# RATTLESNAKE NANOACTUATOR <br> a precision high speed closed loop linear aCTUATOR WITH CAPACITIVE SENSOR <br> JONATHAN LOCK 



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front cover illustration: The graphic on the cover is a rattlesnake with a suspended mirror, alluding to a device driving a moving payload quickly.


#### Abstract

This thesis describes the development of a novel linear actuator based on a closed loop tightly integrated magnetic motor and capacitive sensor. Mechanical, electrical and software work has resulted in a device achieving a mechanical range of travel of $\pm 1 \mathrm{~mm}$ with a steady state RMS error of 62 nm at a closed loop bandwidth of 3.5 kHz , a typical tracking error of hundreds of nanometers (dependent on the waveform shape) and a maximum error in the range of $1-10 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. The stiffness of the system at 10 Hz is $4 \mathrm{~N} / \mu \mathrm{m}$ and the actuator has a useful range of motion up to $300-500 \mathrm{~Hz}$ with reduced travel at these speeds due to force limitations. This is possibly an area of continued work; minor modifications could lead to an RMS error of $\approx 20 \mathrm{~nm}$, making it possible to outperform piezoelectric actuators in some applications such as adaptive optics or interferometry.


## SAMMANFATTNING

Den här rapporten beskriver utvecklingen av en linjärmotor med ett slutet reglersystem där motorn är nära ihopkopplad med en kapacitiv lägesgivage. Arbete inom mekanik, elektronik och mjukvara har skett och resulterade i en enhet med en mekanisk slaglängd på $\pm 1 \mathrm{~mm}$ med ett steady-state RMS fel på 62 nm vid en sluten bandbredd på 3.5 kHz , ett typiskt reglerfel på ett hundratal nanometer (beroende på utformningen av börsvärdevågformen) och ett maximalt fel inom området $1-10 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Systemets styvhet vid 10 Hz är $4 \mathrm{mN} / \mathrm{nm}$ och motorn har ett arbetsområde på upp till $300-500 \mathrm{~Hz}$, men då med ett begränsat utslag på grund av kraftbegränsningar. Resultaten ger styrka åt möjligheten till framtida arbete med denna typ av linjärmotor, några kända mindre ändringar skulle uppskattningsvis leda till ett RMS fel på $\approx 20 \mathrm{~nm}$, vilket möjliggör bättre prestanda än piezoelektriska motorer inom vissa områden som t.ex. adaptiv optik eller interferometri.

This thesis is based on studies done during January 2011 to August 2011 at the department of Microtechnology and Nanoscience, Chalmers University of Technology, Gothenburg Sweden.

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Jonathan Lock, August 2011
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## ACRONYMS

STM scanning tunneling microscopy
AF autofocus
ADC analog-digital converter
DAC digital-analog converter
PID proportional integral derivative
FIFO first in first out

USB universal serial bus
RS232 recommended standard 232
PCB printed circuit board
OPAMP operational amplifier
MOSFET metal-oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistor
GBW gain-bandwidth product
RF radio-frequency
ESD electrostatic discharge
RISC reduced instruction set computing
RAM random access memory
USART universal asynchronous receiver/transmitter
IC integrated circuit
I/O input/output
SPICE simulation program with integrated circuit emphasis
NTC negative temperature coefficient
INL integral nonlinearity
SNR signal to noise ratio
FPGA field-programmable gate array
GCC GNU C compiler
AVRDUDE AVR downloader uploader
ISPMKii in system programmer mark ii

Part I
INTRODUCTION

This section describes the scientific background of this thesis, Rattlesnake Nanoactuator ${ }^{1}$, the key parameters for the developed actuator, a brief comparison with existing solutions as well as the scope and structure of the thesis.

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

High-precision linear actuators ${ }^{2}$ have a remarkably wide range of applications in both research and industrial environments. Movement and cost scale from scanning tunneling microscopy (STM), with motion in the sub-nanometer range, though with a range of travel often only in the range of hundreds to few thousands of nanometers (DMESPM [9]) to optical autofocus (AF) and beam deflection systems with wildly ranging accuracies, though often spanning a range of accuracy of hundreds of nanometers and travel in the millimeter scale (eg. Thorlabs AB [16]). The goal of this thesis is to develop and test a new type of linear actuator with a closely integrated motor and sensor that allows for high-speed closed loop operation, with a travel range on the order of millimeters and as as high a resolution as possible.

### 1.2 EXISTING TOPOLOGIES

There exist many different types of actuators in the same order of magnitude of specifications, most can be divided into a number of subgroups (see figure 1 on the following page);
piezoelectric A piezoelectric actuator uses a material with a piezoelectric effect which causes a change in mechanical dimensions upon applied electric field. Commonly used materials have a change of length around $0.1 \%$ of the total length. Typically several piezoelectric discs are stacked on each other to give a larger travel at lower voltages. There is some residual hysteresis when applying an alternating electric field, necessitating a closed-loop system when high accuracy is required (Choi and Han [8]).

DIRECT DRIVE Direct-drive piezoelectric actuators typically use stacked piezoelectric discs to directly control the position

[^0]

Figure 1: Common topologies for precision actuators.
of the payload. Benefits of this approach are very high resolution (often sub-nanometer) and system stiffness, though at cost of very limited travel (on the range of hundreds of nanometers) (Choi and Han [8]).
slip-stick A slip-stick drive utilizes the difference in static and dynamic friction between two bases and the high acceleration that can be achieved with a piezoelectric actuator to slowly "inchworm" the payload in the desired direction. This reduces the limited travel problem associated with a direct-drive approach, however at cost of very slow rough movement and low maximum applied force (as the payload would simply slide if too large a force is applied) (Choi and Han [8]).
amplified structure A mechanical structure designed to amplify a small range of motion in one direction to a larger range of motion in another gives the amplified piezoelectric structure large throw and high static force. However the large structure will tend to give a relatively "weak" system, with a low stiffness ([ $m / N]$ ) (Choi and Han [8]).
magnetic drive A magnetic actuator uses changing magnetic fields to apply a force to a magnet or coil in order to move a payload, following Lenz's law (Cheng [7]). Depending on the structure chosen this allows for a potentially much larger travel range, though as the magnetic actuator can only apply a force some type of closed loop system must be implemented to maintain a desired position (Brauer [5]).

All of these different topologies offer their own strengths and weaknesses. Piezoelectric designs offer great resolution and high stiffness. This is at the cost of low travel and hysteresis in the applied voltage
and resulting position requiring some type of closed loop control for high-accuracy systems. Though various methods exist for increasing the travel of the payload these come at the cost of either reduced system stiffness or slow large-scale motion and low applied force for an amplified and stick-slip topology respectively. A magnetic actuator offers far larger ranges of travel, with force limited only by the permissible magnetic flux. However as the output from the magnetic actuator is force (rather than position) a high-speed controller must be used with some type of sensor to form a closed-loop system to drive the payload to the desired position.

### 1.3 KEY PARAMETERS

Some key parameters were established before the development of the actuator began, in an attempt to both limit the size of the thesis and scope of the work. Key definitions in the development of the actuator have been;

Closed loop A closed loop actuator measures its own current position and generates a motor force to counteract any external forces that would otherwise move it. This is of great value, as it compensates for varying internal conditions (such as nonlinearity in the motor stage) and external conditions (such as varying payload or vibration) and achieves a set position.
capacitive sensor The use of a capacitive sensor allows for tight integration of motor and sensor, reducing delays and mechanical deflection that is critical for the small distances that are of interest.
magnetic drive A magnetic motor was specified in order to give a far larger throw than piezoelectric systems. This comes at the cost of increased complexity and reduced stiffness compared to piezoelectrics.
linearity Linearity is critical for a high-precision actuator, the use of a closed-loop design enables the possibility a high precision system as the controller will reduce many of the residual nonlinearities to a large degree. Large weight is placed on developing an inherently linear sensor, which is critical to achieving a high system linearity.
size The size of the actuator developed for the thesis should allow for easy reduction of scale for later versions - allowing for arrays of actuators for eg. adaptive optics.
frictionless A (near-)frictionless actuator is of great use as the actuator lifespan can be made practically unlimited, reduces the amount of noise presented to the payload and simplifies the
closed-loop design. For this thesis a frictionless design using flexures will be used.
high speed High speed of motion is always of interest, as a quicker movement speed allows for a wider range of applications. Additionally, a high-speed servo will ensure the system stiffness is kept large even at high disturbance frequencies.

### 1.3.1 Predetermined values

Prior to the start of this thesis some parameters/values have been predetermined. The definitions are shown in table 1 on the next page, as well as a short description to motivate the selection.

### 1.4 POSSIBLE USES

A few of the possible uses of the type of actuator described above are:

- AF and beam deflection for optical systems
- Rough positioning for STM
- Adaptive optic arrays (if the actuator is made smaller)
- Absolute interferometry - using white light and sweeping reference arm length
- General purpose high-accuracy position or velocity generation


### 1.5 SCOPE OF THESIS

Several limitations have been placed to control the scope of the thesis:

- A linear control scheme will be implemented, however for future work a nonlinear controller may give better performance in the sense of improved slew rate.
- One actuator and controller will be constructed, as a sufficient proof of concept.
- A moving-magnet design will be chosen, as a moving coil structure would require powering the moving mass and would result in cooling difficulties.
- Only first-order mechanical attributes will be studied, higher order effects such as movement along axes other than the axis of motion will be ignored.
Table 1: Predetermined values and topologies for the actuator.

| PARAMETER | VALUE | REASON |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Motor type | Magnetic | Large throw, high force and stiffness |
| Motor force | Approx. $30[\mathrm{~N}]$ | Allows for $\sim 150 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}^{2}$ acceleration of a 2og payload, deemed to be enough |
| External dimensions | Cylindrical, approx. $30 \times 50[\mathrm{~mm}, \mathrm{~mm}]$ | Easy to manufacture prototype, design to be able to scale down in size |
| Throw | Approx $\pm 1 \mathrm{~mm}$ | Far exceeds travel of long piezoelectric direct drive actuators |
| Bandwidth | As high as possible, >100 Hz | A bandwidth of 10oHz is a lower bound of usefulness, more is better |
| Sensor | Capacitive | Allows for contactless sensing of position, high accuracy possible |
| Suspension | Flexure | Can result in a (near) friction-free actuator with a practically unlimited lifespan |
| Resolution | Preferred <20nm | With better than 2onm resolution the actuator can compete with some piezoelectric systems |
| Interface | Manual control or RS232 over USB | Manual and computer controlled setpoint of the payload allows for finding results easily |

```
1.6 THESIS STRUCTURE
```

Section 2 contains the background theory needed for a cursory understanding of the thesis. In section 3 a system-level overview of the logical blocks used in the entire system is given from a mechanical, electrical and software standpoint. These blocks will be described in more detail in section 4, while actual drawings, schematics and program listings will be contained in appendices A,B,C. All measured results and a brief discussion of them can be found in section 5 , future work and conclusions can be found in Sections 6 and 7 respectively. Additionally, due to space constraints, not all calculations will be shown. The omitted details are straightforward and not critical to the the core of the work which lie with the performance of the closed-loop system.

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## Part II

BACKGROUND

## BACKGROUND

This section contains a brief overview of capacitive sensors and magnetic motors.

### 2.1 CAPACITIVE SENSING

Capacitive sensing uses capacitive coupling between two or more objects to give an output signal. Recall that the capacitance, measured in farad $[F]$, is defined as $[C / V]$ or coulomb per volt. The textbook example of a capacitor is a parallel plate capacitor. If there exist two parallel conductive plates with area $A$ and separation distance $d$, with a nonconductive medium between the two with a relative dielectric constant of $\varepsilon_{r}$ then the capacitance between the two of them is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
C=\varepsilon_{0} \varepsilon_{r} \frac{A}{d} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\varepsilon_{0}$ is the dielectric constant ( $\varepsilon_{0} \approx 8.854 \cdot 10^{-12}[F / m]$ ) and assuming no fringing fields (which is a good approximation when $d$ is small and $A$ is large) (Baxter [4], Cheng [7]).

Capacitive sensing is an attempt to use the variation of capacitance between two or more objects to detect a change in the system parameters by varying one of the parameters in equation (2.1). Some examples of the use of capacitive sensors are:

- Oil level sensor: two parallel plates with a varying level of oil between them can form a capacitive sensor, as oil has a higher relative dielectric constant than air. If the plate area and separation distance are kept constant the capacitance will vary with the level of oil.
- Distance sensor: two parallel plates with a varying distance between them will function as a capacitive sensor. As the distance varies so too will the capacitance between them.
- Size sensor: one reference plate's capacitive coupling to a measured plate with unknown area can be used to determine the size of the unknown plate by measuring the capacitance.

Capacitive sensors are quite attractive as they offer an easy measurement method for many possible scenarios, often work in a contactless fashion which ensures there is no mechanical wear, are robust and can be simple to implement. However, some care must be taken when designing them to ensure that higher-order effects are kept small
enough, such as variations of undesired parameters e.g. $\varepsilon_{r}$ varying over temperature, as well as limiting the effects of fringing fields and capacitance to other undesired bodies.

### 2.2 MAGNETIC MOTORS

A magnetic motor is a device that uses magnetic fields to perform mechanical work. Typically a magnetic motor's power is supplied electrically and is then converted to a magnetic field which then exerts a force and motion on some other part in the magnetic field. Commonly used magnetic motors include;

- DC and AC rotary motors,
- loudspeakers,
- head positioning for computer harddisk drives.

A magnetic motor converts electrical power to a magnetic field. Most often this is expressed with Ampère's law;

$$
\oint_{\mathbf{C}} \mathbf{B} \cdot d l=\mu_{0} \iint_{\mathbf{S}} \mathbf{J} \cdot d \mathbf{S}=\mu_{0} I_{e n c}
$$

where the left hand side of the equation is the closed line integral around some curve $\mathbf{C}$, and $\mathbf{B}$ is the magnetic field. The first right hand side $\mu_{0}$ is the magnetic constant, the integral over the surface $S$ spanned by $\mathbf{C}$, and $\mathbf{J}$ is the total current density through the surface $S$. The second right hand side $I_{\text {enc }}$ is the total net current that flows through $S$.

A magnetic field causes a force to be applied to charges as described by

$$
\mathbf{F}=q(\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B})
$$

where $\mathbf{F}$ is the net force, $q$ is the charge, $\mathbf{v}$ is the velocity of the charge and $\mathbf{B}$ is the magnetic field (Cheng [7], Nordling and Österman [12]). This shows the desired effect - that in some circumstances an electric current can cause a force to be applied. With careful design an effective motor can be built to maximize the force and reduce losses due to ohmic heating and eddy losses in the electric and magnetic conductors respectively.

### 2.3 MECHANICAL STRESS

Accurately describing the stresses in a solid body is critical when designing a reliable mechanical structure. The von Mises Criterion can be used to estimate the yield strength of a ductile material. The condition states that plastic deformation at a point in the material
occurs when the total distortion energy reaches the energy level of distortion for uniaxial tension. This is equivalent to

$$
\frac{1}{2}\left[\left(\sigma_{1}-\sigma_{2}\right)^{2}+\left(\sigma_{2}-\sigma_{3}\right)^{2}+\left(\sigma_{3}-\sigma_{1}\right)^{2}\right] \leq \sigma_{y}^{2}
$$

where $\sigma_{1, \ldots, 3}$ is the strain along three orthogonal planes at a point and $\sigma_{y}$ is the yield strength for uniaxial tension. This is in contrast to the slightly less conservative estimate, the maximum shear stress condition, which limits the principle stress difference and the principle stresses to be less than the yield shear stress

$$
\left|\sigma_{1}\right| \leq \sigma_{y},\left|\sigma_{2}\right| \leq \sigma_{y},\left|\sigma_{1}-\sigma_{2}\right| \leq \sigma_{y} .
$$

As the maximum shear stress condition is typically used for more brittle materials, and as a flexure is intended to flex over a large range and not shatter on transients exceeding the specified travel range a relatively ductile material is desired, leading to the use of the von Mises criterion (Young and Budynas [17], Nordling and Österman [12]). See section 3.2.2 for simulations performed on a mechanical flexure structure using the von Mises stress critereon.

Part III
TOPOLOGY

## TOPOLOGY

This section illustrates the general topology of the actuator for the implementation chosen (described in more detail in section 4). The total system wide topology is divided into three subsections: mechanical, electrical, and software. More details involving implementationspecific parameters can be found in section 4 and appendices $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{C}$.

Note that the topologies discussed below represent one particular choice. Some motivation for the design choices performed will be given, nevertheless design choices made only represent one possible design.

### 3.1 SYSTEM-LEVEL TOPOLOGY

The entire system-level topology uses two hardware blocks, an actuator and a controller. The actuator houses a motor which generates force and a sensor which measures the current position. The controller demodulates the measured position, feeds it as the current process variable to a linear controller which outputs a control current. This is amplified with a power amplifier and fed back to the motor, driving the actuator to the desired position. Additionally, a microprocessor samples the position with an ADC continuously, can control the setpoint with a DAC to the controller and receives and transmits data over an external communication interface. A simple block diagram can be seen in figure 2 on the following page which illustrates the system-level topology. The reason for the discrimination between the actuator block and the controller block is primarily due to size - the current controller block is physically large in order to more easily develop and test the entire system.

### 3.2 MECHANICAL STRUCTURE

A diagram of the mechanical actuator design chosen is shown in figure 3 on the next page. Important factors taken into account have been;
stiffness High stiffness is important, both between the actuator and the payload and internally between the motor and sensor. If the stiffness of the driving structure between the actuator and the payload is insufficient then external forces and acceleration will cause errors in the set position. In particular, if the stiffness between the motor and sensor inside the actuator is insufficient,


Figure 2: System-level topology of the actuator, illustrating the core blocks in the system and their interconnections.


Figure 3: Cutaway view of mechanical structure of actuator with motor and actuator visible, various supporting structures hidden.
oscillatory and/or unstable behavior may be exhibited due to the added pole in the closed loop system.
mass A small moving mass is critical to high dynamic performance, ie. rapid acceleration. The force required to achieve a desired acceleration is linearly proportional to the mass, by Newton's second law $F=m a$ (Nordling and Österman [12]).

FRICTION A near-frictionless actuator is of great value as it allows for a near unlimited lifespan and ease of control. Additionally, friction causes great changes in the linear description of a system potentially leading to instability.

These main parameters can be achieved through the actuator design in figure 3 on the facing page. The capacitive sensor and the motor are the two main parts, separated by a flexure suspension that suspend the moving parts. The motor is a moving magnet type, as described in section 1.2, with two coils to direct the magnetic flux and a magnetic conductor to concentrate the flow through the coils to maximize the resulting force for a given current (see simulations in appendix A). The capacitive sensor's hardware consists of two moving reference cylinders attached to the moving actuating rod and one non-moving sense cylinder surrounded by two non-moving guard cylinders, shown in figure 3 on the preceding page as the brass-colored sections of the sensor. These cylinders are held in place by a PCB with electronics for the sensor, shown in the figure as the green-colored sections.

The moving mass is kept low by ensuring only the lightweight parts of the motor and sensor move. Stiffness is kept high between the sensor and actuator by using a short cylindrical structure. Friction is kept to a minimum by using a flexure suspension which also allows for applying electrical voltages to the moving parts of the capacitive sensor.

### 3.2.1 Motor design

The motor has been designed to apply a maximum of force at a reasonable voltage and current (roughly $4 \Omega$ DC resistance) and saturating the magnetic conductor roughly at the same time around the coils. See figure 4 on the following page for a simulation of the magnetic current and flux density for various magnet positions and coil currents. The magnetic conductor tends to concentrate the magnetic flux (as seen by the black field lines) and when there is current in the coil the magnetic field lines shift, which places a force on the magnet. Simulations assuming the size of components as in the drawings in appendix $C$ predict a force of $30 \mathrm{~N} \pm 5 \mathrm{~N}$ over the travel of the magnet at a current of 3 A . Figure 5 on the next page illustrates a qualitative estimate of the normalized steady-state motor position over normalized current for a constant spring load. A limited range of motion in the center


Figure 4: Simulation of the magnetic current and flux density for various positions in a radial-symmetric 2 D representation. In all images the magnet is to the left, the reversed E shape is the magnetic conductor and coils fill the "empty" zones in the magnetic conductor. The four images illustrate from left to right and top to bottom; centered magnet, no current in coil; centered magnet, current in coil; offset magnet, no current in coil; offset magnet, current in coil.


Figure 5: Qualitative estimate of the steady-state magnet position as function of coil current for a constant spring load.
is relatively linear, but as the excursion increases the force decreases (leading to a reduced change in position) and finally reaches an equilibrium point, after which no increase in current will cause any more force to be applied, leading to a constant position (Brauer [5]).

### 3.2.2 Flexure design

The flexures used to suspend the structure are critical for the performance of the actuator. Ideally the flexure would be infinitely weak along the direction of travel and infinitely stiff along all axes of rotation and the remaining axes of translation. Additionally, in order to achieve a high lifespan for the flexure the stress in the material must be limited. For a flexure to sustain a lifespan of $10^{10}$ or more flexing cycles the strain in the material, assuming a hardened stainless steel material, must be limited to around $50 \%$ of the tensile yield strength (Young and Budynas [17]). The flexure illustrated in figure 6 on the following page is an approximation of both of these ideals. The von Mises stress (which gives an overall measure of the stresses in the system, covering tensile, compression and shear stresses) is limited to 145 MPa , which is just below $1 / 2$ of the rated tensile strength of $300 M P a$. When designing the shape of the flexure arms primary targets are;

- keeping the size of the radii large which helps to reduce the the stress that is concentrated in the corners,
- ensuring that the straight sections are as long and wide as possible to maximize and minimize the stiffness along and perpendicular to the axis of motion respectively.

Simulations assuming a homogeneous source material and an outer radius of 36 mm (as per the sizes and material specified in appendix A) give a stiffness along the axis of translation of $0.105 \mathrm{~N} / \mathrm{mm}$, and minimum stiffness perpendicular to the axis of translation of $289 \mathrm{~N} / \mathrm{mm}$.

Also, as the range of travel is limited to $\pm 1 \mathrm{~mm}$, in comparison with the length of the arms which is around 20mm, and there is no plastic deformation over the typical travel range the flexure acts to a good approximation as a linear spring, that is to say that the force becomes

$$
F=-k x
$$

where $k$ is denoted the spring constant and $x$ is the position of the spring relative to its neutral position.

### 3.3 ELECTRICAL STRUCTURE

The electrical structure of the entire system involves with two logical blocks: one being the electronics that deal entirely with the sensor, the other with all the remaining electronics.

(a) Total Von-Mises stress for the flexure assuming a 1 mm displacement along the axis of movement.

(b) Total displacement for the flexure assuming a 1 mm displacement along the axis of movement.

Figure 6: Stress simulation of the flexure illustrating stress levels, total displacement and a 3 D representation of the displacement.


Figure 7: Block diagram of sensor electrics topology, from excitation to output waveform.


Figure 8: Stylized image of a contactless capacitive position sensor using two reference electrodes. The "Sense pickup" block can move relative to the reference blocks, causing the capacitances $C_{B}$ and $C_{A}$ to vary linearly with position, as per equation 2.1.

### 3.3.1 Sensor electrics

The electrics related to the sensor are everything contained in the "sensor" block in figure 2 on page 18. This single block can be expanded into a group of logical sub-blocks, as shown in figure 7. Some important parameters to take into account for the design of the sensor are;
linearity Linearity of the sensor is critical as this is the only source for position measurement. Any nonlinearities over the range of travel will directly translate to nonlinearities in the output position. As described in section 2 certain types of capacitive sensors can be made to have a very linear output, limited primarily by fringing fields.
noise Low noise in the sensor is important, as with the rest of the system, as high noise will result in position inaccuracy.
resolution The sensor must be able to resolve a small enough change in position to be able to achieve the desired performance.

Due to various implementation effects described in section 4 and appendix $B$ an effective sensor design should try to minimize the effects of parameters other than position affecting the output. Figure 3 on page 18 and figure 8 on the preceding page show a solution to this, where two reference electrodes are driven to known voltages and the voltage of a high-impedance sensor electrode is measured. The voltage on the sensor will then be a capacitive voltage division of the two reference electrodes and a function of its position. If the fringe fields are ignored the total capacitance between the pickup electrode and the two reference electrodes is constant (per equation (2.1), the area and separation distance are constant). However the relative capacitance between each electrode, $C_{A}$ and $C_{B}$ will vary linearly with position as the area between the sensor and the reference electrode will vary as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{A} & =A_{0} \alpha \\
A_{B} & =A_{0}(1-\alpha)
\end{aligned}
$$

Choosing a suitable carrier frequency must balance the speed of the amplifier chosen and the impedance level of the capacitive divider. A low frequency will not require as fast an amplifier but will require a reduced load on the sensor electrode. If two square waves 90 degrees out of phase with each other are used as the excitation signal for the two reference cylinders a desirable output similar to figure 9 on the next page is achieved, assuming ideal components and no fringe fields. Two different output waveforms are shown, one corresponding to the sensor being in the center position (output 2) and one at some other position (output 1).

When the two excitation waveforms are of opposite polarity a capacitive voltage division over the sensing surface is achieved, corresponding to the position, whereas when the waveforms are of the same polarity a reference output is achieved.

When both waveforms are of the same polarity $\left(U_{A}=U_{B}\right)$ the voltage on the sensing surface $\left(V_{O u t_{r e f}}\right)$ will become

$$
V_{\text {Out }_{r e f}}=\frac{\frac{1}{j \omega C_{B}}}{\frac{1}{j \omega C_{B}}+\frac{1}{j \omega C_{A}}} \underbrace{\left(U_{A}-U_{B}\right)}_{=0}+U_{B}=U_{B}=U_{A}
$$

where $C_{b}$ and $C_{a}$ are the capacitance between the sensing surface and the drive surfaces A and B respectively. The equation is according to simple voltage division (Nordling and Österman [12]). When the


Figure 9: Input and output waveform for two different positions from capacitive sensor assuming ideal components and no fringe-fields. Output 1 corresponds to the sensor not being in the center of the travel range, whereas Output 2 corresponds to the sensor being in the middle of the travel range.
waveforms are of opposite polarity however the voltage on the sensing surface becomes $V_{\text {Out meas }}$;

$$
\begin{aligned}
V_{\text {Out meas }} & =\frac{\frac{1}{j \omega C_{B}}}{\frac{1}{j \omega C_{B}}+\frac{1}{j \omega C_{A}}}\left(U_{A}-U_{B}\right)+U_{B} \\
& =\frac{\frac{1}{j \omega C_{0}(1-\alpha)}}{\frac{1}{j \omega C_{0}(1-\alpha)}+\frac{1}{j \omega C_{0} \alpha}}\left(U_{A}-U_{B}\right)+U_{B} \\
& =\frac{1-\alpha}{1} U_{A} \\
& =U_{A}(1-\alpha) .
\end{aligned}
$$

This gives a very attractive linear output voltage over position ( $\alpha \in[0,1], \alpha$ corresponds to the position from minimum to maximum), where $V_{\text {Out meas }}$ is denoted the output from the "measurement" phase and $V_{\text {Out }_{\text {ref }}}$ is denoted the output from the "reference" phase. The total output then becomes

$$
V_{\text {Out }}^{t_{\text {tot }}}, ~=\frac{V_{\text {Out meas }}}{V_{\text {Out ref }}}=\frac{U_{A}(1-\alpha)}{U_{A}}=1-\alpha .
$$

The output is preserved without any distortion and independent of the amplitudes of the reference waveforms and the size of the capacitance $C_{0}$, additionally, in the absence of any stray electric fields the output is linear with regards to position of the sensor. This is very desirable behavior as this reduces the effect of other parameters varying causing an output


Figure 10: Effects of stray capacitive coupling and fringe fields on sensor.
voltage change (such as for example a varying gain or attenuation in some stage).

However, the described system does not in any way handle capacitive coupling from the sensor to the rest of the environment. See figure 10 for an illustration of the effects of stray capacitance and fringing fields. Fringing fields will increase the effective capacitance and create a nonlinear term as the increase in capacitance due to the fringing fields will vary depending on the position of the actuator. More importantly, the stray capacitance from the sensor to the rest of the environment is completely uncontrolled. If no method of reducing the stray capacitance is implemented the linearity of the sensor will suffer and any external alternating voltage will directly couple into the sensor giving an erroneous reading.

One method for simultaneously reducing the fringing and stray capacitance effects is to use an active guard, shown in figure 11 on the next page. The pickup electrode is surrounded by an active guard box driven to the same potential as the pickup by an amplifier. As the potentials of the pickup and the guard are the same there are no electric fields between the two, nearly completely removing the stray capacitance from the pickup. The only stray fields must go from the pickup, through the narrow gap between the reference electrode and the guard, and then reach the rest of the environment (Baxter [4]).


Figure 11: Adding an active guard to the capacitive sensor reduces the effects of fringing and stray capacitance.

See section 5.2 for an estimation of the size of the stray capacitances based on measurements from the implemented sensor. Fringing fields are also nearly completely removed if the guard box extends beyond the pickup far enough. The electric field will be practically entirely horizontal, and the only stray fields will be from the guard to the rest of the environment, which has no effect on the pickup voltage.

### 3.3.2 Controller electronics

The electronics in the controller relate everything from decoding the output waveform from the sensor to driving the motor coils. A somewhat more detailed block diagram of the controller electrics is shown in figure 12 on the facing page

The signal propagates as follows;

- A multiplexer splits the signal into four different paths depending on the current waveform state illustrated in figure 9 on page 25. The four possible waveform states, denoted Reference pos, , Position $_{n e g}$, Reference $_{\text {neg }}$, Position $_{\text {pos }}$ (which correspond to $t=$ $(0, \pi / 2), t=(\pi / 2, \pi), t=(\pi, 3 \pi / 2), t=(3 \pi / 2,2 \pi)$ in the figure) are fed into the corresponding sample and hold block, whose output can be viewed as zero-order hold filter (assuming the multiplexer samples signals at $t \leq 0$ and holds at $t>0$ )

$$
V_{\text {Out } s_{s+H}}(t)= \begin{cases}V_{\text {multiplexer }}(t) & t \leq 0 \\ V_{\text {multiplexer }}(0) & t>0\end{cases}
$$

- The output from the sample and hold filter is fed into two ADC's, which are used for measuring the position and reference signals (used for outputting the position to a PC for viewing the data) and a summation block to convert the balanced signal into an unbalanced signal for the controller. A DAC controlled by the microprocessor outputs a setpoint which is subtracted from the current position to give a signal proportional to the error in position.
- The unbalanced signal is fed into an analog linear controller (a proportional integral derivative (PID) controller with several integrators), which outputs a control signal that is proportional to a force to be applied to the actuator in order to bring it to the desired position.
- The output from the controller is fed into a motor driver, which is essentially a high-power transconductance (voltage to current) amplifier. This is desirable as the current through the motor is directly proportional to the resulting force, as per Lenz law (Nordling and Österman [12]).



Figure 13: Block diagram of key parts of the microprocessor structure.

As can be seen from the signal propagation path an error in position must be converted to a desired force in the actuator using the linear controller, i.e. $K_{p}$ will give a constant force in response to an error in position.

### 3.4 SOFTWARE STRUCTURE

A block diagram of the microprocessor structure is shown in figure 13. It performs operations at four different priority levels;
high The most time-critical operations are excitation waveform (the two square-wave reference signals mentioned in subsection 3.3.1) and demodulator control (the sample and hold filter in subsection 3.3.2). This thread is called at specific time intervals and the corresponding output control signals are set to drive the excitation and demodulator control lines.
medium-high (Not shown in block diagram) When a message is received from the external digital hardware connected to the microprocessor (from the ADC's, DAC, USB/RS232 interface) the message
is stored in a first in first out (FIFO) buffer for later use. Additionally, data from the output buffer to the DAC is sent at a certain time interval.
medium At a specific time interval, faster than the sampling speed of the ADC's and the external interface, the buffers are read, data is may be sent to the external interface, and PID controller coefficients may be adjusted. This is the main "heartbeat" of the microprocessor and where much of the data shuffling takes place.

Low This thread is run whenever a higher priority thread is not running, it checks the current button status on the front panel of the controller (used for manually controlling the setpoint etc.), writes data to the LCD data display, checks the temperature of various components, turns cooling fans on and off respectively and controls the system buzzer (used for warnings and other status messages).

Data can be moved around the various parts of the system effectively by performing system operations using these four different priority levels. Note that the microprocessor only has control of the linear controller coefficients, the actual linear PID controller is not implemented in software.

Part IV
IMPLEMENTATION

This section will describe implementation-specific information about each block described in section 3. Drawings, schematics and code are contained in appendices A, B, and C respectively. As many of the aspects briefly touched on in section 3 are first-order approximations an effective implementation must take these approximations into account and attempt to reduce the non-ideal effects that present themselves in a real-world implementation. This section is divided into three primary parts, mechanical, electrical, and software.

### 4.1 MECHANICAL IMPLEMENTATION

### 4.1.1 Actuator mechanical implementation

The mechanical implementation of the actuator is similar to that shown in the section 3 , though with an added supporting structure as can be seen in figure 14 on the next page which is the primary difference compared to the view shown in figure 3 on page 18 .

Figure 15 on page 37 is a photograph of the real-world implementation of the actuator with visible central actuating rod, flexure, supporting structure and dummy payload. Additionally several electrical wires are visible which transfer both power and signals to and from the capacitive sensor and motor. Full drawings of all the parts of the actuator are included in appendix $A$.

### 4.1.2 Controller mechanical implementation

The controller's mechanical implementation is shown in figures 16 on page 38 and 19 on page 43 , which illustrate the user interface and connectors to the actuator, and the PCB's and their functionality respectively.

The front panel houses several connections that go directly to the actuator. These connections transmit power to the motor and sensor electronics, as well as the reference waveforms and the output signal (as specified in section 3.3.1). A BNC input is available for manually driving a setpoint to the controller. Additionally, an LCD display, rotary dial and multi-directional joystick are present for manually controlling system parameters, a USB port is used for external data communication, and a 230 V AC power socket is available on the rear side (not shown).



Figure 15: Photograph of implementation of actuator, with visible central rod, payload, flexure and supporting structure.

### 4.2 ELECTRICAL IMPLEMENTATION

### 4.2.1 Actuator electrical implementation

The implementation of the electrics in the actuator are primarily focused on the sensor previously described and illustrated in figure 8 on page 23. An assumption made was a method of detecting the voltage on the sensing pad without loading it in any way. The sensor must be loaded in some way to measure it, and ideally this load should be as small as possible.

A simple solution is to use a low bias current operational amplifier (OPAMP) in a non-inverting unity gain configuration and a single resistor to ground, which will ensure that the DC level of the output is reasonably close to ground without loading the sensor pad too much. However, this simple solution does not take into account the variance of input capacitance over input voltage range. The input capacitance of a typical metal-oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistor (MOSFET) input OPAMP is on the order of $5-10 p F$ (the amplifier used - OPA827 - has an input capacitance of typically $9 p F$ (Texas Instruments [15])). As this is of the same order of magnitude as the measured capacitance a variation of input capacitance leads to a nonlinear output over position. In order to reduce these effects a multiple-stage setup is used, where the first OPAMP (IC1 in figure 17 on page 39) is enclosed in a Faraday cage driven by the amplifier IC2A to the measured voltage. The supply voltage to $I C 1$ is kept relative to the Faraday cage, so that regardless of the input voltage on the pickup of IC1, all the voltages inside the Faraday cage will be constant (after a transient



Figure 17: Simplified schematic of capacitive sensor, with some component blocks removed.
settling time). This means that all charges inside the Faraday cage (see figure 11 on page 27) will be constant over varying input voltage. The input capacitance to the Faraday cage will then be very close to zero, so nearly no charge flows into the Faraday cage with varying input voltage.

This is a great improvement over the topology shown in Baxter [4], which only drives the negative power supply rail of the amplifier to a constant offset from the measured voltage. The result of this is a significant residual capacitance inside the amplifier from various parts to the positive supply and its internally generated levels. This is in contrast to the chosen implementation which embeds the amplifier entirely inside a Faraday cage, resulting in a nearly constant positive and negative power supply voltage compared to the amplifier.

There are additional components shown in figure 8 on page 23, which perform the following tasks;

- $R 1, R 2, C 1, C 2$ form a filter to ensure that only very low frequency currents go through $R 5$, reducing the effect of the Faraday cage moving up and down in voltage causing an error due to currents in the bias resistor $R 1 . R 2$ and $C 2$ serve to suppress feedback resonance at low frequencies, $C 1$ and $C 2$ decouple the external and internal voltages and preserve the function of the Faraday cage.
- R10, C7 form a lowpass filter to ensure that there is no oscillation between IC1 and IC2A, which may otherwise occur as there are essentially two operational amplifiers connected in feedback (via the stray capacitance from the Faraday cage to the input of IC1). By keeping the bandwidth low enough (slightly below the gain-bandwidth product (GBW) of the amplifiers IC1 and IC2A), stability is ensured.
- R11 stabilizes the output from $I C 2 A$, which may otherwise oscillate or ring due to excessive capacitive loading.
- IC2B, R12 form an output stage to buffer the signal for transmission to the demodulator stage (as shown in figure 12 on page 29).

The motor electrical implementation is relatively simple as it consists of two coils with $500-550$ turns of 0.15 mm copper enamel wire. This gives approximately $4 \Omega$ of DC resistance. A dynamic model is critical in order to design the motor driver, measurements give a coil model and a simulated response as shown in figure 18 on the next page. As can be seen for very low frequencies the impedance is quite low and current is limited solely by the DC resistance. As the frequency increases a more inductive response takes over and the impedance increases significantly. This is valid up to around 1.2 MHz where a relatively lossy resonance between the inductance and inter-winding


Figure 18: Motor coil model and relative impedance.
capacitance occurs and at higher frequencies the inter-winding shunt capacitance takes over, causing a decrease in system impedance.

The force from the motor is limited primarily by the saturation flux of the magnetic conductor around the coils, when it saturates the coils will apply practically no force to the magnet. The point of saturation has been placed slightly above the maximum current through the motor drive board (by adjusting the thickness of the conductor). Note that high currents come at a very steep cost, as the resistive heating power in the coils is

$$
P=R \cdot i^{2}
$$

where $R$ is the resistance of the coil and $i$ is the current. Ie. there is a quadratic increase in developed heat in the coil relative to the current applied (which is proportional to the force). Heat is very detrimental to the performance of the actuator as a change in temperature will result in a significant change in mechanical dimensions.

The dynamic range of the motor is limited by many factors, primarily by the flexure's need to stay within safe strain levels. In the implementation the travel is limited by a hard stop as the locking pin
at the bottom of the actuating rod will reach the top or bottom of a slot in the lower capping plate (see appendix A).

### 4.2.2 Controller electrical implementation

The functionality of the PCB's are marked out in figure 19 on the facing page which correspond roughly to the blocks shown in section 3.3.2. Each PCB's functionality is described in the following sub-subsections with a simplified schematic and a reduced number of components. Components not shown include those not directly in the signal pathway such as temperature sensors, cooling fans, decoupling capacitors, status indicators, electrostatic discharge (ESD)-clamping diodes, power and signal connections and headers and other components. For all full schematics (as well as PCB artwork) see appendix B.

### 4.2.2.1 Power supply

Figure 20 on page 44 illustrates a simplified schematic of the power supply section which generates power rails and reference voltages for all the components. The basic power flow is as follows;

- External 230VAC mains enters in the top block and is clamped by varistors to limit power surges, as well as fuses and an negative temperature coefficient (NTC) resistor to limit the inrush current. This is then connected to a $230 \mathrm{VAC}-2 \times 15 \mathrm{VAC}$ transformer (not shown) with the signals $T W 1-H V$ and $T W 2-H V$ for the primary winding and $T W 1 P, G N D, G N D, T W 2 N$ for the secondary windings respectively.
- This is then rectified using B1, with a snubber network to limit the radio-frequency ( RF ) emissions from diode switching. F3 and $F 4$ are fuses to limit the current in case of a failure.
- The nets $V D D$ and $V S S$ are passed on to the linear regulators $I C 4$ and IC6 that create a $\pm 15 \mathrm{~V}$ output for driving the motor. This supply is capable of supplying $3 A$ of current, deemed to be enough for the motor in the actuator. These nets are also used for generating the +5 V and +2.6 V supplies with IC3 and IC5 used for the microprocessor and related hardware.
- R5,R6,R7,R18,R19,R20 and C3, C4, C5, C6, C10, C11, C12, C13 form a passive RC lowpass network to limit high-frequency signals from passing to the more sensitive power supply sections. The voltage out from this filter is fed to the linear regulators IC1 and IC2 which generate a $\pm 15 \mathrm{~V}$ power supply for all the sensitive analog electronics.
- IC10 is used to generate a highly accurate 4.096 V reference voltage, which is then inverted and amplified with IC7 and IC8

Figure 19: Photograph of internals of controller implementation, with PCB's visible and functionality marked.


Figure 20: Simplified schematic of the power supply block which supplies power rails and reference voltages for all of the other components.
to generate the four reference voltages $\pm V R E F$ and $\pm 2 \cdot V R E F$ used for excitation for the sensor and the DAC respectively. Since all four reference voltages are generated from the same source they are all ratiometric to each other, in other words a slowly changing reference voltage will not cause any change in the measurement (if assuming purely linear components that run off the reference voltage). In any case, the ratiometric references increase the robustness of the system with regards to variations in the reference voltage as small changes in the reference voltages will result in negligible changes in the output, which is $V_{\text {signal }} / V_{\text {reference }}$.
See appendix B for the full schematic and PCB layout which contain more components.

### 4.2.2.2 Excitation

Figure 21 on the following page illustrates a simplified schematic of the excitation generator used for the capacitive sensor's reference electrodes. $+V R E F$ and $-V R E F$ (at $\pm 4.096 V$ ) are reference voltages generated from the power supply board and applied to the reference electrodes in the sensor. IC1 is a pair of complementary analog switches that switch between $+V R E F$ and $-V R E F$ depending on the logic level state of EXC1 and EXC2. R1,R2 and C3,C4 form a passive lowpass circuit to reduce the very highest RF emissions generated by the near-square wave output. Additionally, R1, R2 limit the current flowing out to the sensor, so that a short circuit to ground will not exceed the maximum permissible current through IC1. See appendix B for the full schematic and PCB layout which contain more components.

### 4.2.2.3 Demodulator

Figure 22 on page 47 illustrates a simplified schematic of the demodulator block which demultiplexes and samples the output from the capacitive sensor. The signal waveform sent out from the sensor, described in section 3.3.1 is received at PAD6 and then split into four different paths via IC2 and IC3, which close SW1-4 depending on the waveform state (Sense + ,Sense-,Reference + ,Reference-) which charge C11, C13, C15, C17 through $R 5, R 7, R 8, R 9$ to form a lowpass filter that holds the voltage when $S W 1-4$ are open. (i.e. a sample and hold circuit). IC3, IC5, IC7, IC9 are low input bias current operational amplifiers that serve to load the sample and hold capacitors as little as possible. The output from them is both halved ${ }^{1}$, buffered and sent to the ADC's on the digital board using RN2, RN4 and IC4, IC8 as well as summed (converted to a single-ended signal) using RN1, RN3 and IC1 which is used for the analog linear controller.

[^1]


Figure 22: Simplified schematic of the demodulator block which demultiplexes and samples the output from the capacitive sensor.

See appendix B for the full schematic and PCB layout which contain more components.

### 4.2.2.4 Digital board

Figures 23 on the facing page, 24 on page 50,25 on page 51 illustrate the simplified schematics of the digital block which handles many aspects of the actuator.

Figure 23 on the next page contains IC102, which is the microprocessor that handles many of the system tasks (among others, excitation and demodulator control, reading ADC's and writing to the DAC, transmitting and receiving data over the external interface) and is an Atmel ATxmega128A3, an 8-bit reduced instruction set computing (RISC) microprocessor with integrated random access memory (RAM) and Flash memories, as well as many other silicon peripherals used in the software described in section 4.3 (Atmel [3]). IC101 is an universal asynchronous receiver/transmitter (USART) to RS232 over USB integrated circuit (IC) that allows for communication between the microprocessor and an external computer. Many of the components in the figure are self-explanatory and/or appear directly in the datasheets for the corresponding components, except for D101 which serves to supply power to IC101 even if the power to the РСB is removed, which ensures that the host operating system does not receive a USB connect/disconnect signal on power cycle, which would quickly become enervating when developing the software. IC103 is a serial-in-parallel-out shift register which is used to drive the LCD display for the user interface. This is done as there was a shortage of input/output (I/O) pins on the microprocessor and the LCD does not require a very fast servicing speed.

Figure 24 on page 50 contains the ADC's and DAC which are used for measuring the current position and writing the setpoint for the analog linear controller. Both the connection to the ADC's and DAC follow the datasheets' recommended connections accordingly (Analog devices [1, 2]). Errors in measurement due to quantization noise and INL are kept low by using high-performance ADC's and DAC's. The ADC has a resolution of 24 bits and a dynamic range of 109 dB , the DAC has a resolution of 20 bits and a dynamic range of 120 dB . This corresponds to a worst case position quantization error of 1.9 nm assuming a travel of $\pm 1 \mathrm{~mm}$, which is deemed to be far enough below the any other sources of error in the system.

Figure 25 on page 51 contains all the components for the user interface, which includes an LCD display, a rotary input dial and a joystick for menu navigation. All inputs are debounced ${ }^{2}$ in hardware with an RC circuit and a Schmitt-input logic inverter. IC502 and IC503. As the number of inputs on the microprocessor is limited a

[^2]

Figure 23: Simplified schematic of part of the digital block, this portion contains the microprocessor, USB/RS232 interface and LCD shift register.


Figure 24: Simplified schematic of part of the digital block, this portion contains the ADCs and DAC for reading the current position and setting the linear analog controller's setpoint.


Figure 25: Simplified schematic of part of the digital block, this portion contains all electronics to do with the user interface, such as the LCD display, rotary input dial and joystick.


Figure 26: Simplified schematic of the analog linear controller block which generates the control signal to the motor drive.
parallel-in-serial-out shift register (IC501) is used to reduce the pins needed. Since the buttons only need to be checked relatively seldom this performance penalty is not important.
See appendix B for the full schematic and PCB layout which contain more components.

### 4.2.2.5 Controller

Figure 26 illustrates a simplified schematic of the analog linear controller block which generates the control signal to the motor drive. The input to this block is the summed, single-ended output from the demodulator, the output from the DAC on the digital board and an optional BNC input for external analog setpoint control. The output from this board goes directly to the motor drive. The signal flow from input to output is roughly as follows;

- The setpoint is generated using the top two dashed-line blocks, the left block sums the DAC output and the external analog
setpoint, with a fully differential receiver for the external input in order to remove any ground-loops. The right block limits the slew rate of the signal, if too fast a setpoint change is applied IC103A's output will start D101, D102 conducting, limiting the voltage on R108. This will cause a constant current to travel through R108, leading to a constant current through C104 and a linearly rising/falling ramp out from IC103B. C105 and R111 form a stabilizing network for IC103 to ensure stability, as there is otherwise enough phase delay from the positive feedback from IC103B to cause oscillation. Once the inverting and noninverting inputs of IC103A are at the same voltage the output from IC103A will be zero, causing IC103B to maintain a constant voltage. Note that in the steady-state the output voltage from IC103B will only differ from the input voltage with the offset voltage of IC103A, with the amplifiers chosen this is only $10 \mu \mathrm{~V}$ (Texas Instruments [14]).
- The error (Process variable - Setpoint) is generated in the block titled "Error signal generator", which is simply a summing amplifier connection. The error is fed into each of the linear blocks that correspond to $K_{d}, K_{p}, K_{i}, K_{i i}, K_{i i i}$. Additionally, a testpoint for the error outputs is created with 100 and 1000 gain in the block "Error output". This is used primarily for development purposes to measure the error signal.
- The blocks "Integral control", "Integral^^2 control", "Integral^3 control", "Derivative control", "Proportional control" are the analog circuit implementations of the desired corresponding linear elements. A digital potentiometer, controlled by the microprocessor, can set the gains of each stage. Additionally, there is an analog switch to disable the integrators (IC107) for development purposes.
- The "Summation and output" block sums the output from each of the linear control blocks and outputs a low-impedance output to the motor drive board. There is a switch to disable the output while starting up the system and as a safety if an error state occurs (such as the sensor exceeding the allowed travel range).

Note that there are several lowpass filter stages present, this is to limit the bandwidth, primarily from the derivative output which is particularly sensitive to the process and thermal noise from the previous stages. The bandwidth of the filters must be high enough to give sufficient performance, yet low enough to not feed too much noise through the system.

See appendix B for the full schematic and PCB layout which contain more components, as well as a SPICE simulation of the slew-rate limiting block.

### 4.2.2.6 Motor drive

Figure 27 on the next page illustrates a simplified schematic of one channel of two of the the motor drive board. The input voltage arrives from the controller board, which corresponds to a desired force. This is a high-power transadmittance converter (i.e. voltage to current). The initial voltage divider $R 12, R 15$ scales the output voltage from the controller board to a level suited for the motor drive. The amplifier IC1 is essentially a non-inverting gain configuration. $R 1, R 2$ and $Q 1, T 1$ form a current-boost stage. $R 1$ and $R 2$ are chosen so that the voltage drop across them due to the quiescent current in IC1 causes around a 0.3 V drop over them. If the current output from IC1 rises the voltage drop over $R 1$ or $R 2$ will increase until Q1 or $T 1$ start conducting current. As the transistors are connected in a Darlington manner the current amplification is of the order of 10000, boosting the maximum output current from IC1 greatly. The signals $L O A D_{-} A_{-} P$ and $L O A D \_A \_N$ are connections for the motor. $R 5$ is a low-inductance resistor for measuring the current through the motor. As this is connected to the inverting input of the amplifier the steady-state output of the amplifier is;

$$
I_{o u t}=\frac{V_{i n}}{R 5}
$$

Note the additional components $C 1, C 2, R 4, R 13, C 13, R 3$ are needed to stabilize the amplifier, which would oscillate without them. (C1 and $C 2, R 4$ act as high-frequency shunts to increase the phase margin, R13, C13, R3 lowpass filters the measured current over R5 to reduce noise effects). Additionally, D1, D2, D3, D4, Z1, Z2 are added to reduce the risk of an inductive voltage spike due to the very high inductance of the load and high slew rates applied.
Note that as the load is mostly inductive a step in voltage input would correspond to a step in desired current, which is not possible due to the continuous nature of current in an inductor. This will cause IC1 to rail, feeding a ramping current into the load, until the desired current is achieved.
See appendix B for the full schematic and PCB layout which contain more components, as well as SPICE simulations of a couple of input signal test cases.

### 4.3 SOFTWARE IMPLEMENTATION

See figure 13 on page 30 for a simple overview of the basic functionality of the microprocessor. As was specified in section 4.2.1 the microprocessor handles much of the sensor, it handles the excitation control and the demodulator. Additionally it also must drive the two ADC's and the DAC, adjust the controller gains, drive the user interface and handle external communications.


The microprocessor is a RISC based Harvard architecture 8-bit singlechip microprocessor, more specifically an Atmel ATxmega128a3 (Atmel [3]). The software is written in fairly standard $C$ code and can be found in an unpublished paper distributed alongside this thesis (Lock [11]).

The microprocessor has to handle a great number of functions in pseudo-real-time with varying priorities. The priority list is handled by gratuitous use of interrupts of multiple priorities and an infinite main loop, with the following functions performed;

HIGH The most time-critical operations are excitation waveform (the two square-wave reference signals mentioned in subsection 3.3.1) and demodulator control (the sample and hold filter in subsection 3.3.2). This thread is called at specific time intervals and the corresponding output control signals are set to drive the excitation and demodulator control lines.
medium When a message is received from the external digital hardware connected to the microprocessor (from the ADC's, DAC, USB/RS232 interface) an interrupt is generated and the message is stored in a FIFO buffer for later use. Additionally, data from the output buffer to the DAC is sent at a certain time interval.

Low At a specific time interval, faster than the sampling speed of the ADC's and the external interface, the buffers are read, data may be sent to the external interface, and linear analog controller coefficients may be adjusted. This is the main "heartbeat" of the microprocessor and where much of the data shuffling takes places.

MAIN The main loop is run continuously whenever another interrupt is not running. It checks the current button status on the front panel of the controller (used for manually controlling the setpoint etc.), writes data to the LCD data display, checks the temperature of various components, turns cooling fans on and off respectively and controls the system buzzer (used for warnings and other status messages).

Part V
RESULTS

This section contains all measured parameters of the system. Several scalar parameters were measured as shown in Table 2 on the next page. Parameters more suited to plots are shown in section 5.2. Additionally, several position setpoint waveforms have been generated and tested to evaluate the performance of the system. These waveforms are:
zero A constant (zero) setpoint, for testing the noise level of the system
square A square-wave setpoint, designed to test the effectiveness of the slew-rate limiter
triangle Triangle waveform, this should result in a constant-velocity motion

SINE Sine-wave test signal, offers a smoother function than a triangular waveform
polynomial Several polynomial waveforms, with 0,1 , and 2 continuous derivatives with regards to position to offer various degrees of smoothness

The waveforms are tested at two different amplitudes, one large-scale at a lower speeds and one with a lower amplitude and higher speed. The results of the tests are shown in figures 28 on page 61 through 50 on page 87 in this section with plots of the desired, measured, and error in position velocity and acceleration as well as an occasional enlargement of certain regions. Note that in many of the graphs the actuator seems to exhibit non-causal behavior. This is because the position and setpoint waveforms are time-shifted in post-processing to maximize the cross-correlation to make it easier to view the results.

Table 2: Scalar measured parameters of the system.

| PARAMETER | VALUE |
| :--- | :--- |
| Throw | $+1.159154,-1.030394[\mathrm{~mm}]$ |
| Force (motor, maximum) | $3.36[\mathrm{~N}]$ |
| Capacitive sensor waveform period | $58[\mathrm{ps}]$ |
| Analog linear controller bandwidth | Two poles at $3.5[\mathrm{kHz}]$ |
| ADC sample rate | $1.9531[\mathrm{kHz}]$ |
| DAC sample rate | $2[\mathrm{kHz}]$ |
| RMS error for a zero setpoint | $62[\mathrm{~nm}]$ |
| Motor driver voltage/force relationship | $3.86[\mathrm{~V} / \mathrm{N}]$ |
| Net mass (payload and actuator) | $44[\mathrm{~g}]$ |
| Linear controller coefficients $\left(\mathrm{K}_{d}-\mathrm{K}_{i^{3}}\right)$ | $516,84,441,69,4[$ unitless $]$ |

### 5.1 WAVEFORM TESTS

### 5.1.1 Zero setpoint

Figure 28 on the facing page shows the result of applying a zero setpoint to the controller and measuring the actuator position. As can be seen there is a constant offset of $\approx-150 \mathrm{~nm}$ due do offset voltages in the operational amplifiers and, more importantly, noise in the measured position. Assuming an error of 62 nm gives a system resolution of one part in 32000, roughly 15 bits of resolution, or a system signal to noise ratio (SNR) of $90.2 d B$.
Studying the figure one can see that the noise is primarily of one fundamental frequency with some overtones (speculation on the cause of this in section 6). If these frequencies are ignored or could be removed the noise floor level would become much more flat over frequency and the total noise level would reduced by a factor of roughly 3, which would give an RMS error in the region of 20 nm . This would correspond to a system resolution of one part in 100000, 16.6 bits of resolution, or an SNR of roughly 100 dB .


Figure 28: Zero setpoint, showing the RMS error of 62 nm and a constant offset.

### 5.1.2 Square setpoint

A square-wave waveform illustrates the effect of the slew-rate limiter in the system. Shown in figures 29 on the next page through 32 on page 65 are the position through acceleration of a square-wave trajectory. It is particularly apparent in the large-scale motion that the position of the actuator linearly ramps between the two setpoints, with a slight overshoot primarily due to the slew-rate limiter's overshoot (see figure 82 on page 125). However, the position quickly stabilizes towards the desired value as seen in figure 30 on page 63, with a slight oscillation due to the controller. The plots for velocity and acceleration reveal that a square-wave setpoint results in a commanded velocity and acceleration that are very difficult to achieve, with near deltafunction like velocity and acceleration. This makes it hard to follow a square wave excitation accurately.

(a) Large-scale motion.


(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 29: Position measurement for square wave setpoint.


Figure 30: Enlargement of position measurement for square wave setpoint and large-scale motion.

(a) Large-scale motion.


(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 31: Velocity measurement for square wave setpoint.

(a) Large-scale motion.


(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 32: Acceleration measurement for square wave setpoint.

### 5.1.3 Triangle setpoint

The triangle waveform is a more feasible setpoint waveform, in that it does not result in a requested instantaneous change in position. Figures 33 on the next page through 35 on page 69 show the position through acceleration for a triangle setpoint. As can be seen the error is small except for the regions with discontinuous velocity. Note that as the output to the actuator is a force the output required to drive a hypothetical actuator without any springs or friction would be an impulse at each velocity discontinuity and zero otherwise. The actuator coasts at a constant velocity until the next impulse. The realworld actuator however does have some non-ideal behavior, since the motor must push against the flexure suspension. As the motor force is non-linear for a given current over position this is believed to be the main cause of error in the large-scale motion position plot. The plots of velocity and acceleration clearly show similarities to the piecewise constant velocity and delta-function like acceleration profiles that the ideal actuator without flexure would exhibit.

(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 33: Position measurement for triangle wave setpoint.

(a) Large-scale motion.


(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 34: Velocity measurement for triangle wave setpoint.

(a) Large-scale motion.


(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 35: Acceleration measurement for triangle wave setpoint.

### 5.1.4 Sine setpoint

A sine setpoint waveform is an implementation of a smoother trajectory to follow. Figures 36 on the next page through 38 on page 73 show the position through acceleration of a sine setpoint. Figure 36a on the next page shows the maximum error is reduced compared to the triangular waveform. The anomaly in the error plot in figure $36 a$ on the facing page at time $105-120 \mathrm{~ms}$ is believed to be caused by a mechanical defect, probably friction between the actuating rod and a static part of the actuator, as a similar anomaly can be seen at this position on the other plots (though not as prominently). While the sine waveform is relatively smooth, it is not perfect as the acceleration is discontinuous at the start and end of the waveform, causing much of the error at the start and end of the sine wave path.


(a) Large-scale motion.



RMS error:207.4014 [nm] PSU temp:42.4 [degC] Drive temp:33.1 [degC] Motor temp:28.4 [degC]
(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 36: Position measurement for sine wave setpoint.

(a) Large-scale motion.


(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 37: Velocity measurement for sine wave setpoint.


Figure 38: Acceleration measurement for sine wave setpoint.

### 5.1.5 Polynomial setpoints

The polynomial waveforms are three different waveforms with a varying number of continuous derivatives with respect to position ( 0,1 , or 2). These were created in an attempt to implement a very smooth trajectory that would be easy to follow with a low error.

The three polynomials used are defined as

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_{2}(t) & =a_{4} t^{4}+a_{3} t^{3}+a_{2} t^{2}+a_{1} t \\
p_{1}(t) & =k_{1} \dot{p_{2}}(t) \\
p_{0}(t) & =k_{0} \ddot{p_{2}}(t)
\end{aligned}
$$

such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_{2}(0) & =p_{2}(T)=0 \\
\dot{p_{2}}(0) & =\dot{p_{2}}(T)=0 \\
\ddot{p_{2}}(0) & =\ddot{p_{2}}(T)=0 \\
\max \left(p_{2}(t)\right)_{0}^{T} & =A \\
\max \left(p_{1}(t)\right)_{0}^{T} & =A \\
\max \left(p_{0}(t)\right)_{0}^{T} & =A .
\end{aligned}
$$

In other words, polynomial $2\left(p_{2}(t)\right)$ is defined to have some maximum amplitude $A \neq 0$ and have zero position, velocity and acceleration and time $t=0$ and $t=T$. Polynomials 1 and $o\left(p_{1}(t), p_{0}(t)\right.$ respectively) are generated from polynomial 2 and are scaled after the derivation operator to have an equal amplitude by setting $k_{1}$ and $k_{0}$ respectively.

Figure 48a on page 85 shows the result of tracking a polynomial of form $p_{2}(t)$. Note that this waveform results in twice as far a traveled motion as compared to the previous trajectories (as the previous trajectories traveled over a range $[0, x]$, whereas this trajectory spans $[-x, x])$, meaning that the error shown should be halved. If this is done then the maximum error is roughly $70 \%$ of the sine-wave trajectory. There is an anomaly at the same location analogous to the sine-wave trajectory, justifying the possibility that friction causes the error.

### 5.1.5.1 Polynomial o setpoint, no clipping

Figures 39 on the facing page through 41 on page 77 show the results of tracking a polynomial without any continuous velocity or acceleration and without significant setpoint limiting.


Figure 39: Position measurement for polynomial o wave setpoint.



(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 40: Velocity measurement for polynomial o wave setpoint.


(a) Large-scale motion.


(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 41: Acceleration measurement for polynomial o wave setpoint.

### 5.1.5.2 Polynomial o setpoint, clipping

Figures 42 through 44 on the next page show the results of tracking a polynomial without any continuous velocity or acceleration with significant setpoint limiting. Figure 43 on the facing page in particular shows the effect that the slew-rate limiter has on the trajectory, as the magnitude of the velocity is clearly clamped to a maximum value. Note that the transition from clamped velocity to tracking the set velocity is not instantaneous. There is some time required to switch from the clamped velocity to following the waveform again.


Figure 42: Position measurement for polynomial o wave setpoint, clipping, large scale motion.


Figure 43: Velocity measurement for polynomial o wave setpoint, clipping, large scale motion.


Figure 44: Acceleration measurement for polynomial o wave setpoint, clipping, large scale motion.
5.1.5.3 Polynomial 1 setpoint

Figures 45 on the next page through 47 on page 83 show the position through acceleration accuracy of tracking a polynomial with continuous velocity but discontinuous acceleration. As can be seen the discontinuous acceleration causes much of the inaccuracy in the waveform tracking.

(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 45: Position measurement for polynomial 1 wave setpoint.



(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 46: Velocity measurement for polynomial I wave setpoint.

(a) Large-scale motion.


(b) Small-scale motion.

Figure 47: Acceleration measurement for polynomial I wave setpoint.

### 5.1.5.4 Polynomial 2 setpoint

Figures 48 on the next page through 50 on page 87 show the results of tracking a polynomial with continuous acceleration. This waveform is designed to be very smooth, which will improve the ease of following the trajectory. As can be seen the worst-case error is roughly $70 \%$ of the maximum error of the sine waveform, when taking into account the doubled waveform amplitude, which lends credence to the possibility of the waveform being possible to follow with a reduced maximum error.


Figure 48: Position measurement for polynomial 2 wave setpoint.


Figure 49: Velocity measurement for polynomial 2 wave setpoint.


Figure 50: Acceleration measurement for polynomial 2 wave setpoint.


Figure 51: Open loop bode diagram of the system transfer function (measured at the motor drive interface). Sampled frequencies marked with a dot. The transfer function is $V_{\text {out }} / V_{\text {in }}$.

### 5.2 SYSTEM CHARACTERIZATION

Figure 51 shows the results of a manual measurement of the open-loop bode diagram, where the input is sent to the motor driver and the output is measured at the node from the linear controller's output. The transfer function used is defined as

$$
H=V_{\text {out }} / V_{\text {in }}
$$

shows an expected response. At low frequencies the excursion for a given force is nearly constant. This excursion then increases and reaches a maximum roughly at 55 Hz , which is the resonance frequency of the moving mass and the flexure suspension. Afterwards the excursion decreases at $40 \mathrm{~dB} /$ decade. Note that the phase jumps roughly 180 degrees after the resonance as expected.

Figure 52 on the facing page illustrates the measured system stiffness over frequency, where stiffness is defined as the force required to move the payload a certain distance, in this case with the unit $[\mathrm{N} / \mathrm{nm}]$. The disturbance force is simulated by adding a signal to the motor drive (i.e. the net signal to the motor drive board is $V_{\text {motor drive }}=$ $\left.V_{\text {linear controller }}+V_{\text {equivalent disturbance force }}\right)$. As the motor drive generates


Figure 52: Measured system stiffness over frequency. Sampled frequencies marked with a dot.
a force in the motor proportional to the input voltage this will be equivalent to a disturbance force on the payload ${ }^{1}$.

This also shows the expected behavior of a very high stiffness at low frequencies (from the integrators in the linear controller). This stiffness decreases with increasing frequency (as the effect from the integrators decreases) and reaches a minimum at 50 Hz , after which it slowly increases due to the payload mass acting as an inertial damper.

Figure 53 on the next page shows the capacitive sensor INL (that is to say, the maximum total deviation from a linear response) which is limited to $8.5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in the range of $\pm 1 \mathrm{~mm}$. This is equivalent to a maximum error of $0.425 \%$. As can be seen in the figure the error very quickly increases when the actuator moves beyond 1 mm and -1.2 mm . This is likely due to fringing fields from the excitation rings no longer being negligible and spilling over onto the guard rings. If a larger travel was desired a longer pickup ring and/or a smaller airgap would have to be used. This is the primarily limitation of the useful dynamic range of the sensor, even though the sensor can move much further the nonlinearity makes it next to useless for larger travel ranges. The INL of the sensor was measured by manually driving the payload to several known positions with a micrometer screw and comparing the set position to the reported position.

[^3]

Figure 53: Capacitive sensor INL over position.

Assuming all the nonlinearity of the sensor is due to the stray capacitance from the sensor to the ambient environment (which neglects factors such as the actuator's radial motion over the travel range as well as nonidealities in the driven Faraday shield) gives an upper bound to the stray capacitance in the sensor. Thus, $C_{\text {stray }} \leq$ $\max (|\operatorname{INL}(x)|) \cdot C_{\text {meas-drive }}$ where $\operatorname{INL}(x)$ is the INL for a certain position and $C_{\text {meas-drive }}$ is the capacitance between the measurement and drive cylinders respectively. Assuming a simple model for $C_{\text {meas-drive }}$ would be a cylindrical capacitance model (Nordling and Österman [12], Cheng [7]) which would result in a nominal capacitance of

$$
C_{\text {meas-drive }}=\frac{2 \pi \varepsilon_{0} \varepsilon_{r} l}{\ln \left(\frac{d_{\text {onter }}}{d_{\text {inner }}}\right)}
$$

where $l$ is the length of the outer and inner cylinders, $d_{\text {outer }}$ is the diameter of the outer cylinder and $d_{\text {inner }}$ is the diameter of the inner cylinder. Inserting the values of the parts used as shown in appendix A gives $C_{\text {meas-drive }}=1.55 p F$. This gives an upper bound to the stray capacitance

$$
C_{\text {stray }} \leq 6.5 f F
$$

Table 3 shows a comparison of the developed system and several existing solutions. As can be seen the dynamic range of the current system is very similar to that available in existing commercial systems, and with proposed changes could exceed the range of existing solutions. Additionally, the actuator travel/length ratio far exceeds that of

|  | PARAMETER | DEVELOPED SYSTEM | EXISTING SYSTEM 1 [13] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| EXISTING SYSTEM 2 [16] |  |  |  |
| Actuator type | Magnetic, closed loop | Piezoelectric, closed loop | Piezoelectric, closed loop |
| Travel | $2000 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ | $45 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ | $17 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ |
| Resolution | 62 nm now, $\approx 100000$ with improved flexure | 0.9 nm | 0.68 nm |
| Dynamic range (Travel / Resolution) | 32000 now, $\approx 100000$ with improved flexure | 50000 | 25000 |
| Actuator travel/length ratio (travel /length 1000$)$ | 40 | 0.66 | 0.85 |

Table 3: Comparison of developed system and existing solutions.
a piezoelectric system, allowing the use of the developed actuator in space-critical applications.

Part VI
CONCLUSION

There are several possible amendments to the actuator that have not been implemented due to scope constraints. This section lists a few of these and the impact they may have on the performance of the system.
rms error As described in section 5 the RMS error consists largely of a certain frequency and its harmonics. Had these been removed the RMS error would be reduced by roughly a factor of three. It is believed that these frequencies arise from resonance in the flexure suspension (the four small arms in figure 6 on page 22), as simulations have shown that they have the same fundamental frequency. As the flexures are constructed from a homogeneous sheet of metal the Q factor of the resonance is very high and acts as an unobservable state to the controller. The unobservable state couples effectively into the actuator rod leading to the observed noise exhibiting a non-flat shape. Could these resonances be reduced in magnitude the total system noise would be greatly reduced and closer to white flat noise. One method of doing this would be to coat them in a highly viscous material that would dampen the resonances.
tracking error The tracking error shown in the waveform plots in section 5 could be improved in many ways, such as improving the linearity of the motor, increasing the system bandwidth, or reducing the flexure's stiffness along the axis of motion.
bandwidth Increasing the bandwidth of the system would (in the absence of noise) result in an increase in stiffness performance. This is because raising the total system bandwidth would allow raising the crossover frequencies for the various linear controller coefficients $K_{d}-K_{i 3}$. Increasing the crossover frequencies for the integrators will result in a increase of gain when in a region dominated by the integrators. However this is a system trade-off, since increasing the system bandwidth also increases the amount of noise. Additionally, the design could be changed to reduce the noise (for example by reducing the thermal noise from resistors by decreasing their resistance).
int The INL of the system can be improved by redesigning the capacitive sensor, which is believed to cause most of the nonlinearity. This is because the sensor functions outside of the control loop, a nonlinearity in the sensor will cause an incorrect process variable to be output (in contrast to the motor, where a nonlinearity
will be compensated by the control loop). The nonlinearity is believed to primarily be caused by stray fields in the sensor, so decreasing the air gap and/or increasing the length of the guard rings would improve the linearity.

SIZE The actuator size can be reduced greatly. The selected size was chosen for ease of construction, however the size can be reduced without any geometric limitations intrinsic to the sensor and motor design chosen.
digital implementation A controller that performs more functions in the digital domain could be implemented to reduce the cost and size of the controller. One way of doing this is to use a high-speed ADC to directly sample the output from the capacitive sensor and perform demodulation and implement the linear controller in the digital domain. This would require far more processing power than was currently available with the current implementation, though a field-programmable gate array (FPGA) may be more suited to perform such a task. This would also allow for ease of dynamically changing the controller coefficients based on the current system parameters, and possibly a controller that is more of an optimal controller rather than a linear controller.
slew-rate limiter The current slew-rate limiter clamps the velocity of the actuator. A more ideal way to control the signal slew-rate would be to limit the acceleration, which corresponds to the control signal to the motor driver. This would result in quicker motion when approaching the system power limits. (For example, in figure $32 a$ on page 65 the output voltage to the motor is zero for a large portion of the time, whereas an ideal controller would apply maximum positive power for half of the time, and negative maximum power for the other half).

FRICTION As was seen in some of the plots in section 5.1.4 an unexpected anomaly is visible at one position which is believed to be caused by friction between the moving and static parts of the actuator. This is definitely not desired, as it causes very large changes in the linear model of the system and may possibly lead to system instability. This is can be rectified by assembling the actuator correctly and/or increasing the gap between the moving and non-moving parts.

TRAVEL By changing the geometry of the actuator and reducing the travel the resolution will be increased (as a change in position will cause an increased change in output voltage from the sensor). This could lead to developments with an actuator capable of nanometer-level resolution with a travel range of hundreds of microns.

A new type of precision linear actuator was developed and tested that shows promise and with a few improvements may achieve an SNR of 100 dB . The use of a magnetic drive reduces the hysteresis normally seen in a piezoelectric actuator, though at the cost of active control to maintain a desired position. The range of travel available greatly exceeds that of direct-drive piezoelectric actuators and manages to maintain a high stiffness at low frequencies ( $4 m N / n m, f=10 \mathrm{~Hz}$ ) and a high closed-loop bandwidth $(3.5 \mathrm{kHz})$. Several test waveforms have been evaluated that show the ability of the system to follow a varying setpoint as specified from a host computer, the results of which show a typical maximum error of roughly $2 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ for a $500 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ signal amplitude, which rapidly decreases over time to several hundred nanometers. The steady state RMS noise level is 62 nm and proposed changes may achieve approximately 20 nm . Additionally, reducing the range of travel would increase the resolution by a roughly equal factor, leading to the possibility of nanometer accurate actuators with a range of travel in the range of hundreds of micrometers.

This new type of actuator shows great promise for future development and may be useful for optics labs in a large range of situations. As has been shown the system has favorable dynamic range as compared with existing solutions, offers a travel/size ratio far exceeding that of a direct-drive piezoelectric system and may be scaled down in travel length to offer similar accuracy to that of a piezoelectric actuator with a far smaller footprint and comparable, if not better, dynamic range.
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## COLOPHON

This thesis was typeset with $\mathrm{ETEX}_{\mathrm{E}} 2_{\varepsilon}$ using Hermann Zapf's Palatino and Euler type faces (Type 1 PostScript fonts URW Palladio L and FPL were used). The listings are typeset in Bera Mono, originally developed by Bitstream, Inc. as "Bitstream Vera". (Type 1 PostScript fonts were made available by Malte Rosenau and Ulrich Dirr.)

The typographic style was inspired by Bringhurst as presented in The Elements of Typographic Style [6]. It is available for $\mathrm{EAT}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{X}$ via CTAN as "classicthesis".

The graphic on the cover is a rattlesnake with a suspended mirror, alluding to a device driving a moving payload quickly. The graphic was hand drawn by Andreas Henriksson and later vectorized by Anton Landberg.

Block diagrams were created with Dia o.97.1, electrical schematics and board files with Eagle 5.10.0, mechanical CAD using Solidworks 2009, and plots with Matlab 2010A. All of the development except for mechanical CAD was done on a Linux install, using mostly opensource applications.

Final Version as of September 6, 2011 at 18:28.

Part VII
APPENDIX

## MECHANICS

This section contains all drawings of all parts used for the mechanical parts of the actuator as well as an assembled cross section view.

Figures 54 through 73 on page 115 show all individual parts used to assemble the actuator. Figure 74 on page 116 is a colored cross section three-dimensional view of the assembled actuator and figure 75 on page 117 is a similar crosshatched cross section view with callouts to each individual part in the assembly.
A. 1 INDIVIDUAL PARTS


Figure 54: Holds the motor assembly and conducts heat to the outside of the actuator. Constructed from 6061-T6 aluminum.


Figure 55: Covers the bottom of the actuator, limits the throw range of the actuator should an error occur. Constructed from 6061-T6 aluminum.


Figure 56: Excitation ring for the capacitive sensor. Constructed from brass.


Figure 57: Top of Faraday cage around sensor. Constructed from PCB laminate (FR4 with $35 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ copper and tin plating).


Figure 58: Side of Faraday cage around sensor. Constructed from PCB laminate (FR4 with $35 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ copper and tin plating).


Figure 59: Guard ring for capacitive sensor. Constructed from brass.


Figure 60: Electrical isolation for excitation rings for capacitive sensor from actuating rod. Constructed from kapton film.


Figure 61: Capacitive sensor sensing ring. Constructed from brass.


Figure 62: Placeholder for capacitive sensor PCB, see appendix B for actual shape of PCB.


Figure 63: Placeholder for coil used in motor. Constructed from 0.15 mm copper enamel wire, with approximately 550 turns.


Figure 64: Magnetic flux conductor for motor. Constructed from iron powder toroid, of type Amidon T400A-26.


Figure 65: Magnetic flux conductor for motor. Constructed from iron powder toroid, of type Amidon T400A-26.


Figure 66: Flexure used for suspension of moving parts of actuator. Constructed from AISI-301 hardened stainless steel.


Figure 67: Magnet used for generating force on the actuator. Constructed from N35 Neodymium rare-earth magnet, of type N-o221-1 from Svenska Magnetfabriken AB. This magnet has a specification of $B_{r}=1.19 \pm 0.02[T]$ and $i H_{C}>955[k A / m]$.


Figure 68: Outer ring for holding together actuator. Constructed from 6061T6 aluminum.


Figure 69: Outer ring for holding together actuator. Constructed from 6061T6 aluminum.


Figure 70: Outer ring for holding together actuator. Constructed from 6061T6 aluminum.


Figure 71: Isolation ring for electrically isolating the flexures from the rest of the actuator. Constructed from FR4 laminate.


Figure 72: Lock-pin used to limit the throw of the actuator. Constructed from mild steel.


Figure 73: Central actuating rod for transmitting force. Constructed from brass.


Figure 74: Assembled, colored, cross section view of actuator.


Figure 75: Assembled crosshatched cross section view with callouts for part names.

## ELECTRICAL

This section contains electrical schematics, SPICE simulations, PCB artwork and part lists for all circuits in the implemented actuator, as well as an errata where applicable.

## B. 1 CAPACITIVE SENSOR

All schematics, SPICE simulations, PCB artwork, part lists and an errata follow.


Figure 76: Schematic for capacitive sensor.


Figure 77: Top layer of PCB for capacitive sensor. Multiple layers of PCB are stacked to build the Faraday cage surrounding the sensitive electronics.


Figure 78: Bottom layer of PCB for capacitive sensor. Multiple layers of PCB are stacked to build the Faraday cage surrounding the sensitive electronics.

| AFFECTED COMPONENT | DESCRIPTION | WORKAROUND |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Z1, Z2, Z3, Z4 | Footprint for LM431 used | Flip LMV431 upside down, |
| $I C 2$ | Power-pad on component | Solder thin copper tape to IC, |
|  | not taken into account | electrically connect to correct lead, <br> isolate with kapton film and mount |

Table 4: Errata for capacitive sensor PCB and schematic.

| 1 | Partlist |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Exported from capsense.sch at 7/3/11 1:17 PM |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | EAGLE Version 5.10.0 Copyright (c) 1988-2010 CadSoft |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Part | Value | Device | Package | Library | Sheet |
|  | C1 | $1 u$ | C-EUC0603 | C0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C2 | 100n | C-EUC0603 | C0603 | rcl | 1 |
| 11 | C3 | 10u | C-EUC0603 | C0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C4 | 10u | C-EUC0603 | C0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C5 | 10u | C-EUC0603 | C0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C6 | 10u | C-EUC0603 | C0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C7 | 10p7 (ADJUST!) | C-EUC0603 | C0603 | rcl | 1 |
| 6 | C8 | 10u | C-EUC0603 | C0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C9 | 10u | C-EUC0603 | C0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | IC1 | OPA827AID | OPA134U | S008 | burr-brown | 1 |
|  | IC2 | OPA2211AIDDA | OPA2134U | S008 | burr-brown | 1 |
|  | PAD1 |  | SMD2 | SMD1,27-2,54 | wirepad | 1 |
| 21 | PAD2 |  | SMD2 | SMD1,27-2,54 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD3 |  | SMD2 | SMD1,27-2,54 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | Q1 | BC860C | BC857ALT1SMD | SOT23-BEC | transistor-pnp | 1 |
|  | Q2 | BC860C | BC857ALT1SMD | SOT23-BEC | transistor-pnp | 1 |
|  | R1 | 10MEG | R-EU_R0805 | R0805 | rcl | 1 |
| 26 | R2 | 10k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R3 | 360R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R4 | 360R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R5 | 33k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R6 | 1 k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
| 31 | R7 | 450R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R8 | 450R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R9 | 1 k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R10 | 330R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R11 | 100R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
| 36 | R12 | 50R | R-EU_R1206 | R1206 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R13 | 130R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R14 | 130R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R15 | 10k | R-EU_R0402 | R0402 | rcl | 1 |
|  | T1 | BC850 | BC850 | SOT23 | transistor | 1 |
| 41 | T2 | BC850 | BC850 | SOT23 | transistor | 1 |
|  | TP1 | TPPAD1-13 | TPPAD1-13 | P1-13 | testpad | 1 |
|  | X2 | 53047-03 | 53047-03 | 53047-03 | con-molex | 1 |
|  | Z1 | LMV431AIMF | LM431 | SOT-23 | LM431 | 1 |
|  | Z2 | LMV431AIMF | LM431 | SOT-23 | LM431 | 1 |
| 46 | Z3 | LMV431AIMF | LM431 | SOT-23 | LM431 | 1 |
|  | Z4 | LMV431AIMF | LM431 | SOT-23 | LM431 | 1 |

## B. 2 CONTROLLER

All schematics, PCB artwork, part lists and an errata follow.
Figures 81 on page 125,82 on page 125 and 83 on page 126 illustrate the simulated performance of the slew-rate limiter. As can be seen in the figure the step response exhibits some overshoot, but it is quickly damped. Also note that in figure 82 the output rises linearly for the first $\sim 1.1 \mathrm{~ms}$ (constant derivative), and the output is clamped to a range, that is to say the output is Lipschitz continuous with, assuming the values as shown, a Lipschitz constant of $K \approx 95[V / \mu s]$. This value is adjustable by changing the values of $C 2, C 3, R 4$. Additionally, also note the ramp response and error signal, the error for a ramp input approaches zero as time grows, IE. the output from the slew-rate limiter exactly matches any linear input.


Figure 79: Schematic sheet 1 for controller.


Figure 8o: Schematic sheet 2 for controller.

include OPA277.mod
tran 0 10m 0
.param R 200k
Figure 81: SPICE schematic for slew rate limiter.


Figure 82: SPICE ramp response and time derivative of ramp response ( $\frac{d}{d t} V_{\text {out }}$ ) for slew rate limiter.


Figure 83: SPICE ramp response for slew rate limiter.


Figure 84: Top layer of PCB for controller.


Figure 85: Bottom layer of PCB for controller.

| AFFECTED COMPONENT | DESCRIPTION | WORKAROUND |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| TP112 | Incorrect connection | Break trace, connect to other side |
| of C113 |  |  |
| R113 |  | Place 450p in parallel |
|  | missing |  |

Table 5: Errata for controller PCB and schematic.



|  | R124 | 100k_0P1 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 113 | R125 | 100k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R126 | 10k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R127 | 100k | TRIMLEU-S63P | S63P | pot | 1 |
|  | R128 | 10k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R129 | 10k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
| 118 | R130 | 10k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R131 | 100k | TRIM EU-S63P | S63P | pot | 1 |
|  | R132 | 150R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R133 | 10k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R134 | 100k | TRIMLEU-S63P | S63P | pot | 1 |
| 123 | R135 | 10k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R136 | 10k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R137 | 100k | TRIM EU-S63P | S63P | pot | 1 |
|  | R138 | 1 k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R139 | 10k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
| 128 | R201 | 4k7 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
|  | R202 | 4k7 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
|  | R203 | 47R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
|  | R204 | 4k7 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
|  | R205 | 2k2 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
| 133 | R206 | 2k2 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
|  | R207 | 2k2 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
|  | R208 | 2k2 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
|  | R209 | 2k2 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
|  | R210 | 2k2 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
| 138 | R211 | 2k2 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
|  | R212 | 2k2 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
|  | R213 | 2k2 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
|  | R214 | 2k2 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 2 |
|  | SW101 | 2MS1T2B2M7RE | 2MS1T2B2M7RE | 2MS1T2B2M7RE | 2MS1T2B2M7RE | 1 |
| 143 | TP101 | GND_1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
|  | TP102 | GND_1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
|  | TP103 | SETPOINT_SR_LIMITED_1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
|  | TP104 | 1k_ERROR_1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
|  | TP105 | GND_1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
| 148 | TP106 | 100_GAIN_1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
|  | TP107 | GND_1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
|  | TP108 | INTEGRAL 1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
|  | TP109 | CONTROL_OUTPUT_1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
|  | TP110 | INTEGRAL^2_1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
| 153 | TP111 | DERIVATIVE_1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
|  | TP112 | INTEGRAL^3_1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
|  | TP113 | PROPORTIONAL_1573280 | PTR1TP20R | TP20R | testpad | 1 |
|  | X101 | 1020957 | 1-227161-2 | AMP_227161 | con-coax | 1 |
|  | X201 | PWR_IN_1793678 | AK500/5 | AK500/5 | con-ptr500 | 2 |
| 158 | Z101 | SMCJ18CA | TVS_ZENER_BI | SMC | zener_smc | 1 |
|  | Z102 | SMCJ5.0CA | TVS_ZENER_BI | SMC | zener_smc | 1 |

## B. 3 DEMODULATOR

All schematics, PCB artwork, part lists and an errata follow.


Figure 86: Schematic for demodulator.


Figure 87: Top layer of PCB for demodulator.


Figure 88: Bottom layer of РСВ for demodulator.

| AFFECTED COMPONENT | DESCRIPTION | WORKAROUND |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| IC6 | Ground should go to DGND | None, fix board layout |
| IC1 | No lowpass filtering done | Place 4.5n over pins 1-2,3-GND, |
|  |  | $6-7,5-\mathrm{GND}$ |

Table 6: Errata for demodulator PCB and schematic.

| 1 | Partlist |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Exported from demodulator.sch at 7/3/11 1:17 PM |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | EAGLE Version 5.10.0 Copyright (c) 1988-2010 CadSoft |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Part | Value | Device | Package | Library | Sheet |
|  | C1 | $1 \mathrm{u} / \mathrm{dnm}$ | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C2 | 10u_25v | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |
| 1 | C3 | 10u_25V | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C4 | 10u_25V | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C5 | 100u | CPOL-EUE5-8.5 | E5-8,5 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C6 | 10u_25V | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C7 | 10u_25V | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |


| 16 | C8 | 10u_25V | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | C9 | 100u | CPOL-EUE5-8.5 | E5-8,5 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C10 | $1 \mathrm{l} / \mathrm{dnm}$ | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C11 | DNM | C-EU150-054X183 | C150-054X183 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C12 | $33 n$ | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
| 21 | C13 | DNM | C-EU150-054X183 | C150-054X183 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C14 | 33n | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C15 | DNM | C-EU150-054X183 | C150-054X183 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C16 | 33 n | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C17 | DNM | C-EU150-054X183 | C150-054X183 | rcl | 1 |
| 26 | C18 | $33 n$ | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | D1 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
|  | D2 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
|  | D3 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
|  | D4 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
| 31 | D5 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
|  | D6 | BAV199 | BAV199 | S0T23 | diode | 1 |
|  | D7 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
|  | IC1 | OPA2277 | OPA2134U | S008 | burr-brown | 1 |
|  | IC2 | ADG1221 | ADG1221 | MSOP10 | ADG1221 | 1 |
| 36 | IC3 | OPA277 | OPA134U | S008 | burr-brown | 1 |
|  | IC4 | OPA2277 | OPA2134U | S008 | burr-brown | 1 |
|  | IC5 | OPA277 | OPA134U | S008 | burr-brown | 1 |
|  | IC6 | ADG1221 | ADG1221 | MSOP10 | ADG1221 | 1 |
|  | IC7 | OPA277 | OPA134U | S008 | burr-brown | 1 |
| 41 | IC8 | OPA2277 | OPA2134U | S008 | burr-brown | 1 |
|  | IC9 | OPA277 | OPA134U | S008 | burr-brown | 1 |
|  | LED1 | POK+ | LEDSMT1206 | 1206 | led | 1 |
|  | LED2 | POK- | LEDSMT1206 | 1206 | led | 1 |
|  | PAD1 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
| 46 | PAD2 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD3 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD4 | GND IN | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD5 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD6 | SIG_IN | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
| 51 | PAD7 | GND IN | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD8 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD9 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD10 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD11 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
| 56 | PAD12 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD13 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD14 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD15 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD16 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
| 61 | PAD17 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD18 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD19 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD20 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD21 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
| 66 | R1 | 100R/dnm | R-EU_R0805 | R0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R2 | 10k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R3 | 10k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R4 | 0R | R-EU_R0805 | R0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R5 | 200R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
| 71 | R6 | 10MEG/optional | R-EU_R0805 | R0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R7 | 200R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R8 | 200R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R9 | 200R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | RN1 | 10k | 4R-NCAT16 | CAT16 | resistor-dil | 1 |
| 76 | RN2 | 10k | 4R-NCAT16 | CAT16 | resistor-dil | 1 |
|  | RN3 | 10k | 4R-NCAT16 | CAT16 | resistor-dil | 1 |
|  | RN4 | 10k | 4R-NCAT16 | CAT16 | resistor-dil | 1 |
|  | X1 | IO | AK500/10 | AK500/10 | con-ptr500 | 1 |

## B. 4 DIGITAL BOARD

All schematics, PCB artwork, part lists and an errata follow.


Figure 89: Schematic for sheet 2 of digital board.


Figure 90: Schematic for sheet 3 of digital board.


Figure 91: Schematic for sheet 1 of digital board.


Figure 92: Schematic for sheet 4 of digital board.


Figure 93: Schematic for sheet 5 of digital board.


Figure 94: Top layer of РСВ for digital board.


Figure 95: Bottom layer of PCB for digital board.


Table 7: Errata for digital board PCB and schematic.


|  | C113 | 10u |  | C-EUC1206 | C1206 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | rcl | 1 |  |
|  | C114 | 1 u |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 1 |  |
| 26 | C115 | 10p |  | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 1 |  |
|  | C116 | 10p |  | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 1 |  |
|  | C301 | 10u |  | C-EUC1206 | C1206 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 3 |  |
|  | C302 | 10u |  | C-EUC1206 | C1206 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 3 |  |
|  | C303 | 1 u |  | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 3 |  |
| 31 | C401 | 47p |  | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C402 | 8p2 |  | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C403 | 56p |  | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C404 | 10u |  | C-EUC1206 | C1206 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C405 | 47p |  | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
| 36 | C406 | 14 |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C407 | 1 u |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C408 | 1 u |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C409 | 1 u |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C410 | 1 u |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
| 4 | C411 | 1 u |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C412 | 47p |  | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C413 | 8p2 |  | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C414 | 56p |  | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C415 | 10u |  | C-EUC1206 | C1206 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
| 46 | C416 | 47p |  | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C417 | 1 u |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C418 | 1 u |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C419 | 14 |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C420 | 14 |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
| 5 | C421 | 1 u |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C422 | $1 u$ |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C423 | 10u |  | C-EUC1206 | C1206 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C424 | 10u |  | C-EUC1206 | C1206 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C425 | 14 |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
| 56 | C426 | 14 |  | C-EUC0603 | C0603 |
|  |  |  | rcl | 4 |  |


|  | C427 | 10p | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C428 | 100u | CPOL-EUE5-8.5 | E5-8,5 |
|  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C429 | 10u | C-EUC1206 | C1206 |
|  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C430 | 100u | CPOL-EUE5-8.5 | E5-8,5 |
|  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
| 61 | C431 | 10u | C-EUC1206 | C1206 |
|  |  | rcl | 4 |  |
|  | C501 | 10u | C-EUC1206 | C1206 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | C502 | 10u | C-EUC1206 | C1206 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | C503 | 100u | CPOL-EUE5-8.5 | E5-8,5 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | C504 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
| 66 | C505 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | C506 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | C507 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | C508 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | C509 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
| 71 | C510 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | C511 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | D1 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 |
|  |  | diode | 4 |  |
|  | D2 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 |
|  |  | diode | 4 |  |
|  | D101 | BAS40-05 | BAS40-05 | SOT23 |
|  |  | diode | 1 |  |
| 76 | D301 | BAS70 | BAS70 | SOT23 |
|  |  | diode | 3 |  |
|  | D302 | BAS70 | BAS70 | S0T23 |
|  |  | diode | 3 |  |
|  | D401 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 |
|  |  | diode | 4 |  |
|  | D402 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 |
|  |  | diode | 4 |  |
|  | D403 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 |
|  |  | diode | 4 |  |
| 81 | D404 | BAV199 | BAV199 | S0T23 |
|  |  | diode | 4 |  |
|  | D405 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 |
|  |  | diode | 4 |  |
|  | D406 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 |
|  |  | diode | 4 |  |
|  | D407 | BAV199 | BAV199 | S0T23 |
|  |  | diode | 4 |  |
|  | DISP501 | 1847941 | 16X2_LCD | LCD16X2 |
|  |  | $16 \times 2$ l lcd | 5 |  |
| 86 | IC101 | FT232RLSSOP | FT232RLSSOP | SSOP28DB |
|  |  | SparkFun | 1 |  |
|  | IC102 | AVR_XMEGA_A3_ xmega | AVR XMEGA_A3 1 | TQFP64 |
|  | IC103 | 74HC595D | 74HC595D | S016 |
|  |  | $74 x x-e u$ | 1 |  |
|  | IC401 | AD7764 | AD7764 | TSSOP28 |
|  |  | ad7764 | 4 |  |


|  | IC402 | AD7764 ad7764 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 91 | IC403 | AD8676ARZ* burr-brown |
|  | IC404 | AD8675 |
|  |  | burr-brown |
|  | IC405 | AD5791 ad5791 |
|  | IC501 | 74HC165D |
|  |  | $74 x x-e u$ |
|  | IC502 | 74AHC14D |
|  |  | $74 x x$-eu |
| 96 | IC503 | 74AHC14D |
|  |  | 74xx-eu |
|  | J101 | AVR_SPI_PRG_6PTH |
|  |  | SparkFun |
|  | JP1 | DEBUG_LCD_SERIAL |
|  |  | pinhead |
|  | JP2 | DEBUG_DIGIPOT |
|  |  | pinhead |
|  | JP3 | GPIO |
|  |  | pinhead |
| 101 | JP101 | DEBUG_FTDI |
|  |  | pinhead |
|  | JP102 | DEBUG_BUTTON |
|  |  | pinhead |
|  | JP201 | 636356/636058/1821231 |
|  |  | pinhead |
|  | JP202 | 636332/635935/1207436 |
|  |  | pinhead |
|  | JP203 | 636332/635935/1207436 |
|  |  | pinhead |
| 106 | JP204 | 636332/635935/1207436 |
|  |  | pinhead |
|  | JP402 | ADC_DEBUG |
|  |  | pinhead |
|  | JP403 | DEBUG_DAC |
|  |  | pinhead |
|  | JP501 | 636356/636058/1821231 |
|  |  | pinhead |
|  | L101 | MMZ2012R102A |
|  |  | wuerth-elektronik |
| 11 | L201 | 1635738 |
|  |  | wuerth-elektronik |
|  | L202 | 1635738 |
|  |  | wuerth-elektronik |
|  | L301 | MMZ2012R102A |
|  |  | wuerth-elektronik |
|  | L302 | MMZ2012R102A |
|  |  | wuerth-elektronik |
|  | LED101 | 5V_POK |
|  |  | led |
| 11 | LED102 | 2V5_POK |
|  |  | led |
|  | LED103 | USB_TX |
|  |  | led |
|  | LED104 | USB_RX |
|  |  | led |
|  | LED105 | DEBUG_LED |
|  |  | led |
|  | PAD401 | GND_ADC_SIG |
|  |  | wirepad |
| 121 | PAD402 | POS_POS |
|  |  | wirepad |
|  | PAD403 | GND_ADC_SIG |
|  |  | wirepad |




|  | R509 | 4k7 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | R510 | 4k7 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
| 191 | R511 | 4k7 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | R512 | 4k7 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | R513 | 24k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | R514 | 24k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | R515 | 24k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
| 196 | R516 | 24k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | R517 | 24k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 |
|  |  | rcl | 5 |  |
|  | SG301 | 1669967 | F/QMX | F/QMX |
|  |  | buzzer | 3 |  |
|  | SW501 | 1520806/1520821 | EC11E15244C0 | TYPE8 |
|  |  | EC11E15244C0 | 5 |  |
|  | SW502 | 1435775 | SKQU_MULTIDIRECTION_BUTTON | SKQU |
|  |  | skqu_multidirectional_but | ton 5 |  |
| 201 | T301 | 2STR1160 | BC817-16-NPN-SOT23-BEC | SOT23-BEC |
|  |  | transistor |  |  |
|  | T302 | 2STR1160 | BC817-16-NPN-SOT23-BEC | SOT23-BEC |
|  |  | transistor |  |  |
|  | T303 | 2STR1160 | BC817-16-NPN-SOT23-BEC | SOT23-BEC |
|  |  | transistor 3 |  |  |
|  | X101 | 1308876 | USBPTH | USB-B-PTH |
|  |  | SparkFun 1 |  |  |
|  | X201 | POWER, TEMP_IN | AK500/10 | AK500/10 |
|  |  | con-ptr500 | 2 |  |
| 206 | X301 | 1675765/1675755/1675781/1568469 | 22-23-2031 | 22-23-2031 |
|  |  | con-molex 3 |  |  |
|  | X302 | 1675765/1675755/1675781/1568469 | 22-23-2031 | 22-23-2031 |
|  |  | con-molex 3 |  |  |
|  | XTAL101X3 | 1841978 | 5X3_SMD_CRYSTAL | CRYSTAL-SMD-5 |
|  |  | smd_crystal 1 |  |  |
|  | Z301 | LMV431AIMF | LMV431 | SOT-23 |
|  |  | LM431 | 3 |  |

## B. 5 EXCITATION CONTROL

All schematics, PCB artwork and part lists follow.


Figure 96: Schematic for excitation control.


Figure 97: Top layer of PCB for excitation control.


Figure 98: Bottom layer of PCB for excitation.

|  | Partlist |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Exported from excitation.sch at 7/3/11 1:17 PM |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | EAGLE Version 5.10.0 Copyright (c) 1988-2010 CadSoft |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Part | Value | Device | Package | Library | Sheet |
|  | C1 | 10u_25v | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |
| 10 | C2 | 10u_25V | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C3 | OPT | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C4 | OPT | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | D1 | BAV199 | BAV199 | S0T23 | diode | 1 |
|  | D2 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
| 15 | IC1 | ADG1313 | ADG1313YRUZ | TSSOP16 | adg131x | 1 |
|  | JP1 | 636332/635935/1207436 | PINHD-2X5 | 2X05 | pinhead | 1 |
|  | LED201 | V+_POK | LEDCHIPLED_1206 | CHIPLED_1206 | led | 1 |
|  | LED202 | V-_POK | LEDCHIPLED_1206 | CHIPLED_1206 | led | 1 |
|  | PAD1 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
| 20 | PAD2 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD3 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD4 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD5 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD6 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
| 25 | PAD7 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD8 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD9 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD10 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD11 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
| 30 | PAD12 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | R1 | 390R_0W25 | R-EU_R1206 | R1206 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R2 | 390R_0W25 | R-EU_R1206 | R1206 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R201 | 4k7 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R202 | 4k7 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
| 35 | X1 | PWR_IN | AK500/5 | AK500/5 | con-ptr500 | 1 |

## B. 6 MOTOR DRIVE

All schematics, PCB artwork, part lists and an errata follow.


Figure 99: Schematic for motor drive.


Figure 100: Top layer of PCB for motor drive.


Figure 101: Bottom layer of PCB for motor drive.

| AFFECTED COMPONENT | DESCRIPTION | WORKAROUND |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $P A D 5, P A D 7$ | Inputs are not connected by default | Connect pads |

Table 8: Errata for motor drive PCB and schematic.

|  | Partlist |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Exported from motor_drive.sch at 7/3/11 1:17 PM |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | EAGLE Version 5.10.0 Copyright (c) 1988-2010 CadSoft |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Part | Value | Device | Package | Library | Sheet |
|  | C1 | 2p2 | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
| 10 | C2 | 330p | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C3 | 47n | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C4 | 10u | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C5 | 10u | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C6 | 10u | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
| 15 | C7 | 10u | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
| 15 | C8 | 1 u | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C9 | 14 | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C10 | 3 m 3 | CPOL-EUE10-22.5 | EB22,5D | rcl | 1 |
|  | C11 | 3 m 3 | CPOL-EUE10-22.5 | EB22,5D | rcl | 1 |
| 20 | C12 | DNM | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C13 | 2p2 | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |


|  | C14 | 2p2 | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | C15 | 330p | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C16 | 47n | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
| 25 | C17 | DNM | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C18 | 2p2 | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | D1 |  | SCHOTTKY-DIODESMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
|  | D2 |  | SCHOTTKY-DIODESMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
|  | D3 |  | SCHOTTKY-DIODESMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
| 30 | D4 |  | SCHOTTKY-DIODESMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
|  | D5 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
|  | D6 |  | SCHOTTKY-DIODESMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
|  | D7 |  | SCHOTTKY-DIODESMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
|  | D8 |  | SCHOTTKY-DIODESMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
| 35 | D9 |  | SCHOTTKY-DIODESMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
|  | D10 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
|  | F1 | F5A | SH22,5 | SH22,5 | fuse | 1 |
|  | F2 | F5A | SH22,5 | SH22,5 | fuse | 1 |
|  | IC1 | OPA211 | OPA134U | S008 | burr-brown | 1 |
| 40 | IC2 | OPA211 | OPA134U | S008 | burr-brown | 1 |
|  | JP1 |  | PINHD-1X2 | $1 \times 02$ | pinhead | 1 |
|  | LED1 | POK V+ | LEDSMT1206 | 1206 | led | 1 |
|  | LED2 | POK V- | LEDSMT1206 | 1206 | led | 1 |
|  | PAD1 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
| 45 | PAD2 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD3 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD4 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD5 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD6 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
| 50 | PAD7 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | PAD8 |  | SMD5 | SMD2,54-5,08 | wirepad | 1 |
|  | Q1 | TIP125 | TIP125 | T0220 | transistor-pnp | 1 |
|  | Q2 | TIP125 | TIP125 | T0220 | transistor-pnp | 1 |
|  | R1 | 180R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
| 55 | R2 | 180R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R3 | 49R9 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R4 | 90k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R5 | 0R5 | R | D0220S | power_resistor | 1 |
|  | R6 | 4R7 | R | D0220S | power_resistor | 1 |
| 60 | R7 | 4k2 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R8 | 4k2 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R10 | 5k3 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R11 | 5 k 3 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R12 | 9k1_0R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | 603 rc | 1 | \% |
| 65 | R13 | 49R9 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R14 | 33k_NTC | R-EU_R0805 | R0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R15 | 1k_0R-EU_R0603 | R060 | 603 rc | $1 \%$ |  |
|  | R16 | 180R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R17 | 180R | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
| 70 | R18 | 90k | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R19 | 0R5 | R | D0220S | power_resistor | 1 |
|  | R20 | 4R7 | R | D0220S | power_resistor | 1 |
|  | R21 | 9k1_0R-EU_R0603 | R R0603 | 603 rc | $1 \%$ | \% |
|  | R22 | 1k_0R-EU_R0603 | R060 | 603 rc | 1 \% | \% |
| 75 | R23 | 49R9 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | R24 | 49R9 | R-EU_R0603 | R0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | T1 | TIP122 | TIP122 | T0220 | transistor | 1 |
|  | T2 | TIP122 | TIP122 | T0220 | transistor | 1 |
|  | X1 | ANALOG | AK500/10 | AK500/10 | con-ptr500 | 1 |
| 80 | X2 | TEMP_DATA | AK500/5 | AK500/5 | con-ptr500 | 1 |
|  | Z1 | 22 V | SCHOTTKY-DIODESMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
|  | Z2 | 22 V | SCHOTTKY-DIODESMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
|  | Z4 | 22 V | SCHOTTKY-DIODESMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
|  | Z5 | 22 V | SCHOTTKY-DIODESMC | SMC | diode | 1 |

## B. 7 POWER SUPPLY

All schematics, PCB artwork, part lists and an errata follow.


Figure 102: Schematic for power supply.


Figure 103: Top layer of PCB for power supply.


Figure 104: Bottom layer of PCB for power supply.

| AFFECTED COMPONENT | DESCRIPTION | WORKAROUND |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $R 35$ | Output 2.5 V rail should be | Trim value to give correct |
|  | $2.65 \mathrm{~V} \pm 0.05 \mathrm{~V}$ to lie in safe range | output voltage |

Table 9: Errata for motor drive PCB and schematic.

```
1 Partlist
Exported from psu.sch at 7/3/11 1:17 PM
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```

|  | Part | Value | Device | Package | Library | Sheet |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | B1 | GBPC606-E4 | RECTIFIER-GBP6 | GBPC6 | rectifier | 1 |
|  | C1 | 100n | C-EU025-025X050 | C025-025X050 | rcl | 1 |
| 11 | C2 | 100n | C-EU025-025X050 | C025-025X050 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C3 | 3 m 3 50V | CPOL-EUE10-22.5 | EB22,5D | rcl | 1 |
|  | C4 | 10 u 50V | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C5 | 10u_50V | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C6 | 3 m 3 _50V_ (OPTIONAL) | CPOL-EUE10-22.5 | EB22,5D | rcl | 1 |
| 16 | C7 | 10 u 50 V | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C8 | 100u | CPOL-EUE5-8.5 | E5-8,5 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C9 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C10 | 3 m 3 50V | CPOL-EUE10-22.5 | EB22,5D | rcl | 1 |
|  | C11 | 10 u -50V | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
| 21 | C12 | 10u_50V | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C13 | 3 m 3 -50V_ ( OPTIONAL) | CPOL-EUE10-22.5 | EB22,5D | rcl | 1 |
|  | C14 | 10u_50V | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C15 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C16 | 100n | C-EU025-025X050 | C025-025X050 | rcl | 1 |
| 26 | C17 | 100n | C-EU025-025X050 | C025-025X050 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C18 | 100u | CPOL-EUE5-8.5 | E5-8,5 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C19 | 10u_50V | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C20 | 100u | CPOL-EUE5-8.5 | E5-8,5 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C21 | 10u_50V | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
| 31 | C22 | 100u | CPOL-EUE5-8.5 | E5-8,5 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C23 | 10u_50V | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C24 | 100u | CPOL-EUE5-8.5 | E5-8,5 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C25 | 10u_50V | C-EUC1210 | C1210 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C26 | 100u | CPOL-EUE5-8.5 | E5-8,5 | rcl | 1 |
| 36 | C27 | 10u_25V | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C28 | 10u_25V | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C29 | 10u_25V | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C30 | 10u_25V | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C31 | 10u_25V | C-EUC1206 | C1206 | rcl | 1 |
| 41 | C32 | 50p | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C33 | 1 u | C-EUC0603 | C0603 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C34 | 50p | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C35 | 50p | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C36 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
| 46 | C37 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C38 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | C39 | 100n | C-EUC0805 | C0805 | rcl | 1 |
|  | D1 | 28 V | DIODE-SMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
|  | D2 | 28 V | DIODE-SMC | SMC | diode | 1 |
| 51 | D3 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
|  | D4 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
|  | D5 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
|  | D6 | BAV199 | BAV199 | SOT23 | diode | 1 |
|  | F1 | T2A | SH22,5 | SH22,5 | fuse | 1 |
| 56 | F2 | T2A | SH22,5 | SH22,5 | fuse | 1 |
|  | F3 | MF-RX375 | FUSELITTLEFUSE | LITTLEFUSE | fuse | 1 |
|  | F4 | MF-RX375 | FUSELITTLEFUSE | LITTLEFUSE | fuse | 1 |
|  | IC1 | LM317 | LM317TL | 317TL | $v$-reg | 1 |
|  | IC2 | LM337 | LM337TL | 337TL | $v$-reg | 1 |
| 61 | IC3 | LM317 | LM317TL | 317 TL | $v$-reg | 1 |
|  | IC4 | LT1085 | LM317TL | 317TL | $v$-reg | 1 |
|  | IC5 | LM317 | LM317TL | 317TL | $v$-reg | 1 |
|  | IC6 | LT1185 | LT1185 | T0220-51 | lt1185 | 1 |
|  | IC7 | OPA2277U | OPA2277U | S008 | linear | 1 |
| 6671 | IC8 | OPA2277U | OPA2277U | S008 | linear | 1 |
|  | IC10 | ADR444 | ADR444 | SOIC8 | adr444 | 1 |
|  | JP1 |  | PINHD-1X2 | 1X02 | pinhead | 1 |
|  | LED1 | +15V OK | LEDCHIPLED_1206 | CHIPLED_1206 | led | 1 |
|  | LED2 | -15V OK | LEDCHIPLED_1206 | CHIPLED_1206 | led | 1 |
|  | LED3 | 5 V OK | LEDCHIPLED_1206 | CHIPLED_1206 | led | 1 |



| X2 | POWER IN, OUT | AK500/10 | AK500/10 | con-ptr500 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| X3 | POWER_IN,_OUT | AK500/10 | AK500/10 | con-ptr500 |
| C4 |  |  |  |  |
| X4 | TEMP_PSU | AK500/3 | AK500/3 | con-ptr500 |

## C.I MICROPROCESSOR SOFTWARE

The software used in the actuator is programmed in C, compiled with GNU C compiler (GCC) and transferred to the microprocessor with AVR downloader uploader (AVRDUDE) over an in system programmer mark ii (ISPMKii).

The software source code is divided into several logical blocks, each performing a set range of tasks. These blocks are;
main The main loop handles all initialization on startup and then enters an infinite loop that draws the user interface to the LCD.
base The base loop (base-thread) block contains everything to do with the base thread, which runs continuously and shifts data in and out of the transfer buffers, runs a finite state machine for the external control interface, checks the current position and turns the motor off if limits are exceeded and so on.
board Contains all I/O definitions, timer register use and pin name declarations.
button All button (joystick and rotary dial) functionality. Offers an interface to check the current button status, if a flank has occurred and how many increments the rotary dial has rotated since last checked.
control All DAC and digital potentiometer control routines. Offers interface can set the DAC and digital potentiometer positions, write and read digital potentiometer positions to EEPROM.
ext_com External communications module, handles as RS232/USB communications. Gives a function to queue a message to be transmitted and to check for received messages.

LCD All LCD routines, allows for initializing the LCD display, writing a string, setting the current line and position and writing a character.
sensor All functionality related to the capacitive sensor, writes to the POS and REF buffers and convert POS and REF to position.
temp_meas Temperature measurement routines, measures the NTC resistors attached to the motor, motor drive and power supply and controls the fans accordingly. A look-up-table converts the nonlinear voltage/temperature relationship to degrees Celsius.

UI All user-interface related routines, including menu structure and navigation.

Util Various utility functions that span several modules such as the buffer implementation and small delays.

All files are separated into a source (.c) and header (.h) file according to commonly used C programming conventions. Generally upper case names are used for \#define's and lower case for variables. The code is commented and documented using Doxygen, an open-source documentation generator. See the unpublished document appended to this document for full source code and more detailed explanations (Lock [11]).

## C. 2 MATLAB DEMO APPLICATION

In order to test the actuator and as a demo application a simple Matlab program was developed (the same program is used to generate most of the plots). The source code for the demo application follow with the filenames in the first line;

```
%decodePackets.m
%Decodes length(packets) packets and converts them to an array of headers
%and payload.
function [header,payload] = decodePackets(packets)
if(~isempty(packets))
    data=uint8(packets);
    i=0; %current byte (0->packet has been decoded, 1-> header, 2,3,4 ->
        payload)
    header_raw=0;
    payload_raw=0;
    header_i=0;
    payload_i=zeros(1,3,'uint8');
    for j=1:length(data)
        if(i==0 && isHeader(data(j))) %if a previous packet has been decoded,
            check if the next byte is a valid header
            i=1; %if so reset the counter state machine
            header_i=data(j); %and store the current value.
        elseif(i~=0) %otherwise we are currently decoding a
            packet if i!=0
            payload_i(i)=data(j); %store the 1-3rd byte in payload_i
                    temp variable
            i=i+1; %increment the byte marker variable
            if(i>=4) %if a packet has been completely
                decoded
                    %store the current header in the
                        output array
                header_raw=[header_raw;header_i];
                    %and the current payload
                payload_raw=[payload_raw;bin2dec([dec2bin(payload_i(1),8),dec2bin(
                payload_i(2),8),dec2bin(payload_i(3),8)])]; %super ugly
                        uint8->string->uint8 conversion needed for concatentaion!
                i=0; %reset state machine
            end;
            end
    end
    header_raw(1)=[]; %remove top element (was created
            before decoding loop)
    payload_raw(1)=[];
    header=header_raw;
    payload=fi(payload_raw, 1, 24, 0, ...
            'RoundMode', 'Nearest', ...
            'OverflowMode', 'Wrap', ...
            'ProductMode', 'FullPrecision', ...
            'MaxProductWordLength', 24, ...
            'SumMode', 'FullPrecision', ...
            'MaxSumWordLength', 24, ...
            'CastBeforeSum', true);
end
```

\%defs_header.m
\%Header definitions used for writing and decoding packets
3
HEX_POSREF='fo';
HEX_POS='f1'
HEX_REF='f2';
HEX SETPT=' $\mathrm{f}^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$;
8 HEX_TEMP_MOTOR='f8'
HEX_TEMP_DRIVE='f9';
HEX_TEMP_PSU='fa';
HEX_ADC_K='fb';
HEX_SETPT_K='fc';
13
HEX_SETPT_BUFFER_READY='fd ';
HEX EOC='fe'
HEX_BUSY='ff ';

```
% demo.m
% Demo program to interface Rattlesnake Nanoactuator
% Output a couple setpoint waveforms as defined below, plot setpoint and process
% variable in a chart. Also display system temperatures
%% Startup init
ins=instrfind
if(~isempty(ins))
    fclose(ins);
    delete(ins);
end
clc
clear all
close all
format short eng
port = '/dev/ttyUSBI';
tx_buff=1000000;
rx_buff=1000000;
rattlesnake = initInstrument(port,tx_buff,rx_buff);
%Get ADC_k and SETPOINT_k values
scale_packets=[generatePackets('adc_k',0),generatePackets('setpt_k',0)];
%clear data in input buffer
if(rattlesnake.BytesAvailable)
    disp('Bytes found in input buffer when none should be there, clearing...');
    fread(rattlesnake, rattlesnake.BytesAvailable);
end
sendPackets(rattlesnake,scale_packets);
pause(1);
data=readPackets(rattlesnake);
%use adc_k such that: position=adc_k*pos/ref [nanometers]
%use setpt_k such that dac_code=setpt_k*setpoint [nanometers]
adc_k=2^39/double(extractPackets(data,'adc_k')); %scale ADC_k from the
    transmitted, fixed point, format
setpt_k=double(extractPackets(data,'setpt_k'))/2^25; %scale SETPT_k similarly
%% Run on change
close all
%System definitions
fs_setpt=1/(500e-6); %sample rate for setpoint output [Hz]
fs_pv=(500e3/256)/2; %sample rate for process variable input [Hz]
prop_delay=40e-3; %amount of delay in system (add this much extra time to
    the posref sampling) [s]
%Setpoint global defs
setpt_stoptime=.4; %time for waveform [s]
setpt_samples=ceil(setpt_stoptime*fs_setpt); %number of desired setpoint samples
setpt_ampl=500e3; %desired amplitide [nm]
setpt_offset=0; %setpoint DC offset [nm]
%Various setpoint wave definitions
setpt_square=[zeros(1,round(.1*setpt_samples)), setpt_ampl*ones(1, round(.45*
    setpt_samples)),zeros(1,round(.45*setpt_samples))];
setpt_triangle=[zeros(1, round(.1*setpt_samples)), setpt_ampl*(.5+sawtooth(linspace
    (0, 2*pi,round(.8*setpt_samples)),.5)/2),zeros(1,round(. 1*setpt_samples))];
setpt_sine=[zeros(1,round(.1*setpt_samples)), setpt_ampl*(.5-cos(linspace(0, 2*pi,
    round(.8*setpt_samples)))/2),zeros(1,round(.1*setpt_samples))];
setpt_zero=zeros(1,setpt_samples);
```

5
if(rattlesnake.BytesAvailable)
disp('Bytes found in input buffer when none should be there, clearing...');
fread(rattlesnake, rattlesnake.BytesAvailable);
end
\% Filter the data
temp=double([extractPackets(data, 'temp_motor'), extractPackets(data,'temp_drive'), extractPackets(data,'temp_psu')]);
[pos_fi posindex]=extractPackets(data, 'pos');
[ref_fi refindex]=extractPackets(data,'ref');
pos=double(pos_fi);
ref=double(ref_fi);
foo=mod(posindex,2); \%all values of posindex should be either even or odd,
check for this
if(foo(1)~=mean(foo))
error('Error in receiving POS data')
end
foo=mod(refindex,2); \%similarly for refindex
if(foo(1)~=mean(foo))
error('Error in receieving REF data')
setpt_2deriv=[zeros(1, round (. $1 *$ setpt_samples)) , setpt_ampl*quintic_traj (round (. $8 *$
setpt_samples)), zeros(1, round(. $1 *$ setpt_samples))];
setpt_1deriv=[0, setpt_ampl*diff(setpt_2deriv)/max(abs(diff(setpt_2deriv)))];
setpt_0deriv=[0, setpt_ampl*diff(setpt_1deriv)/max(abs(diff(setpt_1deriv)))];
\%change here to choose which setpoint to use
setpt_sel='setpt_oderiv';
setpt=setpt_offset+eval(setpt_sel);
outputdir='./large_scale/';
name_suffix=' ';
\%Generate packets to send to instrument
\%Temperature request
packets_temp=[generatePackets('temp_motor', 0), generatePackets('temp_drive', 0),
generatePackets('temp_psu', 0)];
\%POS and REF request of $n$ values
posref_samples=ceil(setpt_stoptime*fs_pv+prop_delay*fs_pv);
packets_posref=generatePackets('posref', posref_samples);
\%Setpoint values
packets_setpt=generatePackets('setpt', setpt2code(setpt, setpt_k));
packets_concat=[packets_temp, packets_posref, packets_setpt];
\% Perform measurement
\%clear data in input buffer
\%Send packets to instrument
sendPackets(rattlesnake, packets_concat);
pause( $2 *$ setpt_stoptime +2 );
\%Read measurement data from instrument
data=readPackets(rattlesnake);
end
position=posref2position(pos,ref,adc_k);
\% Display settings
\%set the display sample rate to be the lowest common multiple of the
\%setpoint and ADC sample rates. Use ugly workaround to bypass the
\%limitation of $l \mathrm{~cm}$ only working with integers.
output_samplerate $=l \mathrm{~cm}\left(\mathrm{fs}\right.$ _setpt $\left.* 2^{\wedge} 16, \mathrm{fs} \_\mathrm{pv} * 2^{\wedge} 16\right) / 2^{\wedge} 16$;
position_rs=resample(position,output_samplerate/fs_pv,1);
setpt_rs=resample(setpt,output_samplerate/fs_setpt,1);
time=linspace(0, setpt_stoptime, setpt_stoptime*output_samplerate);
\%shift pos and setpt to the same time (remove system delay)
if $(\max ($ setpt $)==0 \& \& \min ($ setpt $)==0)$
position_temp=position_rs;
clear position_rs;
position_rs=position_temp(1:length(setpt_rs));
disp('Zero setpoint detected, no shifting performed')
position_filt=sgolayfilt(resample(position_rs,1,vel_decimation), 1,21);
setpt_d_filt=diff(resample(setpt,output_samplerate/fs_setpt,vel_decimation,10,30))
/dh;
vel_filt=diff(position_filt)/dh;
time_vel=decimate(time, vel_decimation);
time_vel=time_vel(1: end-1);
\%calculate filtered acceleration data
accel_filt=sgolayfilt(diff(vel_filt), 3,101);
setpt_dd_filt=sgolayfilt(diff(setpt_d_filt), 3,101 );
time_accel=time_vel(1: end-1);
\% Display data
figure(1)
subplot $(2,1,1)$
plot(time, [position_rs';setpt_rs])
title('Setpoint and measured position')
xlabel('Time [s]')
ylabel('Position [nm] ')
legend('Position', 'Setpoint')
$x \lim ([m i n(t i m e), \max (t i m e)])$;
grid on
subplot (2,1,2)
plot(time, setpt_rs-position_rs');
180
xlabel('Time [s]')
ylabel('Position error [nm]')
$x \lim ([m i n(t i m e), \max (t i m e)])$;
grid on
185
else
shift=finddelay(setpt_rs, position_rs);
if(shift<0)
error('Negative shift found, some measurement error must have occurred')
end
position_temp=position_rs;
clear position_rs;
position_rs=position_temp(shift:end);
if(length(position_rs)>length(setpt_rs))
position_temp=position_rs;
clear position_rs;
position_rs=position_temp(1:length(setpt_rs));
disp('Position was longer than setpoint, truncating');
end
if(length(position_rs)<length(setpt_rs))
position_temp=[position_temp:zeros(1,length(setpt_rs)-length(position_rs))
];
disp('Position was shorter than setpoint, zero-padding');
end
end
\% calculate filtered velocity data
vel_decimation=10; \%decimation rate of signal for velocity calculation
$\mathrm{dh}=1 /$ (output_samplerate/vel_decimation); \%time between each decimated sample

```
    h = axes('Position',[.15,.01,.8,.1]);
```

axis off
text(.75,0, strcat('Motor temp:', num2str(temp(1)/10),' [degC]'),'FontSize', 8);
text(.50,0, strcat('Drive temp:', num2str(temp(2)/10),' [degC]'),'FontSize', 8);


position_rs'))),' [nm]'),'FontSize', 8);
foo=strcat(outputdir, 'position_', setpt_sel, name_suffix);
print('-depsc',foo)
195
foo=strcat(outputdir, 'velocity_', setpt_sel, name_suffix);
print('-depsc',foo)
figure(3)
(2,1,2)
plot(time_accel, setpt_dd_filt-accel_filt');
title('Measured acceleraion error (setpoint - measured) (filtered)')
xlabel('Time [s]')
ylabel('Acceleration error $\left[\mathrm{nm} / \mathrm{s}^{\wedge} 2\right]$ (filtered)')
$x \lim ([m i n(t i m e), \max (t i m e)])$;
grid on
$h=\operatorname{axes}(' P o s i t i o n ',[.15, .01, .8, .1])$;
axis off
figure(2)
subplot $(2,1,1)$
plot(time_vel, [vel_filt'; setpt_d_filt]);
title('Setpoint and measured velocity (filtered)')
xlabel('Time [s]')
ylabel('Velocity [nm/s] (filtered)')
legend('Velocity', 'Setpoint')
xlim([min(time), max(time)]);
grid on
subplot (2,1,2)
plot(time_vel, setpt_d_filt-vel_filt');
title('Measured velocity error (setpoint - measured) (filtered)')
xlabel('Time [s]')
ylabel('Velocity error [nm/s] (filtered)')
$x \lim ([m i n(t i m e), \max (t i m e)])$;
grid on
$h=\operatorname{axes}\left({ }^{\prime}\right.$ Position', [.15,.01,.8,.1]);
axis off
text(.75, 0, strcat('Motor temp:', num2str(temp(1)/10),' [degC]'),'FontSize', 8);
text(.50,0, strcat('Drive temp:', num2str(temp(2)/10),' [degC]'),'FontSize', 8);
text(.25,0, strcat('PSU temp:', num2str(temp (3)/10),' [degC]'),'FontSize', 8);
subplot $(2,1,1)$
plot(time_accel, [accel_filt'; setpt_dd_filt]);
title('Setpoint and measured acceleration (filtered)')
xlabel('Time [s]')
ylabel('Acceleration [nm/s^2] (filtered)')
legend('Acceleration', 'Setpoint')
$x \lim ([m i n(t i m e), \max (t i m e)])$;
grid on
text(.75,0, strcat('Motor temp:', num2str(temp(1)/10),' [degC]'),'FontSize', 8);
text(.50,0, strcat('Drive temp:', num2str(temp(2)/10),' [degC]'),'FontSize', 8);
text(.25,0, strcat('PSU temp:', num2str(temp(3)/10),' [degC]'),'FontSize', 8);
foo=strcat(outputdir, 'acceleration_', setpt_sel, name_suffix);
print('-depsc',foo)

```
%extractPackets.m
%This function extracts the specified packet types from the input raw data
%and outputs the payload of the specified packet types and their position
%in the input data array
function [filteredData index] = extractPackets(rawData, type)
    [header payload]=decodePackets(rawData);
    defs_header
    dataraw=0;
    posraw=0;
    switch(type)
        case 'pos'
            desiredHeader=HEX_POS;
        case 'ref'
            desiredHeader=HEX_REF;
        case 'setpt'
            desiredHeader=HEX_SETPT;
        case 'temp_motor'
            desiredHeader=HEX_TEMP_MOTOR;
        case 'temp_drive'
            desiredHeader=HEX_TEMP_DRIVE;
        case 'temp_psu'
            desiredHeader=HEX_TEMP_PSU;
        case 'adc_k'
            desiredHeader=HEX_ADC_K;
        case 'setpt_k'
            desiredHeader=HEX_SETPT_K;
        case 'setpt_buffer_ready'
            desiredHeader=HEX_SETPT_BUFFER_READY;
        case 'eoc'
            desiredHeader=HEX_EOC;
        case 'busy'
            desiredHeader=HEX_BUSY;
        otherwise
                error('Packet type must be valid');
    end
    for i=1:length(header)
        if(header(i) == hex2dec(desiredHeader))
                dataraw=[dataraw;payload(i)];
                posraw=[posraw;i];
        end
    end
    dataraw(1)=[];
    posraw(1)=[];
    filteredData=dataraw;
    index=posraw;
end
```

```
%generatePackets.m
%Generates n packets with the same header and specified payload, outputs an
%array with the formatted output (ready to write to device)
function packets = generatePackets(header,payload)
%Internal block size to use when generating raw data. (Number of packets to
8
BLOCKSIZE=1000;
%Limits for range of data input
MAXVAL_DATA=2^(24-1)-1;
MINVAL_DATA=2^(24-1);
defs_header
%Generate packet header based on input
        otherwise
            error('Invalid packet header type')
        end
        %Generate error if payload is outside of valid range
        assert(max(payload>MAXVAL_DATA) || max(payload<MINVAL_DATA),'Message payload must
        fit in 24 bit word length.'');
    data_cat_fi=fi(zeros(1,length(payload)), ...
        0, 32, 0, ...
        'RoundMode', 'Nearest', ..
        'OverflowMode', 'Saturate', ...
        'ProductMode', 'FullPrecision', ...
        'MaxProductWordLength', 32, ...
        'SumMode', 'FullPrecision', ...
        'MaxSumWordLength', 32, ...
        'CastBeforeSum', true);
    %run parts of code that run slower than O(n) after a certain size in a loop
    for n=0:ceil(length(payload)/BLOCKSIZE)-1
    %Generate finite precision data for payload
    %Desire to look at certain part of payload only per value of n
```

```
    payload_fi=fi(payload(:,1+n*BLOCKSIZE:min(length(payload),(n+1)*BLOCKSIZE)),
        1, 24, 0, ..
        'RoundMode', 'Nearest', ..
        'OverflowMode', 'Saturate', ...
        'ProductMode', 'FullPrecision', ...
        'MaxProductWordLength', 24, ...
        'SumMode', 'FullPrecision', ...
        'MaxSumWordLength', 24, ...
        CastBeforeSum', true);
    %Generate finite precision data for header
    header_fi=fi(header, 0, 8, 0, ...
        'RoundMode', 'Nearest', ..
        'OverflowMode', 'Saturate', ...
        ProductMode', 'FullPrecision', ...
        'MaxProductWordLength', 8, ...
        'SumMode', 'FullPrecision', ...
        'MaxSumWordLength', 8,
        'CastBeforeSum', true);
    %Concatenate header and payload
    data_int=bitconcat(header_fi,payload_fi);
    data_cat_fi(1,1+n*BLOCKSIZE:min(length(payload),(n+1)*BLOCKSIZE))=data_int;
end
8
packets=data_cat_fi;
```

```
% initInstrument.m
% Initialize instrument (set up port, baud rate, buffer size (bytes), etc)
function [ins] = initInstrument(port,tx_buff,rx_buff)
ins=serial(port);
ins.BaudRate=230400;
ins.DataBits=8;
ins.StopBits=1
ins.Parity='none';
ins.FlowControl='hardware';
%ins.FlowControl='none';
ins.ByteOrder='bigEndian'
ins.OutputBufferSize=tx_buff;
ins.InputBufferSize=rx_buff;
ins.Timeout=5.0;
fopen(ins); %open in read/write mode, big endian byte order
```

```
%isheader.m
%Checks if an input byte is a header type or not
%byte - the input byte to check
%
%bool - nonzero if the input byte was a header, zero otherwise
function bool = isHeader(byte)
    defs_header
    switch(byte)
        case hex2dec(HEX_POSREF)
        retval=1;
        case hex2dec(HEX_POS)
                retval=1;
        case hex2dec(HEX_REF)
                retval=1;
        case hex2dec(HEX_SETPT)
                retval=1;
        case hex2dec(HEX_TEMP_MOTOR)
                retval=1;
        case hex2dec(HEX_TEMP_DRIVE)
                retval=1;
        case hex2dec(HEX_TEMP_PSU)
                retval=1;
        case hex2dec(HEX_ADC_K)
                retval=1;
        case hex2dec(HEX_SETPT_K)
                retval=1;
        case hex2dec(HEX_SETPT_BUFFER_READY)
                retval=1;
        case hex2dec(HEX_EOC)
                retval=1;
        case hex2dec(HEX_BUSY)
                retval=1;
            otherwise
                retval=0;
    end
    bool=retval;
end
```

1 \%posref2position.m
\%converts POS and REF ADC codewords to position [nm]
function position=posref2position(pos,ref,adc_k)
position=adc_k*double(pos)./double(ref);

```
%quintic_traj.m
%Ugly code to generate a nice smooth test funcion
function traj=quintic_traj(len)
P=[
    1 [-1 1 1
    1
    lllllllll
    0
    0
    0}00<0\mp@code{12
    ]; %contains the coefficients of a_n*x^n+...+a_0*x and its derivatives
b=zeros(size(P,1),1);
b(end)=1;
b}(\mathrm{ end-1)=1;
a=flipdim(P\b,1);
x=linspace(-1,1,len);
traj=polyval(a,x);
traj=traj./max(abs(traj));
%plot(traj);
```

```
%readPackets.m
%Reads the data currently in the input buffer
3%
%device is the serial device to read from
%
%data is the data found in the read buffer
8
function data=readPackets(device)
bytes=device.BytesAvailable;
data=fread(device,bytes,'uint8')
```

```
%sendPackets.m
%Sends packets to the instrument. Packets are to be assumed sorted as an
%nx32 array with n packets to write.
%device: The serial device to output to
%
%packets: The packets to send
function sendPackets(device, data)
    fwrite(device,uint32(data),'uint32','sync');
end
```

\%setpt2code.m
\%converts desired setpoint [nm] to DAC codeword
function code=setpt2code(setpt,dac_k)
5 code=round(setpt*dac_k);

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[^0]:    1 Named so to create a mental image of a rattlesnake's tail, which rapidly moves back and forth as illustrated on the front page.
    2 A linear actuator is a mechanical device that, loosely defined, creates a linear motion (i.e. one dimensional) without any type of mechanical transmission - the linear motion is intrinsic to the design of the actuator (Lindström et al. [10]).

[^1]:    1 the output voltage from the capacitive sensor is $\pm V R E F= \pm 4.096 \mathrm{~V}$, which is greater than the $\pm 2.5 \mathrm{~V}$ range for the ADC's used on the digital board.

[^2]:    2 "debouncing" is a term for reducing the behavior of a button to oscillate quickly between the on and off state for a limited time when pressed or released.

[^3]:    1 This is assuming the simulated disturbance force lies within the bandwidth of the motor drive, which is true for the plot shown.

