

EE313 Analog Electronic Laboratory

2017-2018 Fall Term Project

FMCW Based Distance Measuring System

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Abstract—Design of a Frequency Modulated Continuous Wave (FMCW) Based Distance Measuring System

Index Terms—Radar, Oscillator, Amplifier, Fmcw, Mixer, Filter

I. INTRODUCTION

In this project, it is aimed to design a frequency modulated continuous wave (FMCW) purposed on measuring distance. FMCW radar concept is used in wide range of applications such as cruise control, crash mitigation and pre-crash sensing [1]. Utilizing from waves with modulated frequencies, distance measurement is possible by finding the frequency difference between transmitted and received waves. There are several blocks constructing this radar system. Overall project diagram is presented in *Figure 1*. Each block will be discussed in detail in related sections.

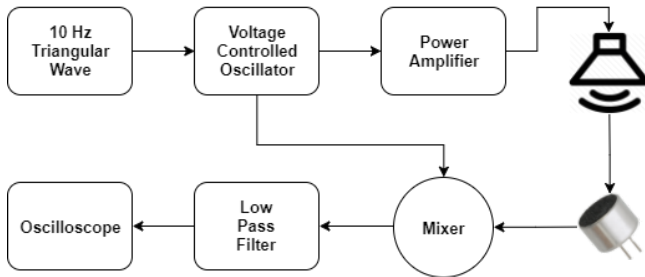


Figure 1: The Overall Block Diagram

II. TRANSMITTER

A. Voltage Controlled Oscillator

Voltage controlled oscillator (VCO) is a voltage-to-frequency mapper. VCO outputs variable frequency voltage as the input voltage changes. The used VCO circuit in this project can be seen in *Figure 2*. To be able to generate frequency modulated signal that is the basic function of VCO, the main input to the circuit is a triangular wave. The triangular wave provides varying input voltage so that output frequency changes gradually. The modulated triangular wave is observed at the V_{ModTri} node. Charging and discharging phenomena of capacitor C_1 is the main reason of the oscillation at the V_{ModTri} node. While capacitor charges, modulated wave climbs down and as capacitor discharges through R_4 ,

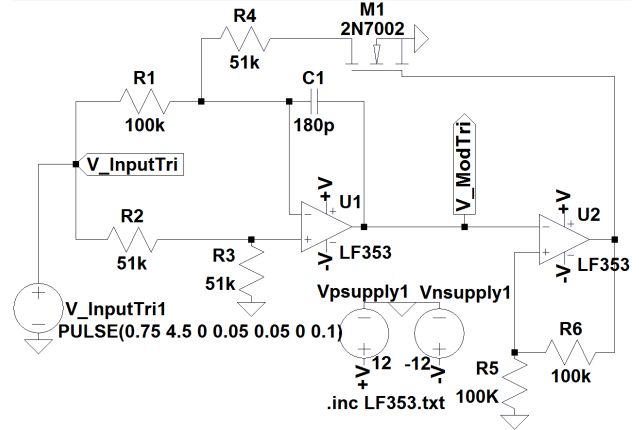
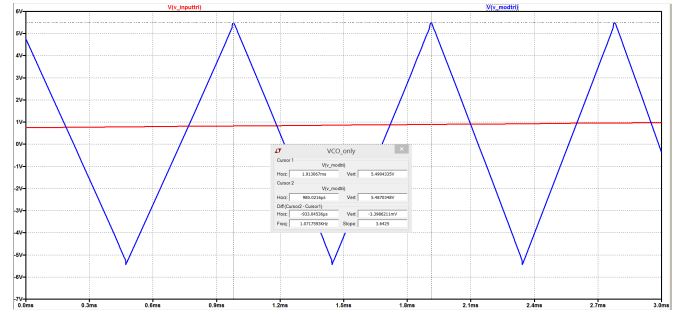
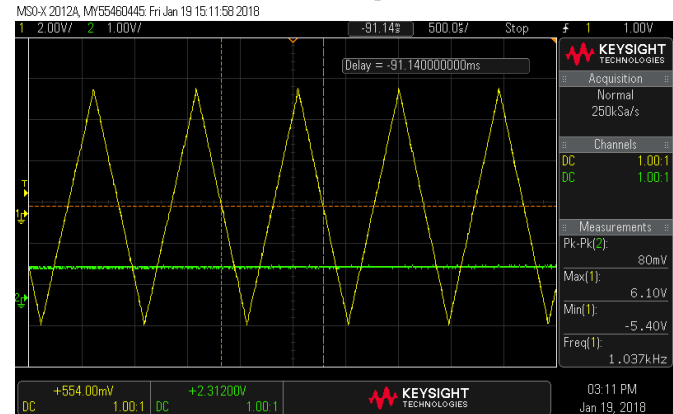


Figure 2: The Voltage Controlled Oscillator Circuit

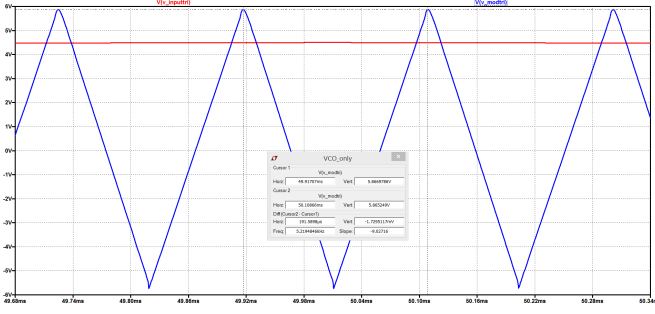


(a) Theoretical Output of VCO.

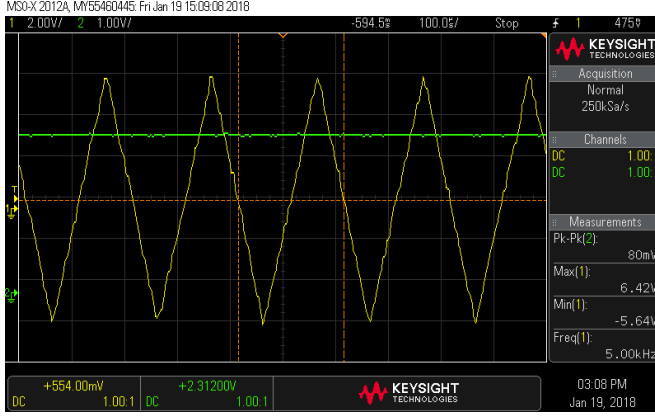


(b) Practical Output of VCO.

Figure 3: VCO Outputs for 1kHz.



(a) Theoretical Output of VCO.



(b) Practical Output of VCO.

Figure 4: VCO Outputs for 5kHz.

modulated wave climbs up. Capacitor charging-discharging cycles do effect the output frequency, however, are not the real reason of modulated triangular wave at the V_{ModTri} node. If there were a constant DC input, the output would be just an oscillating triangular wave with a certain frequency. The main reason for modulated frequency is the changing input voltage. The output frequency depends on three factors. The first one is the capacitance. As capacitance of C_1 increases, the ability of holding charge of the capacitor increases. This results in longer cycles meaning lower frequency at the V_{ModTri} node. Secondly, the resistance R_1 sets a barrier for current flow through C_1 . In other words, as R_1 increases, the time for C_1 to charge up becomes longer. Hence longer wave cycles are observed again. Third and last factor is the input voltage value. A higher input voltage implies higher current through C_1 . Thus, the time for C_1 to charge up becomes shorter. As a result, higher frequency cycles are observed at the V_{ModTri} node.

To handle these frequent voltage changes, high slew rated LF353 [2] opamps are used. Also for biasing purposes, a N-MOS with low open voltage provides lower DC offset at the input $V_{InputTri}$. 2N7000 [3] model N-MOS suits for this application. Simulation and theoretical results for two corner frequencies are presented in Figure 3 and Figure 4. VCO outputs are revealed as expected in theoretical results. The resistor and capacitor values are chosen initially by observing examples on websites [4] and later by trial and error. The ratio of $\frac{R_5}{R_5+R_6}$, which is the threshold voltage of the Schmitt Trigger represented with U_2 , sets the peak voltage of the

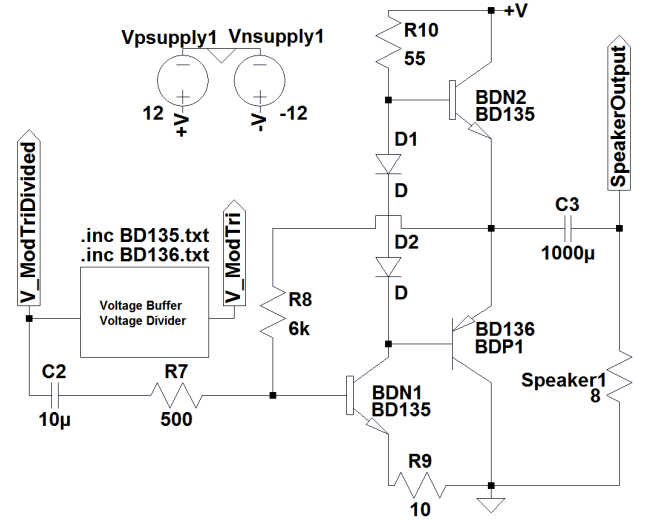


Figure 5: Power Amplifier Circuit Driving the Speaker

V_{ModTri} . This voltage is $\sim 6V$ in our design.

B. Power Amplifier and Speaker

This part is aimed to transmit the frequency modulated signal, which is the output of the VCO, to a medium by using a power amplifier. A Class AB amplifier is utilized for this purpose. The amplifier is basically composed of two stages that are common emitter driver and AB amplifier.

The main transistor of common emitter driver is BDN_1 . This transistor sets the DC biasing of BDN_2 and BDP_1 . It may be considered as a current source. Also, the input signal is output as inversely polarized at the collector of the BDN_1 .

The class AB amplifier mainly consists of two transistors one of which is a NPN and the other is PNP. The diodes D_1 and D_2 are to provide Q point stability of the transistors. Also they provide constant voltage difference between the bases of BDN_2 and BDP_1 . When the voltage in positive cycle, BDN_2 amplifies the signal whereas BDP_1 amplifies the signal in negative cycle. These transistors operate cooperatively according to the cycle of the signal. Lastly, feedback resistor R_1 reduces the distortion of the output signal by introducing a negative feedback to the input signal in shunt-shunt topology. On the other hand, the DC biasing of BDN_1 is improved with the use of R_1 .

The simulation results for power amplifier regarding current through and voltage across speaker is shown in Figure 6. The rms of triangular wave can be found by $\frac{V_{peak}}{\sqrt{3}}$. With this in mind, power consumed by the speaker is simply $\frac{4.3V \times 0.53A}{3} \approx 0.76$ Watts. In breadboard, however, the circuit didn't function properly. In simulation, transistors were all in forward active region and BDN_2 and BDP_1 were satisfying $12V - 6V - 0V$ DC voltage biasing as in Figure 7.

III. RECEIVER

A. Microphone & Microphone Driver

To receive the sound signal coming from the speaker and turn it into a electrical signal, some kind of speaker should be used. For this purpose, an electret microphone will be used.

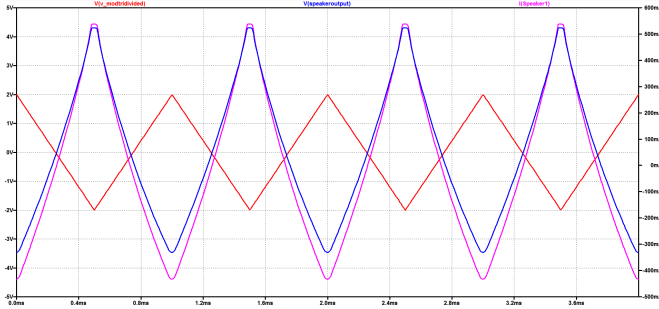


Figure 6: Power Amplifier Voltage Waveforms Across Speaker

Name:	qSbdp1	qSbdn2	qSbdn1
Model:	bd136	bd135	bd135
Ib:	-6.82e-03	1.55e-02	7.78e-04
Ic:	-7.23e-01	7.15e-01	8.63e-02
Vbe:	-7.27e-01	8.10e-01	4.29e-01
Vbc:	5.24e+00	-5.22e+00	-3.94e+00
Vce:	-5.97e+00	6.03e+00	4.37e+00
BetaDC:	1.06e+02	4.62e+01	1.11e+02
Gm:	1.75e+01	1.81e+01	2.97e+00

Figure 7: Power Amplifier Circuit DC Biasing Parameters

To drive the electret microphone, a driver circuit is designed. The design should include feeding for the transistor inside the microphone and amplify the output signal since the output signal would be too small to be used. But before amplifying the signal, we shall remove possible dc offsets and noises by a passive high pass filter. The designed driver can be seen at Figure 8.

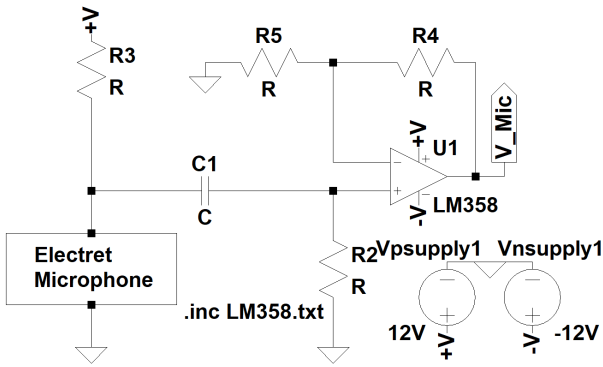


Figure 8: Driver Circuit for Electret Microphone

By node analysis, the lower cutoff frequency of the highpass filter can be found as

$$f_c = \frac{1}{2\pi R_2 C_1}$$

If we take $R_2 = 10k\Omega$ and $C_1 = 0.1\mu F$, cutoff frequency f_c can be found as

$$f_c = \frac{1}{2\pi * 10 \text{ k}\Omega * 0.1 \text{ }\mu F} \approx 159 \text{ Hz}$$

The resulting f_c will be enough to remove noise and DC offsets.

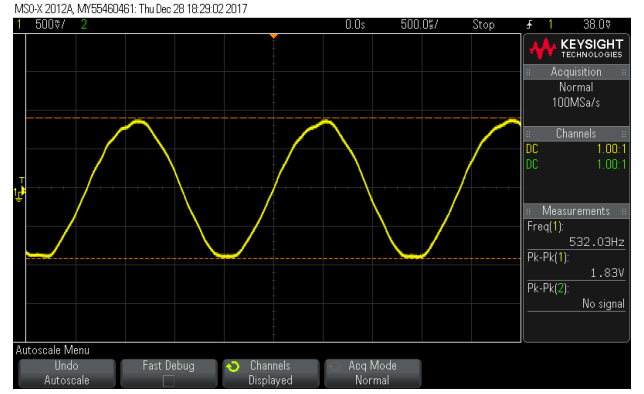


Figure 9: Output Signal of Microphone Circuit at Laboratory

The Output waveform for the microphone circuit for given sound signal at the laboratory can be seen at Figure 9.

B. Mixer

Mixer is the device that accepts two input signals and gives a output signal that consists of two distinct signals with different frequencies. While, one of these signals has a frequency that is equal to the difference between the frequencies of first signal and second signal, other signal has a frequency that is summation of the frequencies of first and second signal. In other words, if we assume input signal 1 has a frequency f_1 and input signal 2 has a frequency f_2 . The output signal would look like

$$O/P \text{ Signal} = A(f_1 + f_2) + B(|f_1 - f_2|)$$

where A and B are the signals having frequencies

$$f_A = f_1 + f_2 \text{ \&}$$

$$f_B = |f_1 - f_2|$$

respectively.

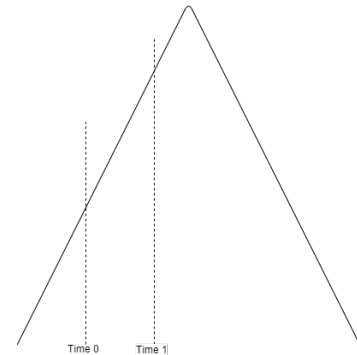


Figure 10: One Period of Triangular Wave

We also know that the distance between source and receiver causes a time delay proportional to the distance for the received signal in comparison to the transmitted signal. Thanks to triangular wave and the voltage controlled oscillator we used at the beginning of the project, the distance between the

source and receiver is also proportional to the the frequency difference between original source signal and received signal by receiver. This can be understood from the basic principle of VCO. Assume that the first signal left the VCO and entered the mixer at Time 0 and has a frequency f_1 proportional to the magnitude of triangular wave at Time 0. Similarly second signal entered the Mixer at Time 1 and has a frequency f_2 proportional to the magnitude of triangular wave at Time 1. One period of the input triangular wave and "Time 0" & "Time 1" on top of it can be seen at *Figure 10*.

Therefore, the time shift "Time 1 – Time 0" is proportional to the " $|f_2 - f_1|$ ". Thus, if we can find the frequency difference between this signal, we can easily find the desired distance since the distance can be found by

$$d = (\text{Time 1} - \text{Time 0}) * v_s = K * |f_1 - f_2|$$

where K is a constant and v_s is the speed of sound.

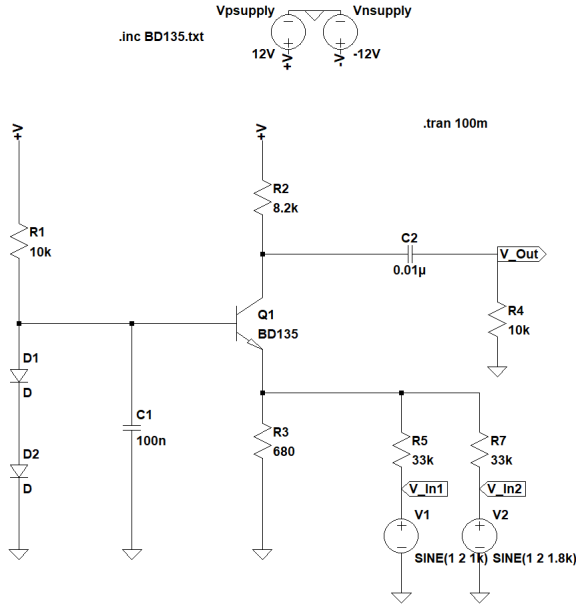


Figure 11: A Mixer Circuit

The value of the constant ' K ' can be found easily by considering the time that takes for the voltage controlled oscillator to span the half of the rectangular wave. In other words, the wave spans the 4 kHz frequency distance at half period, that is $\frac{1}{20}$ second for 10 Hz. Therefore, for any frequency difference to happen, the time takes can be found to be as

$$t = \frac{f * T}{2} * \frac{1}{4k} = \frac{f}{80} * 10^{-3} \text{ second}$$

Thus, the distance between source and receiver can be by considering the time takes for any frequency difference and the distance sound wave can cover at that frequency, that is

$$d = v_s * t = \frac{v_s * f}{80} * 10^{-3} = \frac{343 * f}{80} * 10^{-3} \text{ meter}$$

$$d = 4.2875 * f * 10^{-3} \text{ meter}$$

Thus, the constant ' K ' can be found as

$$K = 4.2875 * 10^{-3} \text{ meter}$$

and the distance measured can be found as

$$d_{\text{measured}} = K * f_B = 4.2875 * f_B * 10^{-3} \text{ meter}$$

where f and f_B are the unitless numerical values of the frequency difference.

For that reasons, a mixer circuit is a very crucial part of our project to be designed. A basic mixer circuit we have used can be seen at *Figure 11*.

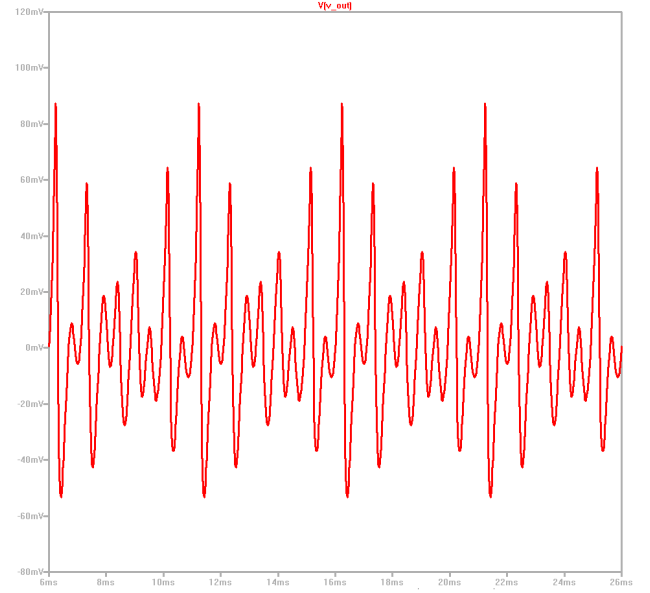


Figure 12: The Output Waveform of the Mixer Circuit

To test our design, we have used LTSpice for simulations. Applying two sinusoidal inputs from 33kΩ resistor with 1 kHz frequency & 1.8 kHz frequency, we observed the output waveform at the *Figure 12*. To understand whether it works or not, the 'FFT Spectrum Analysis' was used. As can be seen from the *Figure 13*, we have observed impulses at input frequencies, at difference frequency, at total frequency and their second and higher harmonics. Since we would use low-pass filter after the mixer, we were not worried about the higher order harmonic since they would be eliminated at the output anyway.

To test the design at the laboratory, we have used similar methods. By using two signal generators, we supplied the mixer circuit with two sinusoidal signal with different frequencies. The output waveform after that procedure can be seen at *Figure 14*.

After finding the proper mixer circuit, the only step-back from measuring the distance was designing a proper low pass filter. Since we wanted the filter to have sharp frequency response we have used second order low pass filter. The following section will explain the design steps of the filter.

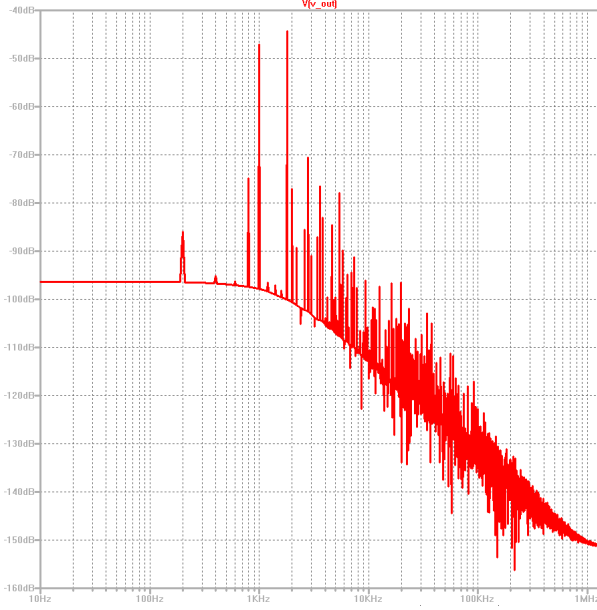


Figure 13: The Output FFT Waveform of the Mixer Circuit

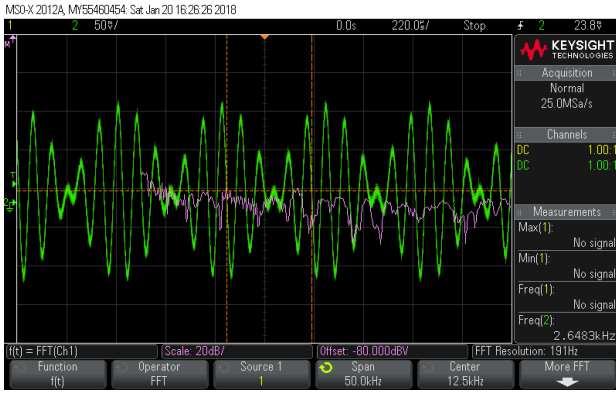


Figure 14: The Practical Output Waveform of the Mixer Circuit

C. Low Pass Filter

Unfortunately, the output signal of the Mixer did not only carry the frequency difference information but also frequency summation information. Since we are only interested in the difference between the frequencies only, a low pass filter was used to extract the wanted signal.

Low Pass Filters are the type of filters that passes the signals having the frequencies lower than the desired frequencies also known as the cut-off frequencies of the filter. Other signals having higher frequencies would be eliminated at the output of the low pass filter. Low pass filter can be categorized by their included capacitor number. For instance, if one low pass filter includes only one capacitor and resistor, it can be named as first order low pass filter. Similarly, a filter with two capacitor can be considered as second order low pass filter. In our design we preferred to use a second order low pass filter in order to get sharp enough frequency response. A basic second order low-pass filter can be seen at Figure 15

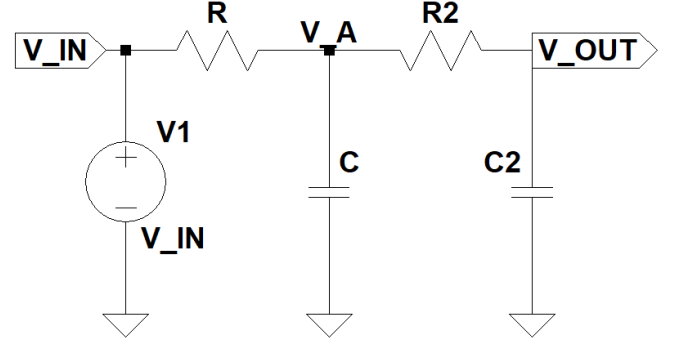


Figure 15: A Passive Second Order Low-Pass Filter

Low pass filters can also be categorized into two main type that are active filters and passive filters. Active filters are the ones that can amplify the desired signals and eliminate otherwise. These type of filters generally includes an op-amp for that purpose. A simple active second order low-pass filter can be seen at Figure 16. Whereas the passive low pass filters can only supply desired output signal with maximum unity gain. A general passive second order low-pass filter can be seen at Figure 15.

After considering the active one, we have decided using a passive second order low pass filter at Figure 15. For choosing proper resistance and capacitance values, the some KCL and KVL operations can be conducted on the circuit at S-Domain.

$$V_A = \frac{V_{in} * R}{R + \frac{1}{sC} // (R_2 + \frac{1}{sC_2})}$$

$$V_{out} = \frac{V_A * \frac{1}{sC_2}}{R_2 + \frac{1}{sC_2}}$$

Transfer function being

$$H(s) = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}}$$

Cut-off frequency can be found by rearranging terms into wanted form. If we equate $R = R_1$ & $C = C_1$ for the simplicity, after some effort the cut-off frequency can be found as

$$f_c = \frac{1}{2\pi RC}$$

The resistance values can be found from there by assuming the capacitor values for desired frequency. For

$$f = 1.5 \text{ kHz} = 1.5 * 10^3 \text{ Hz}$$

&

$$C = 10 \text{ nF} = 10^{-8} \text{ F}$$

Resistance R can be found as

$$R = \frac{1}{2\pi * 1.5 * 10^3 * 10^{-8}} \approx 10 \text{ k}\Omega$$

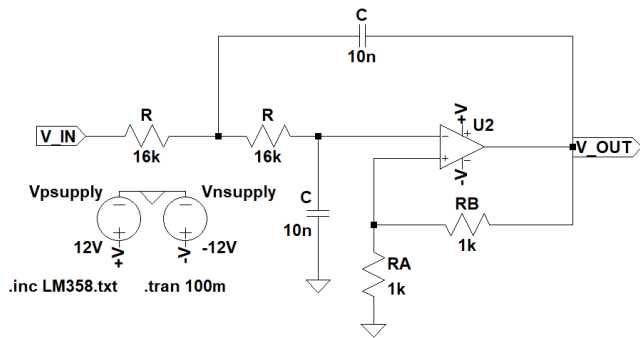


Figure 16: An Active Second Order Low-Pass Filter

To test the filter at dasjbdjasvdjhasvdjgasvdjgasvdj-gawvjgdjgadjaewjd

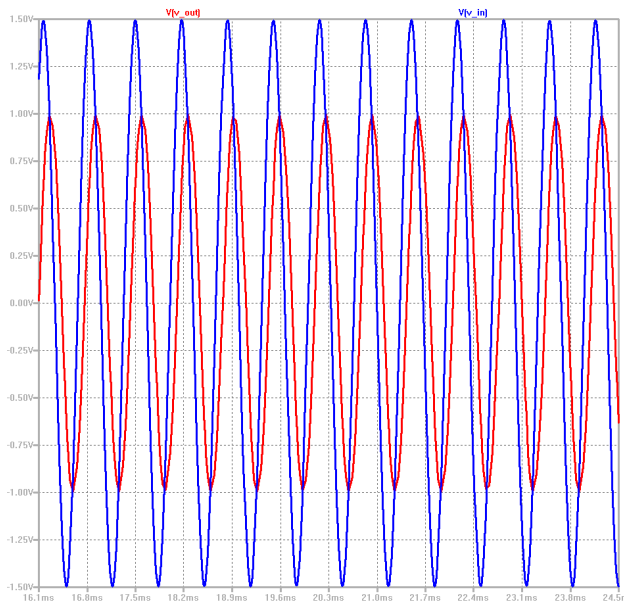


Figure 17: The Input & Output Signals for 1.5 kHz

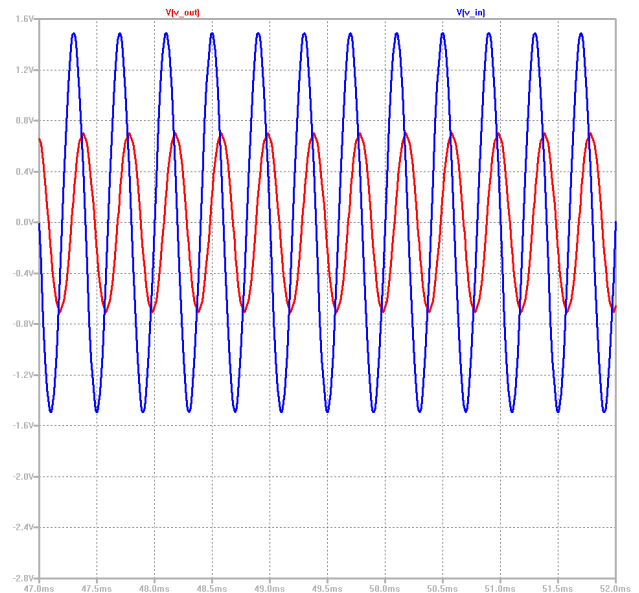


Figure 18: The Input & Output Signals for 2.5 kHz

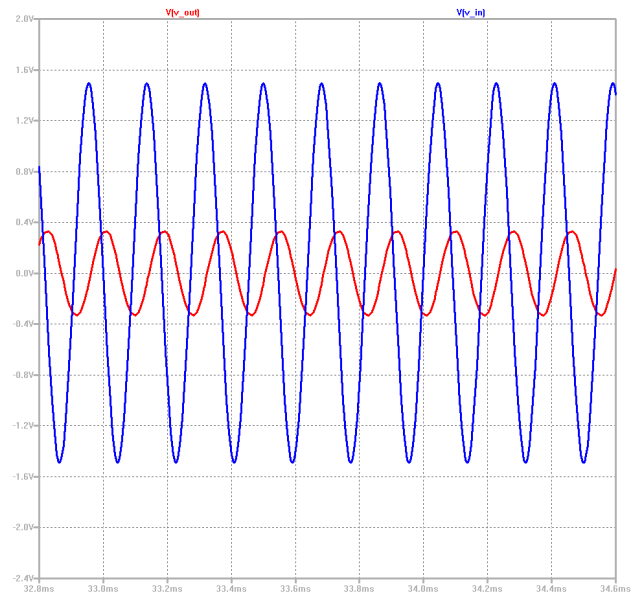


Figure 19: The Input & Output Signals for 5 kHz

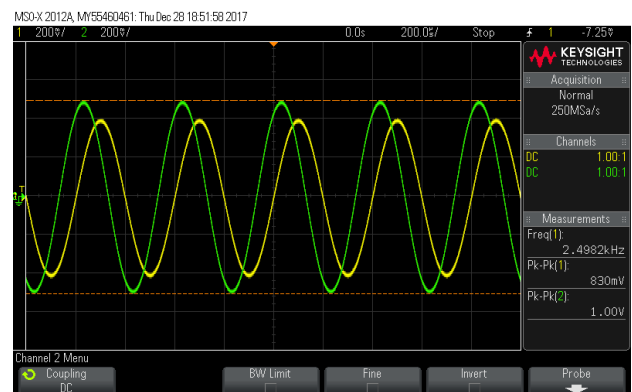


Figure 20: Practical Output Signal for 2.5 kHz

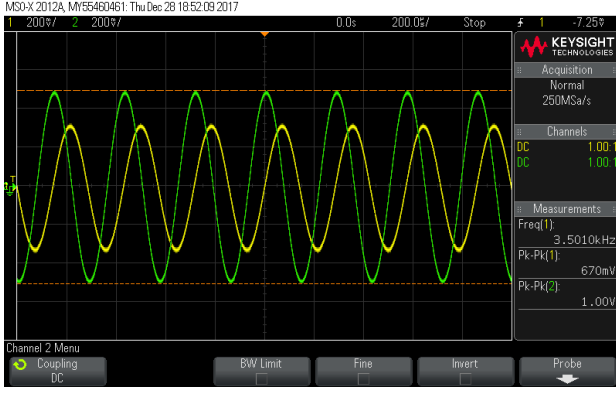


Figure 21: Practical Output Signal for 3.5 kHz

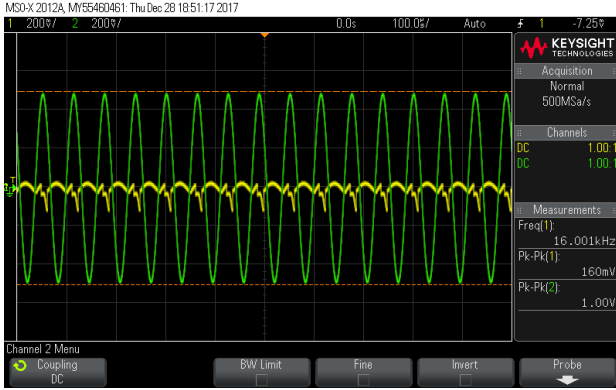


Figure 22: Practical Output Signal for 16 kHz

IV. GENERAL DIAGRAM

General diagram of the project can be seen at Figure 23.

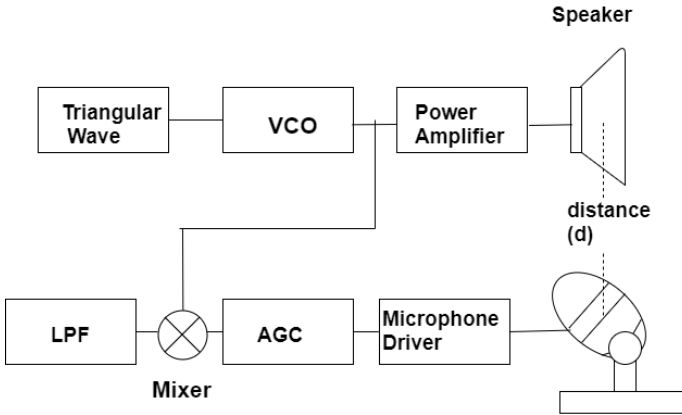


Figure 23: General Diagram of the Project

V. OVERALL PROJECT

Overall project built at the laboratory can be seen at Figure 24.

VI. CONCLUSION

First, a triangular voltage is generated with varying frequencies by a VCO circuit and 10 Hz triangular wave input. Then modulated triangular wave is sent to microphone by a speaker and to mixer at the same time. The microphone transmits the captured signal to the mixer. In the mixer, there are two equivalent inputs but with a phase shift. Output of the mixer is basically sum of two waves having frequencies $(f_1 + f_2)$ and $(|f_1 - f_2|)$ that are frequencies of two inputs of the mixer. If this signal is low-passed, the filtered signal have $(|f_1 - f_2|)$ frequency. By measuring $(|f_1 - f_2|)$, the distance between the speaker and the microphone can be found by a simple algebra, $K * (|f_1 - f_2|)$ where K is a constant to be determined and having unit of $\frac{\text{Meter}}{\text{Hertz}}$.

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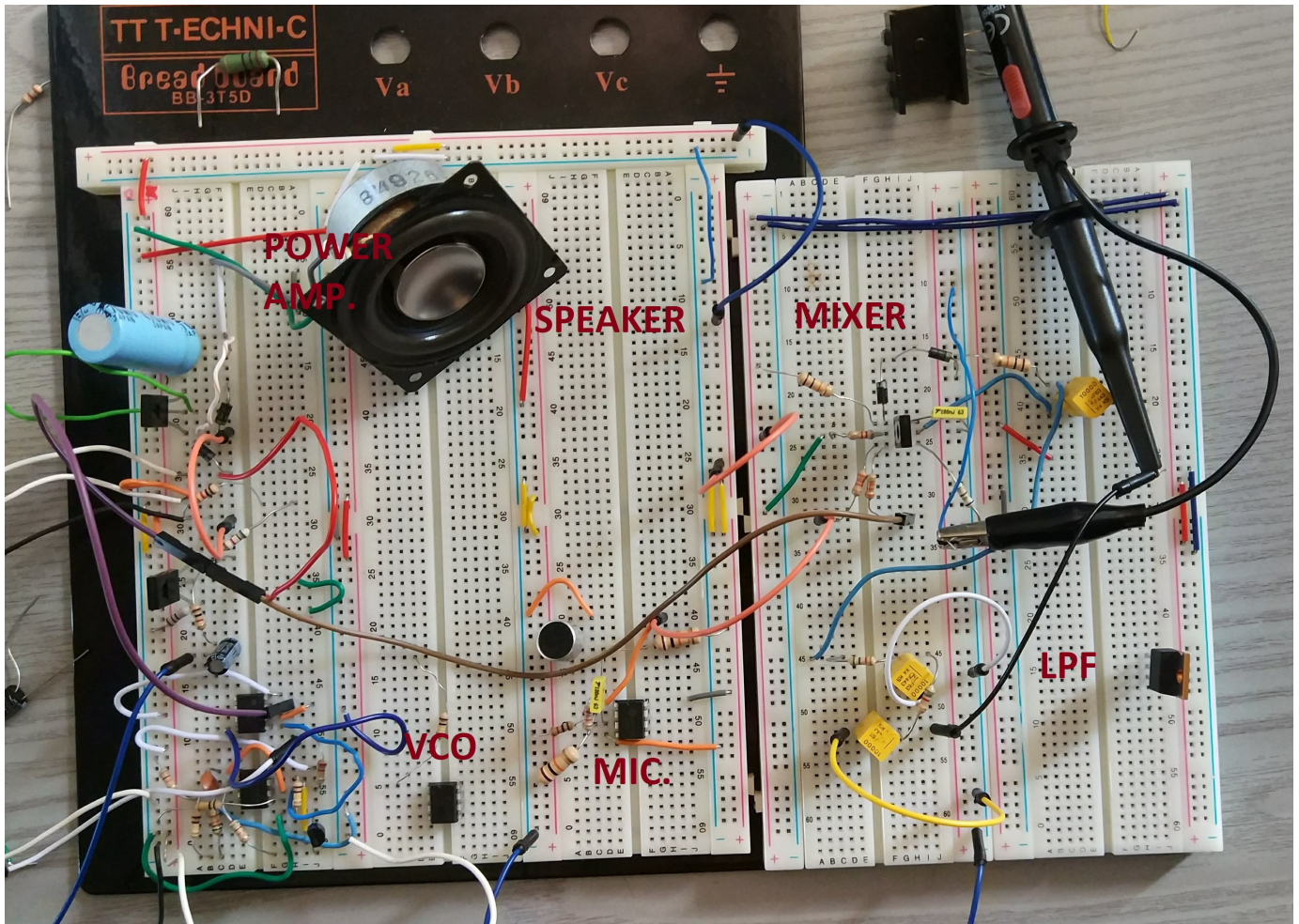


Figure 24: Overall Project