# BME 194: Applied Circuits Lab 04: hysteresis

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## 1 Design Goal

There are three parts to this lab:

- characterizing a Schmitt-trigger inverter.
- designing a hysteresis oscillator for use as a capacitance touch sensor.
- soldering the circuit on a PC board.

For characterizing the Schmitt-trigger, the goal is simply to determine the two input voltage thresholds at which the output switches from low to high and from high to low.

The oscillator circuit is an extremely simple one, with the Schmitt trigger inverter, one resistor, and one capacitor. The design problem is merely to select appropriate parameters for the resistor and capacitor.

The soldering practice is just that—practice at using the soldering iron on a simple enough circuit that few solder points are needed. You will also make a simple capacitance touch plate (a conductor with a thin insulator covering it), whose characteristics will affect the design of the hysteresis oscillator. Everybody needs to solder their own oscillator board—one per group is not enough.

# 2 Background

#### What is hysteresis, and why do we need it?

When we put a signal into a digital input of a computer, we want it to be treated as a simple on or off. There are lots of inputs we might want to treat this way (detecting a human input on a control panel, detecting the lack of water in a water bath, and so forth).

The electronics will deliver a voltage to a digital input pin, which the computer will interpret as a 0 or 1. You can think of this as a 1-bit analog-to-digital converter. The simplest model of a digital input is a simple step function: below a threshold voltage  $V_t$  the input is interpreted as 0, and above that voltage, it is interpreted as 1. This model is a bit too simple sometimes, as voltages near the threshold may not result in a clean 0-or-1 decision and may even damage some circuits if held for too long. A more realistic one is shown in Figure 1.

If we have noisy inputs (the usual case in the real world), the interpretation of the input as a digital signal can get difficult. See, for example, Figure 2, which shows what happens when we have a digital input using the transfer characteristic of Figure 1 interpreting a noisy input. Note that increasing the gain of the input circuit would not help by itself, as we would still see a series of pulses as the input voltage crossed back and forth across the threshold.

One solution to this problem is to have two thresholds and have the conversion from a noisy analog input to a digital output have one bit of memory. If you are currently in the high state, you have to cross the lower threshold before you go to the low state, and if you are in the low state,

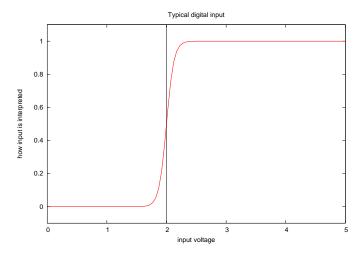


Figure 1: Representative transfer characteristic for a digital input. The *gain* of the input is the slope of the curve at its steepest point. Increasing the gain makes the 0-or-1 decision crisper, but often at the cost of other desirable properties (such as speed or power consumption). The comparator chips that we'll look at later this quarter use this approach of having a very high gain (and an extra input for setting the threshold) for converting analog signals to one-bit digital values.

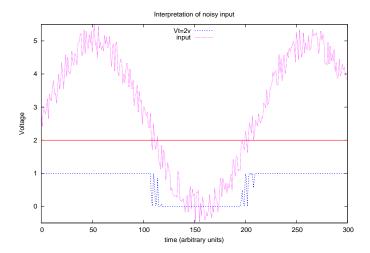


Figure 2: The results of interpreting a noisy input with the simple function of Figure 1. Note that when the input is near the threshold, the output can fluctuate wildly. If you were trying to count the events (button presses, cells in a flow sorter, ...), you could end up counting many more than you should.

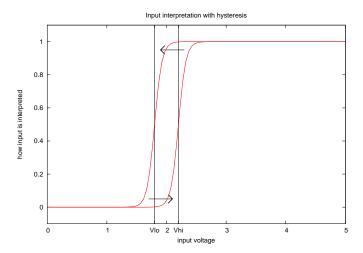


Figure 3: Representative transfer characteristic for a digital input with hysteresis. Note that the output is not a function of just the input, but of the input and the previous state. The hysteresis curve here is drawn with the same gain as Figure 1. The horizontal separation between the curves is the hysteresis voltage  $V_{hi} - V_{lo}$ .

you have to cross the higher threshold to go to the high state. The transfer characteristic is shown in Figure 3, and how such a digital input circuit would handle the same noisy input as Figure 2 is shown in Figure 4.

Although the transfer characteristic of Figure 1 is fairly representative of normal digital inputs, which expect their inputs to stay away from the threshold as much as possible, the circuits for  $Schmitt\ triggers$  which implement hysteresis for digital inputs, have much higher gain (steeper slopes) and often have a larger separation between the two thresholds  $V_{lo}$  and  $V_{hi}$ . The separation  $V_{hi} - V_{lo}$  is called the *hysteresis voltage*. The data sheet for the 74HC14N Schmitt trigger from NXP Semiconductors reports the ranges for the hysteresis voltage (which depend on temperature, power supply voltage, and other unspecified things) as around 1V, rather than the 0.6V shown in Figure 3. The gain was not specified and was too high for me to measure easily—more than 1000, compared to a gain of only 4 in Figure 3.

The hysteresis curve for the 74HC14N does not look exactly like the curve in Figure 3. Not only are the thresholds different and the gain higher, but the 74HC14N is an *inverter*, which means that the output goes low when the input goes high and vice versa. A more realistic transfer characteristic for the 74HC14N operating on a 5V power supply is shown in Figure 5.

The 74HC14N is a cheap, fast part, but the threshold voltages  $V_{lo}$  and  $V_{hi}$  are not exactly constants—they fluctuate in somewhat unpredictable ways, varying about  $\pm 10$ mV, even with a constant power supply and temperature.

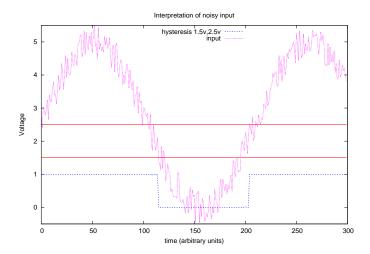


Figure 4: The results of interpreting a noisy input with the hysteresis of Figure 3. Note that the output does not wobble wildly when the input is near the threshold. One can get even cleaner transitions by increasing the gain (making the slope at the transition points steeper), and this is usually done in the design of Schmitt-trigger inputs, which are often used for converting such noisy inputs into clean digital signals.

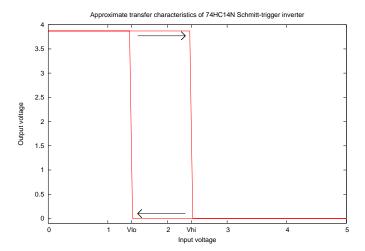


Figure 5: An approximate transfer characteristic for the 74HC14N operating with a power supply of 5V. On the actual device the gain is probably higher, but the thresholds vary somewhat unpredictably from moment to moment.

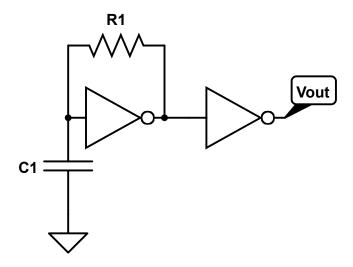


Figure 6: One way to implement an oscillator with Schmitt trigger inverters. When the output of the first inverter is high, the capacitor C1 charges through resistance R1, until the voltage across C1 is larger than  $V_{hi}$  for the Schmitt-trigger inverter, then the output goes low and C1 discharges through R1 until its voltage drops below  $V_{lo}$  and the cycle repeats. The second inverter is not really needed—it just provides isolation so that whatever is connected to the output does not disrupt the oscillator.

### How a hysteresis oscillator works

Although the main use of Schmitt triggers (circuits that implement a hysteresis transfer characteristic) is to convert noisy analog inputs to clean digital inputs, they have another minor use as oscillators, which we will take advantage of in this lab to make an on-off sensor that is sensitive to changes in capacitance.

Figure 6 shows a typical circuit for a hysteresis oscillator (also called a relaxation oscillator). The principle of operation is simple: When the output of the first inverter is high, the capacitor C1 charges through resistance R1, until the voltage across C1 is larger than  $V_{hi}$  for the Schmitt-trigger inverter, then the output goes low and C1 discharges through R1 until its voltage drops below  $V_{lo}$  and the cycle repeats. The time spent with the output high depends on how long it takes to charge C1 from  $V_{lo}$  to  $V_{hi}$ , with the output voltage at its high value  $V_{oh}$ . The time spent with the output low depends on how long it takes to discharge C1 from  $V_{hi}$  to  $V_{lo}$ , with the output voltage at its low value  $V_{ol}$ .

Note that the charge and discharge times depend on the voltages  $(V_{lo}, V_{hi}, V_{ol}, V_{oh})$  and the RC time constant  $R_1C_1$ , but not on  $R_1$  and  $C_1$  separately. This means that we can design the hysteresis oscillator for a particular frequency with quite different component values.

What would be the effect of having a large value for  $R_1$  and a small one for  $C_1$ , rather than a small value for  $R_1$  and a large one for  $C_1$ ? If  $R_1$  is small and  $C_1$  large, then the frequency will be fairly stable, not affected much by changes in  $C_1$  or small amount of noise (like from nearby 60Hz power lines) capacitively coupled into the input. If  $R_1$  is high and  $C_1$  small, then the frequency will vary much more from capacitively-coupled noise, and will be very sensitive to changes in  $C_1$ .

Note that changes to the threshold voltages or to the high and low output voltages of the inverter also will result in changing charge and discharge times. These effects are probably less important than capacitively coupled 60Hz noise.

### Capacitance touch sensor

A capacitance touch sensor is used for switches on some instruments, because it has no moving parts (other than electrons) and can be put behind an easily-cleaned glass surface. It is also easy to operate with gloves on. Capacitive sensing can also be used in other contexts, to detect the presence of conductive substances without having to make direct electrical contact with them, or to measure distances between conductors.

The basic idea of a capacitance touch sensor is simple:

- A touch plate consists of one plate of a capacitor and an insulator—your finger is the other plate of the capacitor.
- The capacitance of the touch plate varies depending on how close the finger is to the touch plate and how much area of the finger is in contact.
- The varying capacitance is used to change the frequency of an oscillator.
- The frequency (or period or duration of one of the pulses) of the oscillator is measured to determine whether the touch plate is currently being touched or not.

You will make a cheap capacitance touch plate out of a piece of aluminum foil (the plate of the capacitor) and a layer of packing tape (the insulator). You can connect this plate of the capacitor to the inverter input of the hysteresis oscillator, effectively putting the capacitor in parallel with C1. The period of the oscillator will then be proportional to  $R_1(C_1 + C_t)$ , rather than just  $R_1C_1$ , where  $C_t$  is the capacitance of the touch plate.

To detect the change in period easily, we want the change in  $C_t$  to be large relative to  $C_1 + C_t$ , which means we want to keep  $C_1$  fairly small.

To detect the change in period, I wrote a small Arduino program that you can use: http://users.soe.ucsc.edu/~karplus/bme194/w13/lab-handouts/touch/touch.ino Remember that the touch.ino file needs to be in a directory named touch for the Arduino environment to be able to download it to the Arduino board.

The program uses the Arduino pulseIn function to measure how long a pulse on digital pin 2 remains low.

Since I do not know what frequency you are going to design your oscillator for, I tried to make the program adaptive and to use hysteresis! When you reset the Arduino, it measures the low pulses for about 300msec (getting 18 cycles of 60Hz noise), and takes  $1\mu$ s more than the longest low value it sees as a low threshold. It then sets the high threshold as 40% longer than that. Once the auto-detect is done, it flashes the LED three times, to let you know that the sensor is now ok to touch

When the pulse lengths are shorter than the low threshold, the program turns off the on-board LED connected to pin 13. When the pulse lengths are longer than the high threshold the program turns on the LED.

This means that you need to design your capacitance touch sensor to have at least a 40% change in period when the touch plate is touched (preferably more like a 2-fold change), and for the low pulse width to be between  $20\mu s$  and 1ms. If you can't get your oscillator to stretch the pulse length by over 40%, you could always modify the code to require only a 20% stretch or even just make the high threshold  $5-10\mu s$  larger than low threshold.

## 3 Pre-lab assignment

Read the Wikipedia articles

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Capacitance,

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RC\_time\_constant,

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Relaxation\_oscillator,

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Touch\_switch#Capacitance\_touch\_switch, and

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bypass\_capacitor. It is not necessary to understand everything in each of these articles, as some go into more depth than we need for this lab.

If you have never soldered before, read or watch any of the hundreds of tutorials on the web for soldering on printed circuit boards.

Determine how long a hysteresis oscillator will stay low given the 4 voltages  $(V_{lo}, V_{hi}, V_{ol}, V_{oh})$  and the RC time constant  $R_1C_1$ . Turning this around, what range of RC time constants do you need to get a low pulse whose duration is between  $20\mu$ s and 1ms?

You will measure the voltages in the lab, but you might want to estimate the RC time constant range using the specs from the data sheet.

If putting your finger on the touch sensor is supposed to double the duration of the pulse, then the change in capacitance would have to about the capacitance of  $C_1 + C_t$  when the touch plate is not touched. Estimate the capacitance of a finger touch on packing-tape and foil sensor by estimating the area of your finger that comes in contact with the tape, and assume that the tape is 2mil tape (0.002" thick) made of polypropylene (look up the dielectric constant of polypropylene on line). Remember that capacitance can be computed with the formula

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 A}{d} ,$$

where  $\epsilon_r$  is the dielectric constant,  $\epsilon_0 = 8.854187817E - 12F/m$  is the permittivity of free space, A is the area, and d is the distance between the plates.

Use your estimate of the capacitance of the finger touch to get initial values for  $R_1$  and  $C_1$ . You don't have a value for  $C_t$  yet, so for this pre-lab exercise, assume that it is small relative to  $C_1$ —this turns out to be a pretty good assumption for most values of  $C_1$  that you are likely to choose.

## 4 Parts, tools, and equipment needed

#### Parts for this lab from kit:

- hysteresis oscillator board
- 74HC14N Schmitt trigger hex inverter
- resistor(s)
- capacitor(s)
- alligator clip

#### Parts students need to provide on their own:

- Arduino board
- USB cable for board

• scissors (for cutting packing tape)

#### Tools for this lab:

- wire cutters
- wire strippers
- long-nose pliers
- solder sucker

### Equipment in lab:

- bench power supply (optional, can power off Arduino)
- oscilloscope (to view oscillator output)
- frequency meter (optional)
- soldering iron

## Parts provided by instructor:

- aluminum foil
- packing tape
- solder

## 5 Procedures

## Characterizing the 74HC14N

To characterize the 74HC14N, we want 4 voltages: input thresholds  $V_{lo}$  and  $V_{hi}$  and output voltages  $V_{ol}$  and  $V_{oh}$ .

The output voltages are easy to measure: just connect +5V to pin 14 and GND to pin 7 of the chip (providing power to the chip), then connect either +5 or GND to pin 1 (the input of one inverter) and measure the output on pin 2 (the output of that inverter). Figure 7 identifies pins of a 14-pin DIP. Consult the spec sheet for the part to determine what the various pins do.

The input threshold voltages are a little harder to measure. One approach is to use one power supply to power the chip at 5v, and another to drive the input pin. Monitor the output pin with a voltmeter, oscilloscope, or LED with series resistor, and adjust the input voltage upwards until the output goes low, then downwards until the output goes high again. Sweep back and forth a few times, recording the measurements.

You can use the Arduino to record the measurements by hooking up the input to A0 and the output to digital pin 2, and triggering on both transitions of pin 2. Then as you adjust the voltage up and down, the Data Logger can record what the voltages were every time the output changed state. This method worked well for me—you don't even need a bench power supply, as you can use your 10k trimpot as a voltage divider to divide-down the 5v power supply from the Arduino to produce the input voltage.

Once you have the voltages, check that your initial estimates of  $R_1$  and  $C_1$  still seem reasonable. If not, adjust them.

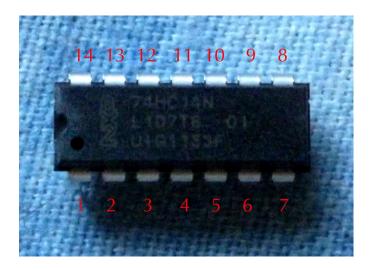


Figure 7: The numbering of pins on a dual-inline package starts by the dot and continues counterclockwise around the package. Some packages have just a notch at the end with the lowest and highest pin numbers, but not a visible dot.

### Breadboarding the hysteresis oscillator

The hysteresis oscillator board that you will solder up does not have exactly the same circuit as Figure 6. The circuit that the board implements is show in Figure 8. The schematics drawn by the Eagle board-layout software are rather ugly, but I wanted to avoid the potential errors from copying the schematic using a different editor.

The circuit on the PC board uses only one of the 6 Schmitt triggers on the chip—it does not have the extra buffer inverter shown in Figure 6 and it has one extra component: a bypass capacitor to keep the fluctuations in current from the inverter chip from propagating too much noise into the power lines. See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bypass\_capacitor. Although your circuit will work fine without the bypass capacitor, it is a good idea to get into the habit of including them—the  $0.1\mu F$  capacitor (the largest of the little disk capacitors in your assortment) is a reasonable size, though I often like to use  $4.7\mu F$  ceramic capacitors as the bypass capacitors.

Make your touch plate by folding a piece of aluminum foil into a neat rectangle about 3cm by 5cm. Then fold a 9cm-long piece of packing tape over the foil, so that the foil is covered with a single layer of tape everywhere except at one end, where bare foil sticks out to provide a place for an alligator clip to attach. Having multiple layers of foil and some extra folding at the end that you will attach the clip lead to can make the sensor less fragile.

Wire up your circuit on a breadboard (keeping the wires fairly short, to reduce stray capacitance), and connect the touch plate to the inverter input with a wire and an alligator clip. Power the circuit either from the Arduino or from the bench power supply. For +5v and GND wires, remember that the standard convention is red for +5 and black for GND. Not following this convention will make it much harder for other people to help you debug your circuit.

Look at the output with an oscilloscope. Is it oscillating? How does the period of the oscillation change as you touch the touch sensor? If it is changing by less than 40%, try using a smaller capacitor for  $C_1$ . How long is the low pulse in  $\mu$ s? If it is too short (less than about  $20\mu$ s when the sensor is not touched, try using a larger  $R_1$  to increase the RC time constant. What happens if you leave the touch plate connected but remove  $C_1$ ? What happens to the output of the oscillator

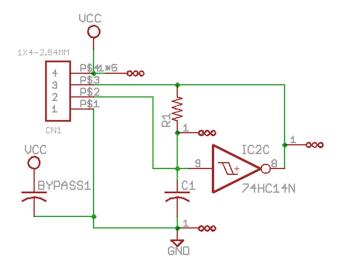


Figure 8: The oscillator schematic for the PC board, as drawn by the Eagle board-layout software. There is only one Schmitt-trigger inverter used.

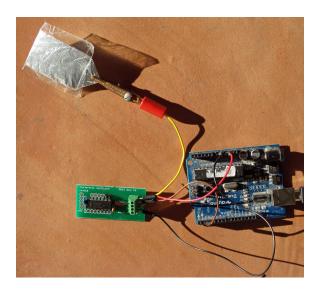


Figure 9: Touch sensor made with aluminum foil and packing tape, connected to the hysteresis oscillator and Arduino board.

if you look at the input to the oscillator with the oscilloscope?

Measure the frequencies or periods with different  $C_1$  values, with the touch plate unconnected, connected but not touched, and connected but touched. (You may find the frequency meter handy for these measurements, but you can do it with just the oscilloscope.) Can you estimate the capacitance of the touch plate and the extra capacitance of the touch from these measurements?

Hook up the ground and output nodes of your circuit to GND and digital pin 2 of the Arduino with the touch ino file downloaded. Without having your hand near the touch sensor, reset the Arduino by pressing its reset button. This should set the pulse-duration thresholds in the program so that touching the touch plate lights the LED. Sometimes a stray long pulse causes the thresholds to be set too high, which requires a larger area of contact than desirable to light the LED. If that happens, try resetting the Arduino again. (A more robust estimator of the thresholds could be written, but I wanted to keep the software as simple as possible.)

## Soldering the hysteresis oscillator

Put the components on the board in the right orientation. Follow tutorial instructions on how to solder the components in place. Be careful not to burn yourself with the iron!

Make sure that all your connections are shiny (not cold-soldered) and that no adjacent pins have been soldered together. If you do accidentally solder two points together, remelt the solder and use the solder sucker to remove the excess.

Check that the +5V and GND terminals are not shorted together, then hook up wires to the Arduino (or oscilloscope) and test as for the breadboard.

## 6 Demo and writeup

There are three checkpoints in this lab that should be demonstrated to an instructor:

- 1. breadboard hysteresis oscillator oscillating and displayed on the oscilloscope.
- 2. breadboard hysteresis oscillator working with Arduino to control LED.
- 3. soldered hysteresis oscillator working with Arduino to control LED. The instructor may wish to examine the solder joints on the back of the board.

# 7 Design Hints

Everything in this lab comes down to setting the RC time constants appropriately for the touched and untouched sensor plate. Remember that all the times in this system (pulse widths or periods) are proportional to the RC time constant.