ELEC 7970 Advanced Sensors 2/9/15

1. Circuit Analysis with Time Varying Passives

-> most sensors appear as a time varying pussives

-> Many of them change so slowly, they can be

considered as time-invariant

ex: humidity sensor

- But some change so quickly that they must be considered as time-variant

exi displacement sensor in a MEMS resonator

i. How do we perform circuit analysis with time - variant passives?

a. Time - variant resistors

exi piezovesistive displacement sensor

Consider a Thevenin equivalent DC circuit with

De sources and resistors only (op amps ot)

Vs D RTh PR

exiR= Ro + Ra sin (wt) where Ro > Ra

Vo=Us R - Us (RotRasin(wt))

R+Rth = RtRotRasin(wt)

> closed form solution

-> nonlinear result -> one frequency in, multiple frequencies out

b, .	Time -1	variant	Reactive	Elements
	the state of the s	THE RESERVE THE PERSON NAMED IN COLUMN TWO IS NOT THE OWNER.		

Fetto or \$ L(+)

Circuit assumptions:

- OPC sources only
- 3 no other reactive elements
- 3 resistor and op amp networks
- > Form thevenin equivalent circuit for ((t) or Norton equivalent circuit for L(t)

V. DR+h FC(t) or Is PRN PL(t)

- > For time-variant reactive devices = i(t) = cVet Vc and Ve(t) = Lie + iel
- system is noulinear
- 7 conventional circuit analysis techniques do not work
- closed form solution is not possible
- > However, an iterative solution can be found

Lets examine the capacitive example

Vin (C(t)

DC source

: ic(t) = Vin - Vc(t) = Vc(t) C(t) + Vc(t) C(t)

Lets assume that (It) = (o + (,(t), where (It) > 0 always

where Co is time-invariant

Cilt) is time-variant

:. c(+) = c,(+) 3

First, analyze the circuit as a linear time-invariant circuit with (1t) = Co and obtain the steady state value for V(t), denoted Vco(t)

second, use Vco(t) with @ to find lei(t)

Third, use small signal analysis with R to find

Ucilt) in terms of (cilt):

Ver(t) = -ler(t)R 4

Fourth, the next ic(t) term is found using (5)

ic(k+1)(+) = Vck(+) C(+) + Vck(+) C(+)

Then, using @ and (5):

Vc(t) = Veo(t) + & [Vck(t) ((t) + Vck(t) c(t)] RK

 $ic(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[V_{ck}(t) c(t) + V_{ck}(t) c(t) \right]$

-) use as many terms as needed to acheive desired accuracy

-> Show example from my. IET paper

Nonlinear circuit analysis for time-variant microelectromechanical system capacitor systems

Robert N. Dean, Christopher G. Wilson

Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Auburn University, Auburn, AL 36849, USA E-mail: deanron@auburn.edu

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Electrostatic transducers, consisting of time-variant capacitors, are utilised in many types of microelectromechanical system (MEMS) devices. Linear circuit theory is based on the premise of time-invariant passive devices. Time-variant capacitors generally result in one or more nonlinear differential equations that must be solved to obtain expressions for the voltage across or the current through the capacitor. An iterative approach can be used to provide an approximate solution to the nonlinear differential equation model of the Thévenin equivalent RC circuit. This solution technique is verified through comparison with a MATLAB Simulink® simulation of a MEMS capacitor that sinusoidally varies with time because of external stimuli.

1. Introduction: Time-variant capacitors are an integral part of many microelectromechanical system (MEMS) and nanodevices as both electrostatic actuators and as sensing structures. The primary electrostatic actuators are the parallel plate actuator (PPA) [1] and the comb drive actuator (CDA) [2]. These types of actuators are readily used in complex MEMS devices such as force-feedback accelerometers [3], gyroscopes [4], tunable RF devices [5] and microoptical devices [6]. As a detection mechanism, variable capacitors are used in applications such as inertial sensors [7], pressure sensors [8] moisture content sensors [9] and humidity sensors [10]. In each of these applications, the resulting capacitance is a function of a measurand, an external stimulus or an internal displacement, all of which can be modelled as a function of time. For a time-variant capacitor, the equation that relates current through it, $i_c(t)$, and voltage across it, $V_c(t)$ is

$$i_c(t) = \dot{V}_c(t)C(t) + V_c(t)\dot{C}(t) \tag{1}$$

In many applications, (1) is simplified by either using a DC voltage for $V_c(t)$ [11] or by making $V_c(t)$ an AC voltage where its frequency is so much higher than the bandwidth of C(t) that C(t) can reasonably be viewed as being time invariant [12]. However, this simplification is not appropriate for many applications. A common example is when a resistor is added between the time-variant MEMS capacitor and the voltage source, as shown in Fig. 1. This configuration is often used to protect the MEMS capacitive element and the voltage source in the event that the capacitor's electrodes make physical contact and electrically short [13]. Additionally, the circuit model in Fig. 1 could be the

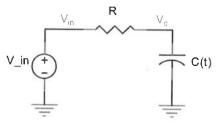


Figure 1 Schematic diagram of a time-variant capacitor in series with a resistor

Thévenin equivalent circuit for a more complex circuit connected to C(t).

The circuit is described by the differential equation

$$i_c(t) = \frac{V_{\text{in}} - V_c(t)}{R} = \dot{V}_c(t)C(t) + V_c(t)\dot{C}(t)$$
 (2)

This equation is a first-order nonlinear ordinary differential equation, and it is therefore difficult to obtain a closed-form solution [14].

2. Technique: However, an iterative approach [15] can be used to obtain an approximate solution for this differential equation that yields functions for $i_c(t)$ and $V_c(t)$. In order to obtain an approximate solution, the capacitance needs to be modelled as

$$C(t) = C_0 + C_1(t) (3)$$

where

$$\dot{C}(t) = \dot{C}_1(t) \tag{4}$$

where C_0 is defined as the time-invariant capacitance. $C_1(t)$ is the time-variant capacitance that must be smaller in magnitude than C_0 , such that C(t) > 0. The circuit is first analysed as a linear circuit with a time-invariant capacitor equal to C_0 to obtain the steady-state solution for $V_c(t)$, denoted by $V_{c0}(t)$. An expression for $i_{c1}(t)$ is then found using $V_{c0}(t)$ with (2)–(4). The next step is to use a small-signal analysis with R to find an expression for $V_{c1}(t)$ in terms of $i_{c1}(t)$ where

$$V_{ck}(t) = -i_{ck}(t)R \tag{5}$$

Then the next $i_c(t)$ term is found using

$$i_{c(k+1)}(t) = \dot{V}_{ck}(t)C(t) + V_{ck}(t)\dot{C}(t)$$
 (6)

Equations (5) and (6) are then used to calculate as many terms as desired where

$$V_c(t) = V_{c0}(t) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[\dot{V}_{ck}(t)C(t) + V_{ck}(t)\dot{C}(t) \right] R^k$$
 (7)

$$i_c(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[\dot{V}_{ck}(t)C(t) + V_{ck}(t)\dot{C}(t) \right]$$
 (8)

3. Verification: For verification, consider the two primary types of micromachined capacitor structures, variable area overlap and variable gap. The model for a variable area overlap capacitor is

$$C(x) = \frac{\varepsilon_o \varepsilon_r w (x_o + x)}{d_o}$$
 (9)

Since most MEMS devices are highly underdamped [16], they sinusoidally ring at their resonant frequency, ω_n , whereas experiencing external stimuli, such as vibrational [17] or acoustic energy [18]. Therefore x can be replaced by $\sin(\omega t)$ so that

$$C(t) = \frac{\varepsilon_o \varepsilon_r w \big(x_0 + x_1 \sin(\omega t) \big)}{d_0}$$
 where $x_1 < x_0$. For the special case where the area overlap capacitor

where $x_1 < x_0$. For the special case where the area overlap capacitor consists of two interdigitated combs, C(t) becomes

$$C(t) = \frac{n\beta\varepsilon_o\varepsilon_r w(x_0 + x_1\sin(\omega t))}{d_0}$$
 (11)

where n is the number of interdigitated tooth pairs and β is the fringing field correction factor. So, this capacitor can be modelled as

$$C(t) = y_1 + y_2 \sin(\omega t) \tag{12}$$

where

$$y_1 = \frac{n\beta\varepsilon_o\varepsilon_r w x_0}{d_0} \tag{13}$$

and

$$y_2 = \frac{n\beta \varepsilon_o \varepsilon_r w x_1}{d_0} \tag{14}$$

A variable gap MEMS capacitor has the model

$$C(t) = \frac{\varepsilon_o \varepsilon_r A}{x_0 + x_1 \sin(\omega t)}$$
 (15)

For the case where $x_1 \ll x_0$, C(t) can be approximated by

$$C(t) \simeq y_1 + y_2 \sin(\omega t) \tag{16}$$

where

$$y_1 = \frac{\varepsilon_o \varepsilon_r A}{x_0 - 0.5((x_1^2)/(x_0))}$$
 (17)

and

$$y_2 = -y_1 \frac{x_1}{x_0} \tag{18}$$

Therefore both types of MEMS time-variant capacitors can be modelled by (3).

Consider the case where $V_{\rm in}$ is a DC voltage source with a voltage of $V_{\rm DC}$ that is less than the pull-in voltage in the case of a PPA [19] or the lateral instability voltage for a CDA [20]. C(t) then becomes

$$C(t) = C_0 + C_1 \sin(\omega t) \tag{19}$$

where $C_1 < C_0$, and

$$\dot{C}(t) = C_1 \omega \cos(\omega t) \tag{20}$$

Using the circuit model in Fig. 1, $V_{c0} = V_{DC}$. Therefore from (6)

$$i_{c1}(t) = C(t)\dot{V}_{c0} + V_{c0}\dot{C}(t) = V_{DC}C_1\omega\cos(\omega t)$$
 (21)

and, using small signal analysis and (5)

$$V_{C1}(t) = -i_{c1}R = -RV_{DC}C_1\omega\cos(\omega t)$$
 (22)

Likewise, $V_{C1}(t)$ is used to find $i_{c2}(t)$ and $V_{C2}(t)$.

$$\dot{V}_{C1}(t) = RV_{DC}C_1\omega^2\sin(\omega t) \tag{23}$$

and

$$i_{c2} = C(t)\dot{V}_{C1}(t) + V_{C1}(t)\dot{C}(t)$$

$$= (C_0 + C_1\sin(\omega t))(RV_{DC}C_1\omega^2\sin(\omega t)) + (C_1\omega\cos(\omega t))(-RV_{DC}C_1\omega\cos(\omega t))$$
(24)

which simplifies to

$$i_{c2}(t) = C_0 R V_{DC} C_1 \omega^2 \sin(\omega t) - C_1^2 \omega^2 R V_{DC} (\cos^2(\omega t) - \sin^2(\omega t))$$
(25)

and finally to

$$i_{c2}(t) = C_0 R V_{DC} C_1 \omega^2 \sin(\omega t) - C_1^2 \omega^2 R V_{DC} \cos(2\omega t)$$
 (26)

Then.

$$V_{c2}(t) = -Ri_{c2}(t) = -C_0 R^2 V_{DC} C_1 \omega^2 \sin(\omega t) + C_1^2 \omega^2 R^2 V_{DC} \cos(2\omega t)$$
(27)

and

$$\dot{V}_{c2}(t) = -C_0 R^2 V_{\rm DC} C_1 \omega^3 \cos(\omega t) -2 C_1^2 \omega^3 R^2 V_{\rm DC} \sin(2\omega t)$$
 (28)

Next $i_{c3}(t)$ and $V_{c3}(t)$ are calculated

$$i_{c3}(t) = C(t)\dot{V}_{C2}(t) + V_{C2}(t)\dot{C}(t)$$

$$= (C_0 + C_1 \sin(\omega t))(-C_0 R^2 V_{DC} C_1 \omega^3 \cos(\omega t)$$

$$- 2C_1^2 \omega^3 R^2 V_{DC} \sin(2\omega t))$$

$$+ (C_1 \omega \cos(\omega t))(-C_0 R^2 V_{DC} C_1 \omega^2 \sin(\omega t)$$

$$+ C_1^2 \omega^2 R^2 V_{DC} \cos(2\omega t))$$
(29)

By rearranging terms

$$i_{c3}(t) = -C_0^2 R^2 V_{DC} C_1 \omega^3 \cos(\omega t)
- 2C_0 C_1^2 \omega^3 R^2 V_{DC} \sin(2\omega t))
- C_0 R^2 V_{DC} C_1^2 \omega^3 \sin(\omega t) \cos(\omega t)
- 2C_1^3 \omega^3 R^2 V_{DC} \sin(\omega t) \sin(2\omega t)
- C_0 R^2 V_{DC} C_1^2 \omega^3 \sin(\omega t) \cos(\omega t)
+ C_1^3 \omega^3 R^2 V_{DC} \cos(\omega t) \cos(2\omega t)$$
(30)

Utilising trigonometric identities

$$\sin(\omega t)\cos(\omega t) = 0.5\sin(2\omega t) \tag{31}$$

$$\sin(\omega t)\sin(2\omega t) = 0.5(\cos(\omega t) - \cos(3\omega t)) \tag{32}$$

$$\cos(\omega t)\cos(2\omega t) = 0.5(\cos(\omega t) + \cos(3\omega t)) \tag{33}$$

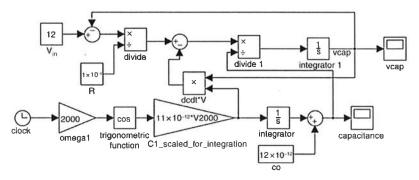


Figure 2 MATLAB Simulink® model

Equation (30) now can be rewritten as

$$i_{c3}(t) = -C_0^2 R^2 V_{DC} C_1 \omega^3 \cos(\omega t)$$

$$-2C_0 C_1^2 \omega^3 R^2 V_{DC} \sin(2\omega t))$$

$$-C_0 R^2 V_{DC} C_1^2 \omega^3 \sin(2\omega t)$$

$$-C_1^3 \omega^3 R^2 V_{DC} (\cos(\omega t) - \cos(3\omega t))$$

$$+0.5C_1^3 \omega^3 R^2 V_{DC} (\cos(\omega t) + \cos(3\omega t))$$
(34)

which reduces to

$$i_{c3} = -C_0^2 R^2 V_{DC} C_1 \omega^3 \cos(\omega t) - 3C_0 C_1^2 \omega^3 R^2 V_{DC} \sin(2\omega t)$$

$$- C_1^3 \omega^3 R^2 V_{DC} (0.5 \cos(\omega t) - 1.5 \cos(3\omega t))$$
(35)

Finally, the third iteration voltage $V_{c3}(t)$ can be found using (35) in (5)

$$V_{c3}(t) = -Ri_{c3}(t) (36)$$

or

$$V_{c3} = +C_0^2 R^3 V_{DC} C_1 \omega^3 \cos(\omega t) + 3C_0 C_1^2 \omega^3 R^3 V_{DC} \sin(2\omega t)$$

+ $C_1^3 \omega^3 R^3 V_{DC} (0.5 \cos(\omega t) + 1.5 \cos(3\omega t))$ (37)

Observe that V_{c0} is a DC term. $V_{C1}(t)$ is an AC term proportional to RC_{10} . $V_{C2}(t)$ possesses AC terms proportional to $R^2(C_1)^2\omega^2$ and $R^2C_1C_0\omega^2$. $V_{C3}(t)$ contains AC terms proportional to R^3 (capacitance) R^3 (cap

MATLAB Simulink[®] was used to solve (2) numerically where the capacitor was modelled by (19) with values for C_0 and C_1 of

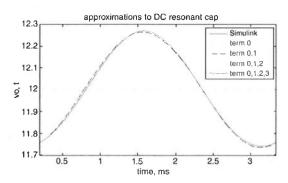


Figure 3 Simulink® results with successive terms added

12 and 11 pF, respectively, for a $V_{\rm in}$ of 12 V and an R of 1 M Ω . A value of 2000 rad/s was used for ω . The Simulink numerical solver was set to fixed-step ODE3 (Bogacki-Shampine) with a fixed-step size of 1×10^{-9} s. The Simulink model is presented in Fig. 2.

One period of simulation data are presented in Fig. 3 along with the first four terms for the example, V_{c0} and terms from (22), (27) and (37). The error terms, that is, the Simulink solution minus the iterative solution terms, are presented in Fig. 4, demonstrating

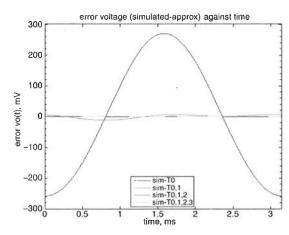


Figure 4 Graph of the error between the Simulink $^{\otimes}$ solution and the iterative solution

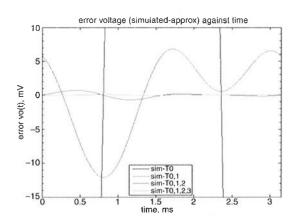


Figure 5 Graph of the error between the Simulink® solution and the iterative solution zoomed in on the higher-order terms

that the error decreases when each successive term is included in the approximate solution. Fig. 5 zooms in on the higher-order error terms for clarity. The DC V_{c0} error term has an error voltage exceeding 200 mV, whereas the inclusion of the first through fourth-order terms drops the error voltage to < 1 mV.

4. Conclusions: Linear circuit analysis is based on the premise of time-invariant passive devices. Many MEMS sensors and actuators utilise time-variant capacitors for sensing and/or actuation. When the voltage across the capacitor is not a constant and the circuit can be modelled as a Thévenin equivalent circuit, with a DC or a constant amplitude sinusoidal voltage source, the circuit equation becomes a nonlinear ordinary differential equation. An approximate solution technique for solving this equation has been presented and compared with a numerical solution using MATLAB Simulink. For many applications, this technique affords a reasonably simple method for performing circuit analysis on typical interface circuits utilised with MEMS time-variant capacitive elements.

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