with other electronic systems.

For the magnetic field sensors within a compass System, the magnetoresistive (MR) technology is the preferable solution. Compared to flux-gate sensors, which could be found in most electronic compasses until now, the MR technology offers a much more cost effective solution, as it requires no coils to be wound and can be fabricated in an IC-like process. Due to their higher sensitivity, MR sensors are also superior to Hall elements in this application field.

The intention of this paper is to give a general introduction of electronic compass design with MR sensors and also to give detailed realization hints. Therefore, the basic characteristics of the earth's magnetic field are explained and an overview of the building blocks of an electronic compass is given. Following a description of Philips' magnetoresistive sensors for compass applications, the design of each building block is covered in detail. Here, both hardware and software realisations are shown. Further sections are dedicated to special items like interference field calibration, true north calibration, tilt compensation and System accuracy. Finally, examples for complete compass systems are given, consisting of previously described building blocks.

2. EARTH'S MAGNETIC FIELD

The magnetic field of the earth is the physical quantity to be evaluated by a compass. Thus, an understanding of its basic properties is required, when designing a compass. Figure 1 gives an illustration of the field shape.

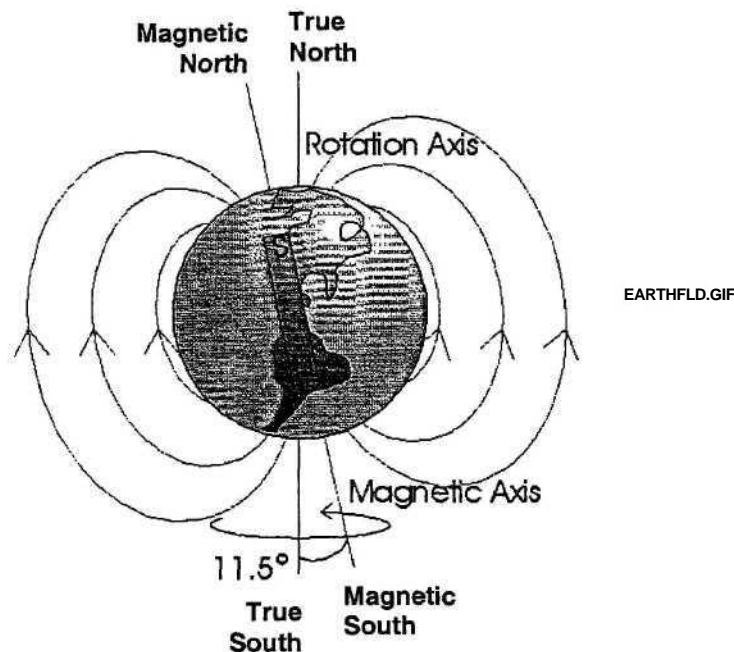


Figure 1 Earth's magnetic field

The magnetic field strength on the earth varies with location and covers the range from about 20 to 50 A/m. An understanding of the earth's field shape can be gained, if it is assumed to be generated by a bar magnet within the earth, as pointed out in Figure 1. The magnetic field lines point from the earth's south pole to its north pole. Fig. 1 indicates, that this is opposite to the physical convention for the poles of a bar magnet (the background is a historical one, in that a bar magnet's north pole has been defined as that pole, that points towards north in the earth's magnetic field). The field lines are perpendicular to the earth surface at the poles and parallel at the equator. Thus, the earth field points downwards in the northern hemisphere and upwards in the southern hemisphere. An important fact is, that the magnetic poles do not coincide with the geographical poles, which are defined by the earth's axis of rotation. The angle between the magnetic and the rotation axis is about 11.5°. As a consequence, the magnetic field lines do not exactly point to geographic or "true" north.

Figure 2 gives a 3-D representation of the earth field vector H_e at some point on the earth. This illustration allows to define the quantities, which are of importance for a compass. Here, the x- and y-coordinates are parallel to the earth's surface, whereas the z-coordinate points vertically downwards.

- Azimuth α**

The angle between magnetic north and the heading direction. Magnetic north is the direction of H_{eh} , the earth's field component perpendicular to gravity. Throughout this paper, H_{eh} will be referred to as "horizontal" component of the earth's field. Figure 2 shows, that:

$$\alpha = \arctan \frac{H_{ey}}{H_{ex}} \quad (1)$$

The azimuth is the reading quantity of a compass. Throughout this paper, α is counted clockwise from magnetic north, i.e. north is 360° or 0° , east is 90° , south is 180° , west is 270° .

- **Inclination or dip δ**

The angle between the earth's field vector and the horizontal plane. As already pointed out, the inclination varies with the actual location on earth, being zero at the equator and approaching $\pm 90^\circ$ near the poles. If a compass is tilt, then inclination has to be considered, as explained in section 9.

- **Declination λ**

The angle between geographic or true north and magnetic north. Declination is dependent on the actual position on earth. It also has a long term drift. Declination can be to the east or to the west and can reach values of about $\pm 25^\circ$. The azimuth measured by a compass has to be corrected by the declination in order to find the heading direction with respect to geographic north. This is pointed out in section 8.

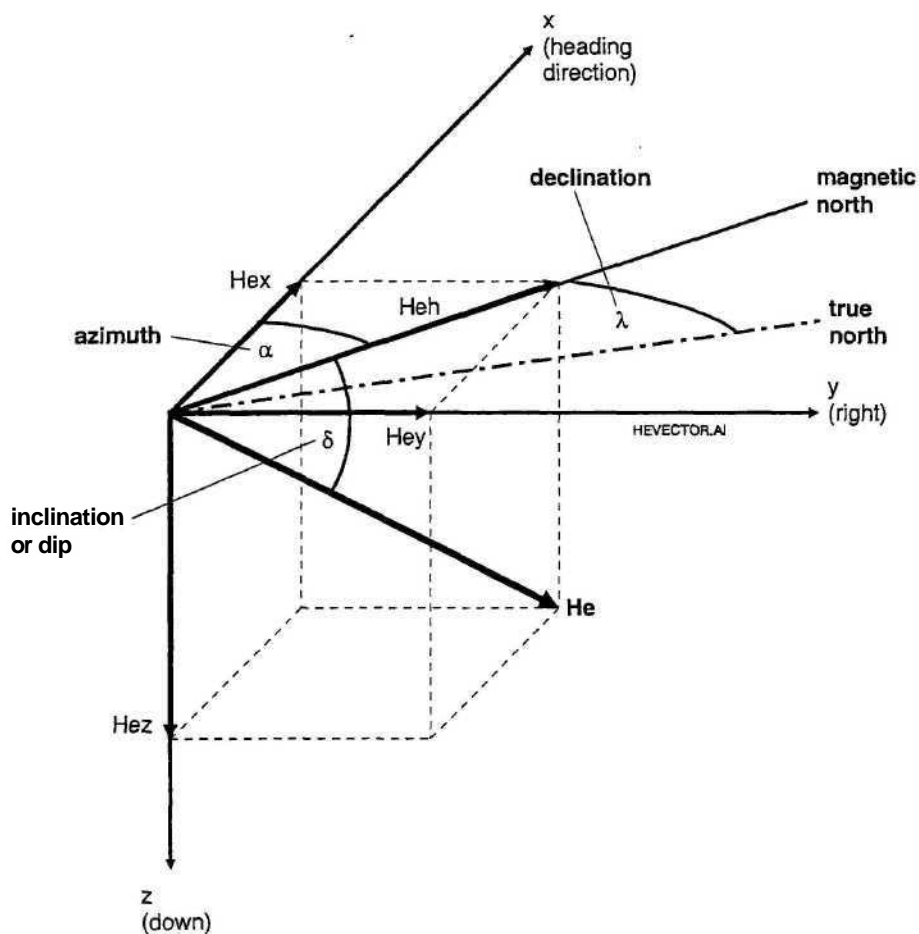


Figure 2 Earth field vector