

**University of Alberta**

**Ultraviolet Stabilization and Performance Enhancement of Nanostructured  
Humidity Sensors**

by

**Daniel Patrick Smetaniuk**

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

**Master of Science**

in

**Microsystems and Nanodevices**

Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering

©Daniel Patrick Smetaniuk

Spring 2012

Edmonton, Alberta

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# Abstract

Glancing angle deposition (GLAD) was used to fabricate nanostructured  $\text{TiO}_2$  capacitive relative humidity (RH) sensors. These sensors exhibit sub-second response times and large sensitivities, but are susceptible to ageing. Ultraviolet (UV) treatment of the sensors has been found to reverse ageing and enhance sensor performance. This thesis presents research investigating the UV stabilization and performance enhancement of GLAD RH sensors. The UV treatment was characterized using a mercury vapour lamp and optical filters to isolate UV wavelengths. Treatment and long-term stabilization with UV light-emitting diodes (LEDs) was studied and 370 nm was identified as the optimum LED wavelength for stabilization. A custom 8-channel impedance analyzer that was built will allow for parallel sensor testing in future experimentation to optimize the UV treatment. The goal is to eventually combine a capacitive sensor with UV LEDs in a self-stabilizing sensing platform.

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# List of Symbols and Abbreviations

$\alpha$	Angle of vapour incidence	Degrees
$A$	FOM maximum value	
AC	Alternating current	
ADC	Analog to digital converter	
$\beta$	Column tilt angle	Degrees
$c$	FOM fit parameter	s
$C$	Capacitance	F
$C_0$	Reference capacitive response	F
$C_g$	IDE geometric capacitance	F
$C_s$	Capacitive sensor response	F
$C_x[\%RH]$	Capacitive response curve after treatment or ageing	F
CMOS	Complimentary metal oxide semiconductor	
CW	Continuous wave	
$\Delta E_v$	Valence energy level offset	eV
$\Delta E_c$	Conduction energy level offset	eV
$\Delta f_m$	Measured frequency spacing size	Hz
$D$	Diffusivity	m <sup>2</sup> /s
$d$	Film thickness	m
$d_{barrier}$	Barrier layer width	m
$d_{pore}$	Pore diameter	m
$d_{QW}$	Quantum well layer width	m
DAC	Digital to analog converter	
DDS	Direct digital synthesis	

DFT	Discrete fourier transform	
DUT	Device under test	
$\epsilon_{RH}$	Absolute error for relative humidit measurements	
$f$	Frequency	Hz
$f_{clk}$	System clock frequency	Hz
$f_m$	DDS output (measuring) frequency	Hz
$f_s$	ADC sampling frequency	Hz
FET	Field effect transistor	
FIFO	First-in-first-out	
$FOM$	Figure of Merit (relative)	
$FOM^*$	Figure of Merit (absolute)	
FWHM	Full width at half maximum	
$\gamma$	Surface tension of water	N/m
GLAD	Glancing angle deposition	
GRIN	Graded index	
$i_R$	Alternating current through the range resistor	A
$i_x$	Alternating current through the unknown impedance	A
$I$	Current	A
$I_r$	Current through the feedback resistance	A
$I_x$	Current through the unknown impedance	A
IDC	Interdigitated capacitor	
IDE	Interdigitated electrode	
$\lambda$	Wavelength	m
$L$	Diffusion length	m
$L$	Inductance	H
L	Number of sampled periods	
LED	Light emitting diode	
LCR	Inductance (L), capacitance (C), resistance (R)	
LPF	Low-pass filter	
$m$	FOM fit parameter	1/s

$M_w$	Molar mass of water	g/mol
MFC	Mass flow controller	
N	Number of samples	
$\omega$	Angular frequency	rad/s
$\phi$	Substrate rotation angle	Degrees
$P_s$	Saturation water vapour partial pressure	Pa
$P_w$	Water vapour partial pressure	Pa
PIR	Phase increment register	
PGA	Programmable gain amplifier	
QCM	Quartz crystal microbalance	
$\rho$	Density of water	g/cm <sup>3</sup>
R	Molar gas constant	J K <sup>-1</sup> mol <sup>-1</sup>
$R$	Resistance	$\Omega$
$R_r$	Feedback resistance	$\Omega$
$R_{out}$	Series output resistance	$\Omega$
$R_R$	Range resistor	$\Omega$
RH	Relative humidity	%
$RH_{min}$	Minimum relative humidity for FOM calculation	%
$RH_{max}$	Maximum relative humidity for FOM calculation	%
$r_k$	Kelvin radius	m
SAW	Surface acoustice wave	
SCL	Serial clock	
SDA	Serial data line	
SoC	System-on-a-chip	
$\tau$	Response time	s
$\tau$	Time constant	s
$\theta$	Impedance phase angle	Degrees
$\theta_x$	Unknown impedance phase angle	Degrees
$t$	Time	s
$T$	Temperature	Kelvin

$T_{meas}$	Measurement time	s
TFT	Thin film transistor	
$u_0$	Test signal	V
$u_i$	Measured current signal, differential amp output	V
$u_R$	Signal across range resistor	V
$u_u$	Measured voltage signal, buffer output	V
$u_x$	Signal across unknown impedance	V
$U_i$	Complex result of DFT on signal $u_i$	
$U_u$	Complex result of DFT on signal $u_u$	
UV	Ultraviolet	
$V$	Voltage	V
$V_r$	Voltage across the feedback resistance	V
$V_x$	Voltage across the unknown impedance	V
$X$	Reactance	$\Omega$
$X_C$	Capacitor reactance	$\Omega$
$X_L$	Inductor reactance	$\Omega$
XRD	X-ray diffraction	
$Z$	Impedance	$\Omega$
$Z_x$	Unknown impedance	$\Omega$

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

This thesis presents research on high-speed, high-sensitivity humidity sensors. Chapter 1 provides a definition of relative humidity and gives examples of humidity sensing applications, specifically those requiring sensors with fast response times. The motivation and scope of the research are discussed and an outline of the thesis is given.

### 1.1 Definition of Relative Humidity

Relative humidity is a measure of the water content in air and is defined as the ratio of the partial pressure of water vapour in an air mixture to the saturated water vapour partial pressure, described as a percent:

$$\text{RH} = \frac{P_w}{P_s} \times 100\% \quad (1.1)$$

where RH is the relative humidity,  $P_w$  is the water vapour partial pressure, and  $P_s$  is the saturated water vapour partial pressure.

### 1.2 Humidity Measurement Applications

Relative humidity sensors are crucial to measurement and control systems in a wide variety of industries. The textbook "Water Vapor Measurement Methods and Instrumentation" [1] provides many application examples, several of which are given below.



Moisture sensing is critical to the microelectronics fabrication industry. Even trace levels of water vapour in a process can reduce yields drastically. Highly sensitive humidity sensors are important for monitoring these processes. Museums and library archives housing centuries-old pieces of art and literature need to carefully control humidity levels and maintain environment conditions to preserve artifacts. Humidity control is important for indoor air quality. At room temperature, the optimum humidity environment for humans is between 40 % RH and 60% RH. Proper humidity control is necessary to prevent harmful fungi and other microbial growth, prevent indoor smog, and reduce allergen levels that may exacerbate asthma. Numerous medical applications require humidity measurements including incubators, artificial heart growth, medical gas supplies, and sterilizers. Heat treatment processes for metals and alloys aim to create hard surface coatings, making metal alloys more resistant to fatigue and corrosion. During treatment, careful measurement and control of gases, including water vapour, is required to achieve the desired properties. Industrial driers account for significant energy use in many industries and often suffer from poor thermal efficiency. Humidity control systems can improve efficiency and reduce energy and fuel use. In food processing, the amount of moisture during processing and packageing can affect taste, color, and the shelf life of the foods. Humidity is critical to many meteorological applications. Ground-based and aerial humidity sensors are important for weather forecasting. The lift produced by airplanes during takeoff and landing depends on humidity, and proper measurements are important for lift calculations. There are many more humidity sensing applications than the small subset given here.

### **1.2.1 Applications Requiring Fast Response Times**

There are some applications which require high-speed humidity sensing. The example applications discussed below can either be improved by faster and more sensitive humidity sensor technology, or have yet to be fully realized because the required technology is not yet available.

Tropospheric water vapour is an important factor in climate and weather systems and measurement of this water vapour is important for meteorology. Water

vapour concentrations are routinely measured by launching radiosondes; however, these offer poor spacial and temporal resolution of the complex three-dimensional water vapour profiles [2]. High-speed humidity sensors with a 10 Hz bandwidth fixed to aircraft can map atmospheric water vapour with high spatial and temporal resolution. High-resolution and high accuracy mapping of water vapour profiles in the atmosphere will assist with areas such as atmospheric chemistry, hydrology, severe weather prediction, climate research, and polar studies [2].

Analysis of human perspiration measurements can provide valuable information on patient health, and is also used for designing clothing for use under various climatic conditions [1]. There is a need for researchers to measure perspiration rates during exercise and physical exertion. Humidity sensors for measuring perspiration rates must be portable, have high accuracy, fast response times, and be highly sensitive to humidity changes. These sensors must be able to accurately and quickly track small perspiration fluctuations that result from changes in the physical exertion of the patient.

Spirometers measure the volume of air inhaled and exhaled by the lungs and are used to diagnose and treat asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, which affect between 10-20% of the population worldwide [3]. Currently spirometers use mechanical peak expiratory flow meters, which often display large discrepancies and have limited accuracy. Development of a multisensor microsystem to replace the mechanical systems requires high-speed humidity sensors with sub-second response times [3–6].

High-speed humidity sensors may also be used for replacing devices requiring direct airway connections for respiration monitoring of neonates, patients under risk of airway obstruction or exhibiting apnea, or patients undergoing anesthesia [7, 8]. These devices are used to alert when apnea or hypoapnea events occur. Apnea results in a lower oxygen content in the blood, which can lead to brain damage, so quick detection is crucial. With newborns, raised respiratory rates in the range of 60 breaths per minute may be a sign of illness or infection [9]. Humidity sensors with very fast response times are needed to detect these breathing rates.

### 1.3 Motivation and Scope of Thesis Research

Improving humidity sensor performance generally requires modifying factors such as material, thickness, porosity, surface area, and morphology. Our group has developed a physical vapour deposition technique, Glancing Angle Deposition (GLAD) that allows for the deposition of high porosity nanostructured thin films [10–14]. We have fabricated capacitive relative humidity sensors by depositing porous GLAD thin films on top of interdigitated electrodes (IDEs) to form a capacitive relative humidity sensor [15,16]. Response times as fast as 50 ms have been demonstrated with a  $\text{TiO}_2$  sensing layer [17–19]. Typically these sensors have a large dynamic range with capacitive changes of 1 nF to 1  $\mu\text{F}$  from 2 %RH to 95 %RH. However, as is characteristic with metal oxide sensing layers, the sensors are vulnerable to ageing over time [20]. The GLAD process and GLAD RH sensors are described in Chapter 3. Many commercial humidity sensors use polymer sensing layers, which are often stable to under 2% RH a year. These sensors typically have a sensitivity under 1 pF/%RH, an accuracy of 2-3% RH and response times of 5 - 60 seconds [21–25].

$\text{TiO}_2$  is well known as a photocatalyst which is active under ultraviolet (UV) light. Because of this effect titanium dioxide is used in a wide range of applications such as water purification, air cleaning, anti-fogging coatings, and self-cleaning surfaces [26, 27]. Previously our group has studied the effect of UV treatments with a mercury vapour lamp on ageing and sensor performance with GLAD  $\text{TiO}_2$  relative humidity sensors [28, 29]. The results of the study, presented in Chapter 3, found that a 48 hour UV treatment not only reverses the effects of ageing in the sensors, but also improves performance.

Recent advancements and innovations in AlGaIn semiconductors, described in Chapter 4, have resulted in commercial availability of deep UV LEDs, with wavelengths down to approximately 200 nm now achievable. The cost of UV LEDs continues to decrease while the available power increases. UV LEDs offer a small, low power alternative to mercury vapour lamps and do not have environmental hazard disposal issues.

This thesis presents research investigating the effects of UV treatment on GLAD

RH sensors. The objective of the work is to enhance humidity sensor performance and long term stability by combining a capacitive sensor with a UV LED (Figure 1.1).

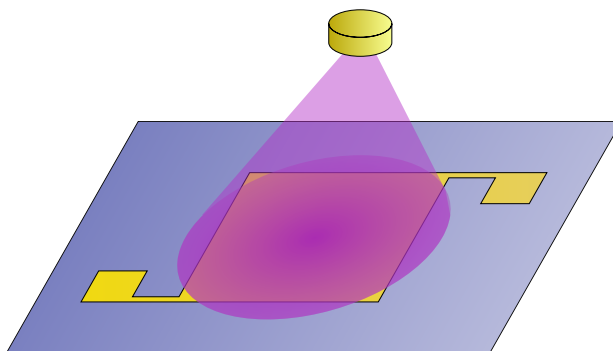


Figure 1.1: Concept of the integrated UV LED for a self-regenerating sensor.

Chapter 2 provides definitions of performance characteristics of humidity sensors and a background of types of technologies including the limitations. The physical mechanisms governing the performance of metal oxide humidity sensors are explained.

In Chapter 3 the GLAD process for fabricating nanostructured thin films is described. The development of GLAD relative humidity sensors is discussed and the issue of sensor ageing is addressed.

A background of the UV LED technology used for sensor treatment experiments is provided in Chapter 4.

Chapter 5 reports the results from a study characterizing the effect of wavelength during UV treatment on sensor performance and ageing. Optical filters were used with a mercury vapour lamp to isolate individual emission lines from the spectra of the lamp. Sensors were treated with different filtered wavelengths and the effect on sensor response and ageing was analyzed.

A study investigating UV treatment with UV LEDs with the goal of identifying an optimum UV LED wavelength is presented in Chapter 6. The long-term stability of sensors illuminated with UV LEDs is examined. The performance of GLAD RH sensors stabilized with UV LEDs is compared to commercial RH sensors.

Chapter 7 describes the design and testing of an 8-channel impedance measuring device. The device will be used in future experiments beyond the scope of this thesis.

Chapter 8 summarizes the research presented in this thesis. Suggestions for future work and research are given.

## Chapter 2

# Relative Humidity Sensing

This chapter describes a number of methods and types of humidity sensing, and how the devices work. The mechanisms of water adsorption on metal oxides and the effect of pore size on water capillary condensation are discussed. There are several terms used throughout the chapter to describe and compare the performance characteristics of sensors. These are defined below:

- **accuracy** — The combined error in the measured value compared to the actual value being measured. It usually incorporates sensor hysteresis, linearity, drift, and calibration in the figure and is quoted as a percent.
- **sensitivity** — The change in a sensor parameter with a change in humidity. e.g. for a capacitive sensor:  $\text{nF} / \%RH$
- **selectivity (specificity)** — The ability of a sensor to detect a particular analyte without detecting others.
- **hysteresis** — The maximum difference (in percent) between the rising and falling sensor output at a particular humidity.
- **stability** — The deviation of the output of the sensor across a range of conditions such as temperature or pressure, or the drift in sensor output over time.
- **response time** — Upon a step change in humidity, the time it takes the sensor output to rise or fall past a specific value.

- **linearity** — The maximum difference, in percent, of the measured output from a calibrated line of best fit for the device.
- **lifetime** — The length of time under which the sensor reliably and effectively operates within the specifications, after which it must be replaced.

The design trade-offs that exist between these different performance characteristics have led to a wide variety of different approaches and types of relative humidity sensors.

## 2.1 Types of Relative Humidity Sensors

### 2.1.1 LiCl Dewpoint Sensor

The Dunmore or LiCl dewpoint sensor was invented in 1938 and uses a fine glass or plastic tube coated with a LiCl solution (or sometimes other salts such as LiBr) around which two copper wires are wound. Voltage is applied to one of the wires. When the relative humidity is above approximately 12%, the LiCl solution becomes conductive and is heated by the applied voltage, causing water to evaporate from the solution. This in return decreases the conductivity of the solution. This process continues until an equilibrium is reached between the humidity in the air and the amount of water in the solution. The second wire is then used to measure the temperature, from which the dew point or relative humidity may be measured using LiCl saturation curves [30]. Lithium chloride sensors have the advantage of being low cost and having a low sensitivity to contaminants; however, they are limited by the fact that they cannot measure below 11% RH and have a low to moderate accuracy. Additionally they have slow response times, require frequent maintenance and calibration, and generate significant heat which restricts them from being used in small contained environments [1].

### 2.1.2 Gravimetric

Gravimetric humidity sensors rely on the change of mass of a structure during water adsorption or desorption. The very first hygrometer was invented by Nicholas de

Cusa in 1450 and used a ball of sheep's wool on a balance scale with weights on the other side to measure the change in mass of adsorbed water. Leonardo da Vinci later drew sketches of this device with sponges instead of wool for a better sensitivity to humidity [1]. A popular modern gravimetric humidity sensor is the quartz crystal microbalance (QCM), which uses the resonance of piezoelectric quartz with a hygroscopic layer on top. Water adsorbed in the hygroscopic layer changes the mass of the QCM, changing the resonant frequency, which is in the MHz range. Humidity is measured by the change in frequency. Polyimide, porous ceramics, sol-gel silica, and fullerene layers may be used as the hygroscopic layer. A second non-coated QCM can be used as a reference to account for frequency changes resulting from temperature or pressure changes. Surface acoustic wave (SAW) devices are also another type of gravimetric sensor. The operation of SAW devices relies on the change in phase velocity of surface waves resulting from adsorbed water. SAW devices usually consist of two pairs of interdigitated electrodes (IDEs) on a piezoelectric substrate, one the emitter and one the receiver, with a hygroscopic layer between the two electrodes. Similar to the QCM sensors, two SAW devices may be used, one without a hygroscopic layer, to account for cross-sensitivities. These types of sensors have wide operating ranges, low contamination sensitivity, and fast response times, but are generally more expensive and are not suitable for *in situ* measurements since they require a sample gas flow and often a reference gas flow [1].

### **2.1.3 Hygrometric**

Hygrometric humidity sensing is another old method that utilizes the mechanical expansion or contraction of a material during water adsorption or desorption to measure relative humidity. An early hygrometer invented by Santorrio Santorre in 1625 used the expansion and contraction of a lyre string with humidity to raise and lower a weight on one end [1]. Many hygrometers use the expansion or contraction of human or animal hair in their mechanism. A recent example of such a device was developed by Ha *et al.* and uses a strand of hair with one end fixed, and the other connected to a thin metal sheet with a small window in it, supported



by a spring [31]. Light from a LED is transmitted through the window and is measured with a photodiode. When the humidity changes, the hair strand expands or contracts, moving the mirror and changing the amount of light transmitted. Other devices use polymer films which swell and contract under changing humidity. A sensor designed by Gerlach and Sager uses a polyimide layer on top of a silicone membrane. Stresses on the membrane caused by the swelling and contracting of the polyimide film with humidity are converted into a voltage output with piezoresistors located at points of high stress [32]. Another sensor designed by Singamaneni *et al.* uses a plasma polymerized methacrylonitrile layer on top of a silicon microcantilever to cause deflections in the cantilever in response to humidity changes because of tensile or compressive stresses that develop in the polymer layer [33].

#### **2.1.4 Optical**

There are several optical techniques that are used for humidity sensing. One technique, laser absorption spectroscopy, makes use of the absorption spectrum of water. Schirmer *et al.* transmitted laser light through a sample of air, and measured the absorption at certain wavelengths to determine the water content in the air sample [34]. Another technique relies on changes in the refractive index of a material as water is adsorbed. A Fabry-Perot interferometer measures changes in the resonant frequency of light in a structure with a medium between two reflective surfaces. A device presented by Mitschke uses a stack of  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  layers as a humidity sensor coupled with an optical fibre [35]. Light is passed through the fibre to the sensor, where it is reflected back to a detector. These devices have a high sensitivity and offer the potential of remote monitoring with signals passed over long optical fibers, but require fine control in the processing of the microporous optical layers. Our group has used glancing angle deposition (GLAD) to create a  $\text{TiO}_2$  film designed as a narrow bandpass filter by varying the porosity and thus the refractive index throughout the film [36]. Water adsorption and desorption in the film shifts the center wavelength of the bandpass filter. These sensors can be more complicated to fabricate and for accurate measurements require more expensive optical equipment. Other optical methods for sensing include materials that change color during

water adsorption, fluorescent and luminescent compounds, and light scattering [37].

### 2.1.5 Capacitive and Resistive

One of the most popular methods to measure humidity is with capacitive or resistive sensors in which adsorbed water results in a change in the capacitance or resistance of the device. Usually ceramics or hygroscopic polymers are used as the dielectric in capacitive sensors, while ceramics, polymers and electrolytes are used with resistive sensors.  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and  $\text{SiO}_2$  are commonly used metal oxides. The adsorption and desorption of water on metal oxides is described in detail in Section 2.2 of this chapter, and Traversa has extensively reviewed metal oxide relative humidity sensors [38]. Polymers for resistive sensors respond to humidity with conductance changes while polymers for capacitive sensors respond with a dielectric constant change. The advantage of polymers over ceramic sensors is their better linearity and long-term stability. However, polymers are very sensitive to heat and usually only operate at room temperature, whereas ceramics are able to operate at higher temperatures. Suitable polymers for capacitive sensors include polyimides, poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA), cellulose acetate butyrate (CAB), poly(ethylene terephthalate) (PET), and poly(vinyl crotonate) [39]. Suitable conductive polymers for resistive sensors include poly(*p*-diethynylbenzene) (PDEB) and poly(propargyl benzoate) (PPBT) [39].

The properties of capacitive sensors depends on the dielectric layer as well as the electrode geometry. Interdigitated electrodes (IDEs) allow the dielectric layer to remain exposed allowing for quick adsorption/desorption and fast response times. However, only half of the IDE electric field passes through the dielectric, while the other half passes through the substrate resulting in a smaller sensitivity. Top and bottom electrodes with the dielectric between results in a uniform electric field that is contained within the electrodes. The top electrode is usually fabricated very thin (10 - 80 nm of gold) to allow water to pass through [30]. Figure 2.1 shows schematics of interdigitated and parallel plate electrode configurations [40]. Other electrode configurations include vertically offset interdigitated, spiral, and grid (or porous electrode) [41]. The design of resistive sensors is usually similar to that of

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Figure 2.1: Top view and side view schematics of parallel plate and interdigitated electrode capacitor sensors. Source: [40]

capacitive sensors.

Field effect transistors (FETs) may also be used as gas sensors [42–44]. Many thin film transistor (TFT) sensors are compatible with standard complimentary metal oxide semiconductor (CMOS) technology commonly used to fabricate integrated circuits. With the proper sensing layer, these may be used as relative humidity sensors. A sensing layer is deposited on top of a bottom gate electrode. A permeable top electrode is deposited on top of the sensing layer, similar to the capacitive sensor design. The threshold voltage is related to the capacitance of the sensing layer, which changes as water is adsorbed. This results in a change in the drain current of the device.

### **2.1.6 Limitations of Current Technologies**

The humidity sensing technologies described above each address different requirements such as dynamic range, accuracy, cost, and size for a range of humidity sensing applications. However response time is an important performance characteristic that current technology has been deficient in addressing. Most commercial

humidity sensors have response times on the order of seconds to minutes. Some groups have been able to obtain sub-second response times, but the sensors have very low sensitivities and often have longer desorption times [3,4,6,8].

Porous metal oxide capacitive sensors are simple to fabricate using a variety of methods and promise very fast response times. Our group has demonstrated nanostructured porous metal oxide sensors with sub-second response times and dynamic ranges over three orders of magnitude. The fabrication process and the characteristics of these sensors is described in Chapter 3. The remainder of the current chapter explains some of the mechanisms governing humidity sensing with metal oxides.

## 2.2 Metal Oxide Relative Humidity Sensors

In principle, any metal oxide can be used for relative humidity sensing because of water adsorption on the surface. As the relative humidity increases, water condenses in the pores and capillaries of the metal oxide, resulting in a large increase in the dielectric constant and increase in conductivity.

### 2.2.1 Water Adsorption

There are two types of water adsorption that occur at the surface of a metal oxide, chemisorption and physisorption [42]. The first layer of water molecules are chemisorbed onto the oxide surface. This process starts with a water molecule physisorbed onto an activation site (Figure 2.2a-b). The water molecule then dissociates [45]:



resulting in a hydroxyl and hydrogen proton. The hydroxyl from the water molecule reacts with a metal cation at the surface, while the hydrogen proton reacts with the adjacent  $\text{O}^{2-}$  to form another hydroxyl  $\text{OH}^-$  group (Figure 2.2c) [38]. For every water molecule that dissociates the result is two hydroxyls on the oxide surface. Next a water molecule physisorbs to two chemisorbed surface hydroxyl groups with two hydrogen bonds (Figure 2.2d). The double hydrogen bonds in the first physisorbed layer prevent the physisorbed water molecules from being free to move or

rotate. However, subsequent layers of physisorbed water only have single hydrogen bonds and are more free to move and reorient (Figure 2.3).

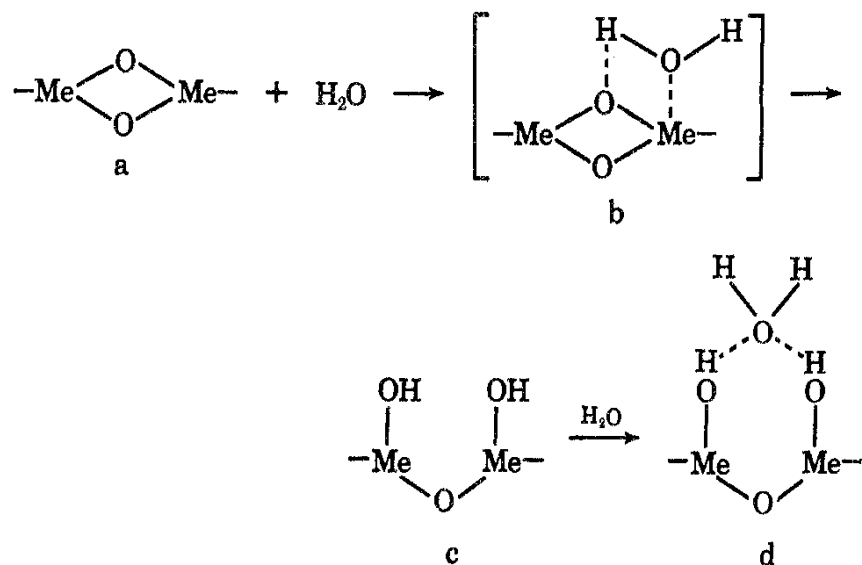


Figure 2.2: Mechanism through which water adsorbs on a metal oxide surface. a-b) a water molecule is physisorbed onto an activation site. c) The water molecule dissociates and reacts to form two surface hydroxyls. d) A water molecule is physisorbed by double hydrogen bonding to the two surface hydroxyls. Reprinted with permission from [46]. Copyright 1969 American Chemical Society.

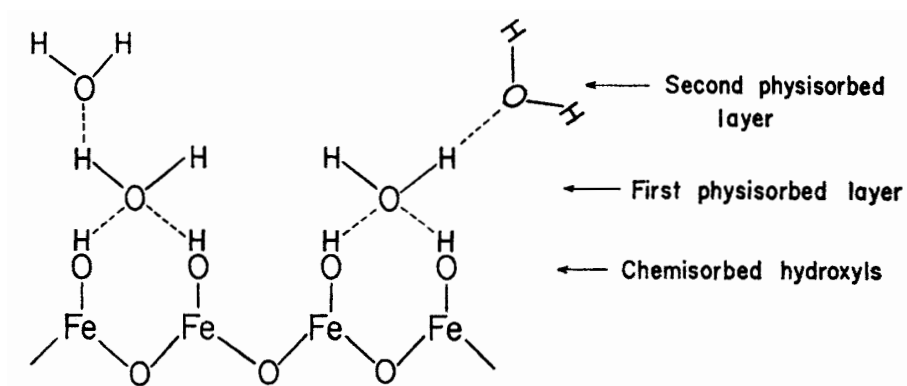


Figure 2.3: Example of adsorbed layers on an  $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  surface. Additional adsorbed layers form with single hydrogen bonding in the same way as the second physisorbed layer. Image from [47]. Reproduced by permission of the Royal Society of Chemistry.

As more layers are adsorbed, the water molecules become less ordered and more liquid-like in their behavior. This means that under an electric field the water molecules can form dipoles and orient themselves to the field, increasing the dielectric constant [38]. In this liquid-like layer, charge transfer is dominated by the Grotthuss mechanism [48, 49], in which hydrogen protons may hop between water molecules in a chain, temporarily forming  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  groups. The carrier concentration increases with the number of physisorbed layers, increasing conductivity.

### 2.2.2 Water Condensation in Pores and Capillaries

As the relative humidity increases, water vapour condensation occurs in pores and capillaries. Capillary condensation occurs for cylindrical pores closed at one end with a radius smaller than the Kelvin radius,  $r_k$ , according to the Kelvin equation:

$$r_k = \frac{2\gamma M_w}{\rho R T \ln P_s / P_w} \quad (2.2)$$

where  $\gamma$  is the surface tension of water,  $\rho$  is the density of water,  $M_w$  is the molecular weight of water,  $R$  is the universal gas constant,  $T$  is temperature, and  $P_w$  and  $P_s$  are the actual and saturation water vapour pressures respectively. The Kelvin radius will differ between hydrophilic and hydrophobic surfaces since the surface tension of water is related to the water contact angle. With pores that are open on both ends, hysteresis occurs between adsorption and desorption because water condenses in pores with radii up to  $r_k/2$  while desorption still occurs according to  $r_k$  [42, 50]. This is because in tubular pores open at both ends, capillary condensation first occurs along the inside edges of the pore until a cylindrically-shaped meniscus is formed, after which condensation will occur corresponding to an effective radius that is twice the pore radius [51]. In reality porous materials are made up of a network of open and closed pores.

Increasing the porosity or the surface area of a metal oxide will increase its sensitivity. Sensitivity may also be increased by increasing the number of surface sites available for water dissociation, such as oxygen vacancies on the surface [45]. Over time, stable chemisorbed  $\text{OH}^-$  groups form on the surface of metal oxides, reducing the number of sites available for water to dissociate and causing drift in

the response [20]. Sensor response may be regenerated by thermally heating the oxide to over 400 °C, causing desorption of  $\text{OH}^-$  groups [46]. Impurities present in the atmosphere may also adsorb or adhere to the surface, causing permanent changes to the sensor's response, however contaminants that adsorb in the same way as water may also be removed by heating [38].

## **Chapter 3**

# **Sensors by Glancing Angle Deposition: Prior Work**

### **3.1 Introduction**

Several types of sensors have been fabricated using the Glancing Angle Deposition (GLAD) process. This chapter first describes the GLAD process and how deposited film morphologies may be controlled with the process, and then explains sensor development using GLAD. Previous work on GLAD sensors, interdigitated electrode development, comparison of sensing materials, factors affecting response time, and sensor ageing are discussed.

### **3.2 Glancing Angle Deposition**

GLAD is a physical vapour deposition technique developed by the Brett group for growing nanostructured porous thin films [10–14]. It employs oblique incident vapour flux angles to create a variety of microstructures. With GLAD, film morphology may be controlled on a 10 nm scale. GLAD films may be made using virtually any material that can be deposited with physical vapour techniques and may be used in a variety of applications such as optical filters, nanosprings and sensors.

At oblique deposition angles columnar film growth results from adatom shadowing on the substrate surface. Initial nucleation sites of the deposited material shadow areas of the substrate where no material will be deposited (Figure 3.1).



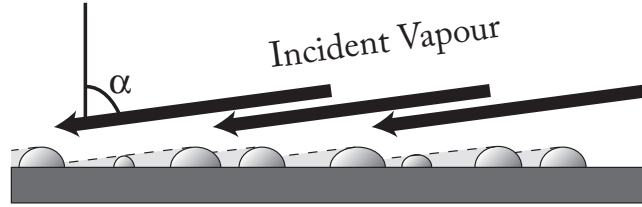


Figure 3.1: Shadowing by nucleation centers at oblique deposition angles. Reprinted with permission from [10] Copyright 2007, American Vacuum Society.

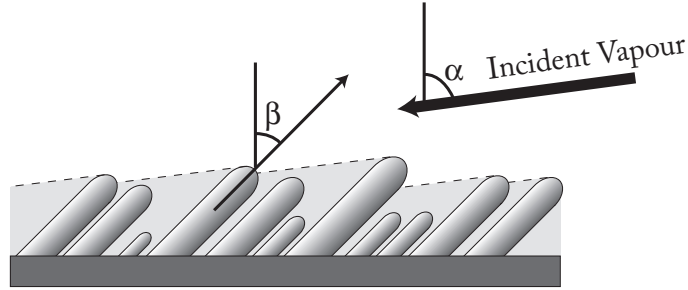


Figure 3.2: Tilted columnar growth of GLAD films. Reprinted with permission from [10] Copyright 2007, American Vacuum Society.

Rather than forming a continuous film, further material is deposited on the top areas of the nucleation sites and tilted columns grow out from the substrate (Figure 3.2). The column tilt angle  $\beta$  is different from the incident vapour flux angle  $\alpha$ .

Columnar film growth using GLAD requires a directional incident vapour flux with little divergence in order for shadowing to occur. Thermal and electron beam evaporation as well as long-throw sputtering provide suitable collimated vapour fluxes. Low adatom diffusion lengths on the substrate surface are also required for columnar film growth. This requires lower substrate temperatures that are generally less than 0.3 times the source material melting point, corresponding with zone 1 film growth [52]. At higher temperatures adatom diffusivity is large enough that shadowed areas are filled in, and separate columnar structures are not formed.

Figure 3.3 shows a typical setup for a GLAD system. The substrate is mounted on a chuck that is positioned above the vapour flux source. The chuck is moved around two degrees of freedom: the angle of incidence  $\alpha$  and the angle of rotation  $\phi$ . A quartz crystal microbalance (QCM) measures the vapour flux near the substrate, from which the deposition rate at the chuck is derived. A computer monitors the deposition rate and controls the substrate rotation.

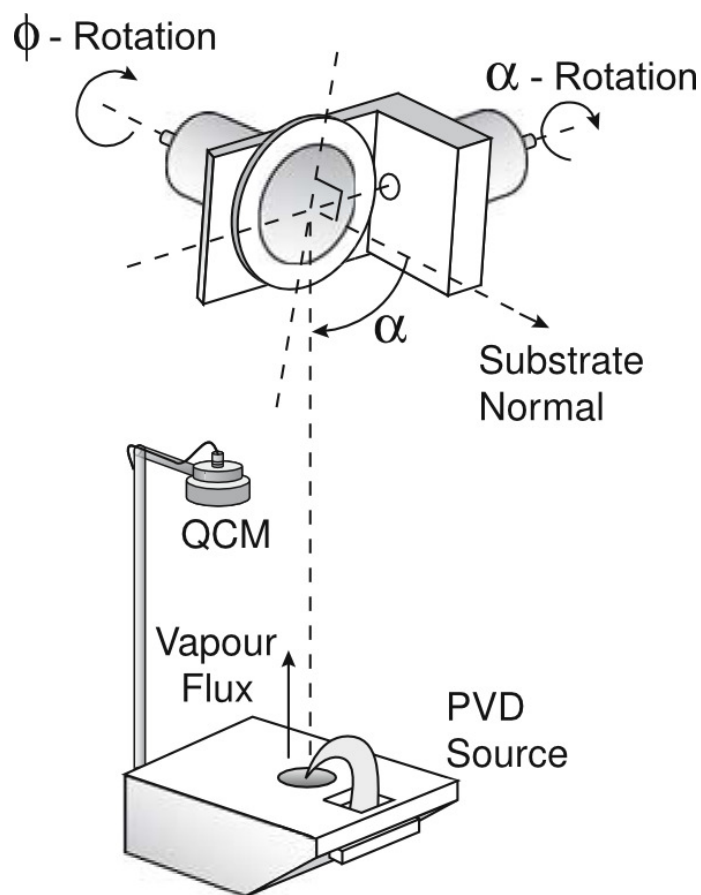


Figure 3.3: Typical GLAD system setup. Image from [12]. Reprinted with kind permission of Springer Science and Business Media.

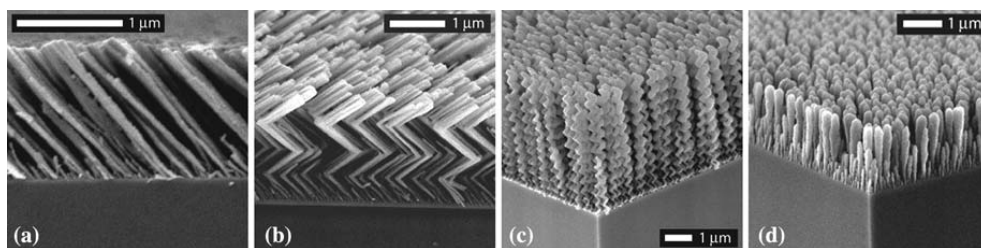


Figure 3.4: Effect of  $\phi$  rotation speed on film structure: (a) tilted columns with no rotation, (b) chevron film by increasing  $\phi$  by  $180^\circ$  between segments (c) helices at slow rotation speeds, (d) vertical columns at fast rotation speeds. Images from [12]. Reprinted with kind permission of Springer Science and Business Media.

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Figure 3.5: Effect of  $\alpha$  on film density.  $\alpha$  increases from (a)-(c) resulting in increased columnar separation and column width. Image from [40]

The structure of the deposited film may be controlled by adjusting the speed of substrate rotation about  $\phi$  (Figure 3.4). When the substrate is stationary, ballistic shadowing results in slanted columns growing outward from the substrate (Figure 3.4a) at an angle  $\beta$ , which is smaller than the deposition angle  $\alpha$  because of the geometry of the shadowing. Rotating the substrate  $180^\circ$  causes the columns to grow in the opposite direction. Chevron or zigzag structures can be created by periodically increasing  $\phi$  by  $180^\circ$  (Figure 3.4b). If  $\phi$  is continually increased at a slow rate, the direction of column growth follows the rotation and vertical helices or springs are formed (Figure 3.4c). When  $\phi$  is increased at a faster rate, the direction of column growth cannot respond fast enough to the changing vapour flux, and the structure degenerates into vertical columns (Figure 3.4d).

The density of posts in the film is controlled by changing the angle of incidence  $\alpha$  (Figure 3.5). As  $\alpha$  is increased the columnar separation also increases. The film morphology changes from small closely-packed columns to larger, more loosely spaced columns. The density -  $\alpha$  relationship and the surface area of GLAD films have been characterized [53]. The surface area of GLAD films was found to peak at around  $60^\circ$  -  $75^\circ$ , depending on the type of material. At larger deposition angles there are larger voids between columns because of increased columnar separation, which results in an overall decrease in surface area from the peak at lower angles.

### **3.3 GLAD Relative Humidity Sensors**

#### **3.3.1 Previous GLAD Sensor Development**

GLAD films are very suitable for use as the sensing layer in sensors because of their high porosity. Hydrocarbon sensors have been fabricated using Pt GLAD films [54]. Hydrocarbons were sensed by measuring the temperature change when the hydrocarbons were catalytically oxidized on the surface of the Pt films. The first capacitive GLAD relative humidity sensor was demonstrated by Wu *et al.* using SiO films [55]. The films were deposited on top of aluminum electrodes with both helical and columnar microstructures and were capped with a gold electrode. A dynamic response range over 5 orders of magnitude and a response time down to 3 minutes was reported. Analysis of an equivalent circuit model showed that the change in sensor capacitance could not be attributed to just changes in the dielectric constant of the layer from pores filling with water. Later a theoretical model was developed that explained the large dynamic range [56]. It was determined that sensor microstructure, and properties and interactions at the surface of the posts are related to sensor performance. It was suggested that imperfect pore microstructure can lead to condensed water being trapped which results in a larger hysteresis. With parallel electrode sensors, the response time is usually dictated by the time it takes water molecules to diffuse through the top electrode. To address this issue, Harris *et al.* obtained response times in the range of 100 ms by using a continuous top electrode perforated with pores to allow for easier diffusion [57]. Two types of sensors were fabricated with this electrode. The first was vertical SiO vertical posts 2.3  $\mu\text{m}$  thick. The second type was the inverse of the first and consisted of pores embedded in a photoresist polymer 1.4  $\mu\text{m}$  thick. These types of films are known as perforated thin films. Optical and capacitive relative humidity sensors have been made using silica ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ), titania ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ), and alumina ( $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ) GLAD films [16].

#### **3.3.2 Optical GLAD RH Sensor**

Sensor response times of 270 ms and 160 ms for adsorption and desorption have been obtained with optical titania GLAD RH sensors [36]. An optical filter sensitive

to humidity was made using a graded index (GRIN) titanium dioxide GLAD film. The filter uses sinusoidal variation in the refractive index to produce a stopband of frequencies with low optical transmission. Introduction of a  $\pi$ -phase shift defect in the index profile creates a very narrow passband of frequencies with very little transmittance attenuation (Figure 3.6). The sinusoidal refractive index profile was created by periodically modulating the deposition angle  $\alpha$  while depositing a vertical column film, creating variations in the column diameter. The effective index of refraction of the film is a combination of the indices of the columns and voids and depends on the relative amount of each. Water adsorption changes the index of the void and thus the effective index of the film. Adsorption of water increases the effective index, which shifts the center bandpass frequency to a lower frequency. Conversely, desorption of water decreases the effective index, resulting in a shift to a higher frequency. Humidity was measured by measuring the center frequency of the bandpass filter.

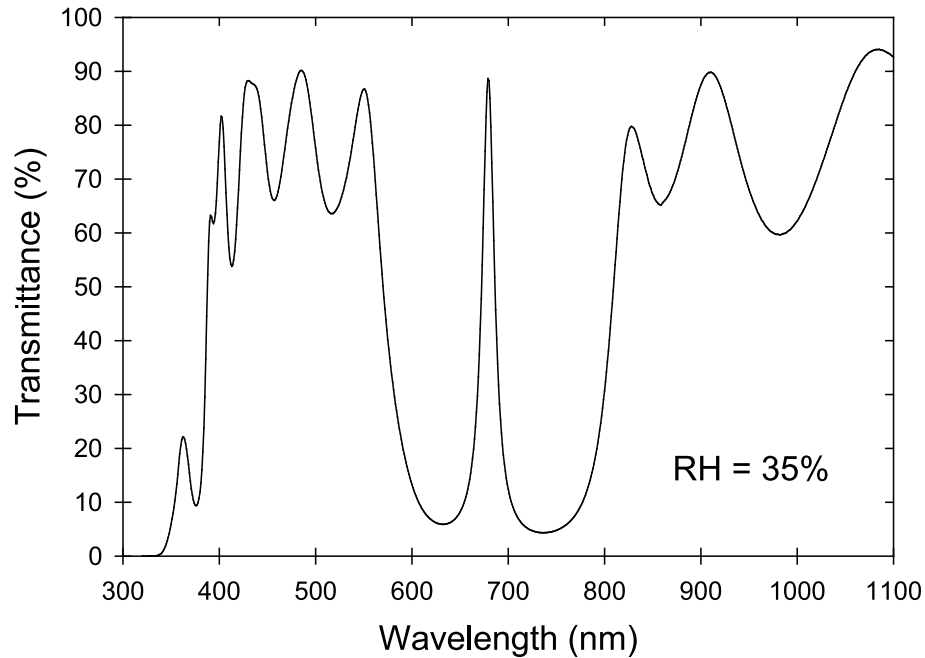


Figure 3.6: Transmittance spectrum of an optical GLAD sensor. The stop band spans from approximately 550 nm to 830 nm with a narrow pass band centered at approximately 680 nm. Reprinted from [36]. Copyright 2006, with permission from Elsevier.

### 3.3.3 Interdigitated Electrode Development

The development of GLAD RH sensors using interdigitated electrodes (IDEs) as opposed to parallel plate sensors is desirable because the design leaves the porous sensing material open to the air, increasing response time, as well as removing the capping layer step in the GLAD fabrication process. The first IDEs for GLAD RH sensors used a large geometry with  $20\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  digit widths and  $10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  digit separation for a  $30\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  period and were fabricated using standard photolithography techniques [40]. Figure 3.7 shows a diagram of the IDE layout. Modelling of IDE electrical fields has shown that most of the electrical field is contained within a distance of half the electrode period above the IDE [58]. In the case of the large geometry IDEs, this means the field is contained within  $15\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  of the IDEs. GLAD films are typically grown up to several microns thick, thus much of the electric field is not contained within the film and the sensor will have a reduced sensitivity. Two possible approaches to improve sensitivity are to increase the film's thickness, or reduce the IDE digit period. Increasing the film thickness is undesirable because the deposition time is increased and column broadening and extinction create a dramatic change in film microstructure. Additionally, sensor response time scales with film thickness, as will be described in Section 3.3.5. The more desirable solution is to reduce the IDE digit period and to use a smaller geometry, while continuing to use film thicknesses in the micrometer range.

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Figure 3.7: Diagram of an interdigitated electrode. Image from [40]

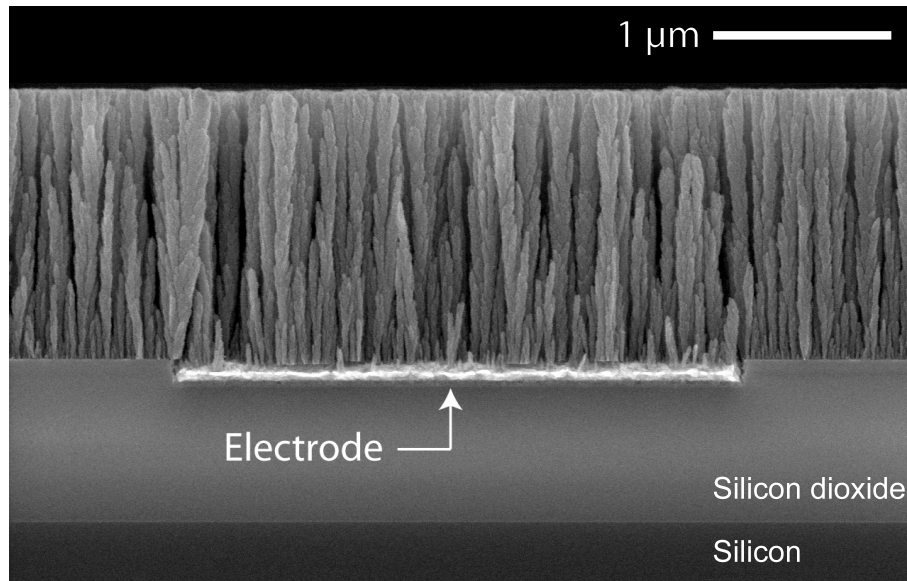


Figure 3.8: A countersunk electrode with a GLAD film deposited on top. Image from [16] © 2008 IEEE.

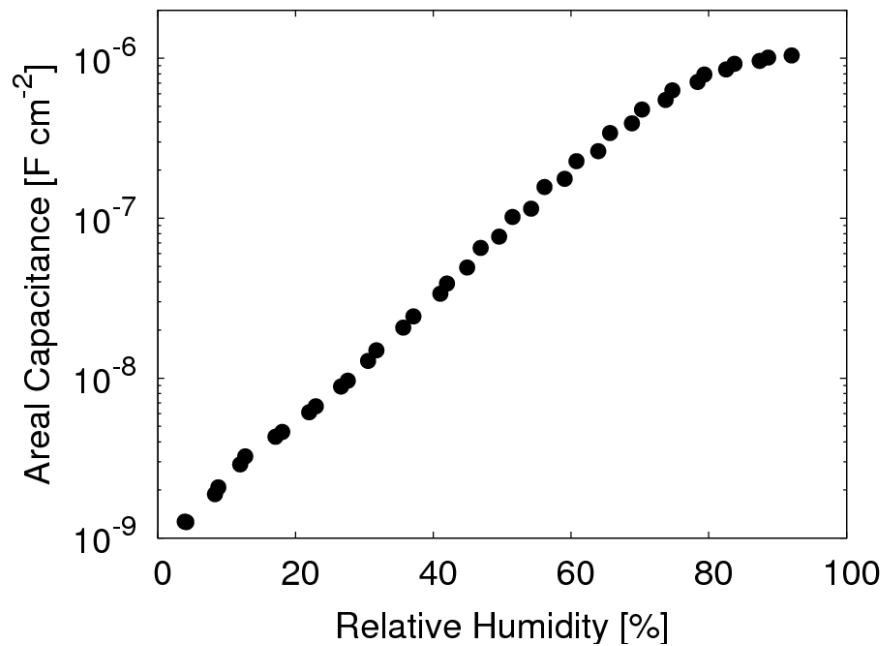


Figure 3.9: Responsivity of a sensor with a 1.5  $\mu\text{m}$  thick  $\text{TiO}_2$  sensing layer and 8  $\mu\text{m}$  IDE digit period. Capacitive changes are observed over three orders of magnitude. Image from [16] © 2008 IEEE.

An issue with the IDEs that is compounded as they are reduced in size is shadowing from the electrode boundaries during film growth. This shadowing results in large film irregularities and defects at the electrode boundaries, which reduces the overall surface area and sensitivity. To solve this problem research partner Micralyne, Inc. developed a proprietary process to fabricate electrodes that are countersunk into the substrate so that they maintain a planar surface. Figure 3.8 shows a cross-sectional SEM of a GLAD film deposited on top of a planar countersunk IDE. IDEs with 3  $\mu\text{m}$  digit widths and 3 and 5  $\mu\text{m}$  digit separation were fabricated and tested. It was found that reducing the digit period from the large geometry IDEs increased the sensitivity, and even a small decrease in digit spacing from 5 to 3  $\mu\text{m}$  resulted in significant increase in sensitivity. Figure 3.9 shows the responsivity of a sensor with a 1.5  $\mu\text{m}$  thick  $\text{TiO}_2$  sensing layer and 8  $\mu\text{m}$  IDE digit period. Capacitive changes are observed over three orders of magnitude.

### 3.3.4 Comparison of Different Metal Oxides

Capacitive RH sensors have been fabricated with GLAD films of silica, titania, and alumina on top of IDEs [16]. Figure 3.10 shows x-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of these films deposited on a silicon substrate. The lack of significant peaks in these patterns shows that films were amorphous. Titania films were found to produce the largest change in capacitance from 0 % to 100 % relative humidity and have the best sensitivity ( $\text{nF} / \% \text{RH}$ ) (Figure 3.9). Sensor response times for the 1.5  $\mu\text{m}$  thick films are summarized in Table 3.1. Alumina had the best response time for both adsorption and desorption of water.

Table 3.1: Response times for 1.5  $\mu\text{m}$  thick films. Reproduced from [16] © 2008 IEEE.

Material	Adsorption (ms)	Desorption (ms)
$\text{TiO}_2$	$275 \pm 1$	$297 \pm 2$
$\text{SiO}_2$	$231 \pm 7$	$229 \pm 4$
$\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$	$87 \pm 1$	$104 \pm 1$



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to copyright restrictions.

Figure 3.10: XRD patterns for 1.5  $\mu\text{m}$  thick  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  films deposited at an angle of  $\alpha = 81^\circ$  on a Si (100) substrate. Image from [40]

### 3.3.5 Response Time Effects of Film Porosity and Thickness

The relationships between film thickness and deposition angle and the response curve and response times have been studied [11]. It was found that the response time scales linearly with thicknesses below 4  $\mu\text{m}$ ; however, the sensitivity also increases with film thickness because more electric field lines are contained within the film. Response times decrease with increasing deposition angle because the larger column separation allows for quicker water adsorption and desorption. There is also a dependence between sensitivity and deposition angle, with different deposition angles having higher responsivities in different ranges. This means that the film thickness and deposition angle may be tuned differently depending on the sensor application. Empirical models have been developed for the effects of film thickness and deposition angle on response time.

A study by Krause *et al.* examined the macroporosity and mesoporosity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{SiO}_2$  GLAD films using top-down SEM images and krypton gas adsorption isotherms at 87.3 K [59]. To estimate the macroporosity, SEM images of films

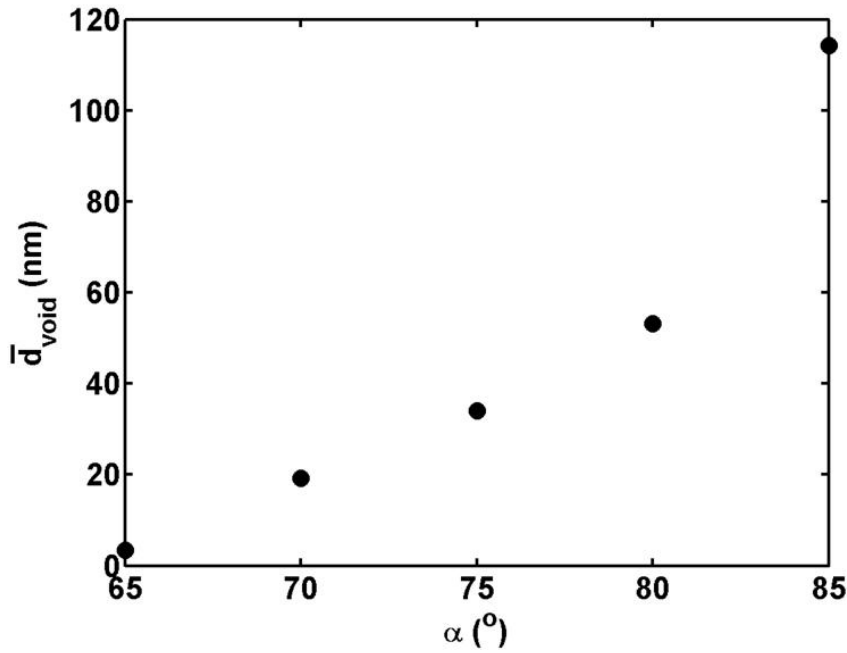


Figure 3.11: The relationship between mean pore diameter and deposition angle  $\alpha$ . Reprinted from [59]. Copyright 2011, with permission from Elsevier.

fabricated with  $\alpha = 65^{\circ}$  to  $85^{\circ}$  were processed by applying thresholding to separate columns from voids. The void distances between columns were then measured and the mean of the distribution calculated (Figure 3.11). The macroporous void distances between the tops of the columns increase with deposition angle. For angles of  $70^{\circ}$  to  $80^{\circ}$  the void distance is in the range of tens of nanometers. At  $85^{\circ}$  the distance is greater than 100 nm. Krypton adsorption isotherms were analyzed for GLAD films deposited with  $\alpha = 45^{\circ}$  to  $85^{\circ}$  to examine the mesoporosity. Below a deposition angle of  $65^{\circ}$  mesoporosity dominates, and the pore size distributions were found to be log normal. The peak pore diameter ranges from 2-3 nm at  $50^{\circ}$  to 4-5 nm at  $65^{\circ}$ . Above  $70^{\circ}$  films are dominated by columnar voids but still exhibit mesoporous roughness and porosity.

Pore size is a factor in how fast water can diffuse into the film and thus it affects sensor response time. Knudsen diffusion describes the diffusion that occurs through long, narrow pores 2 - 50 nm in diameter in which collisions with pore walls are

frequent. The diffusivity  $D$  in pores is determined by the following equation [60]:

$$D = \frac{d_{pore}}{3} \sqrt{\frac{8RT}{\pi M_w}} \quad (3.1)$$

where  $d_{pore}$  is the pore diameter,  $R$  is the molar gas constant,  $T$  is the temperature in Kelvin, and  $M_w$  is the molar mass of water. A pore size of 10 nm has a diffusivity of  $\approx 2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1}$ . The diffusivity may be combined with the Fickian diffusivity model [61] to obtain the time it takes water to diffuse through the film. The diffusion length is described by:

$$L = 2\sqrt{Dt} \quad (3.2)$$

Rearranging for  $t$ ,

$$t = \frac{4L^2}{D} \quad (3.3)$$

For a  $1.5 \mu\text{m}$  thick film, the diffusion time through the pores is approximately 285 ns, which is much lower than the reported response times for GLAD IDE sensors. However the model for Fickian diffusion does not take into account molecular interactions with the pore walls. As described in Chapter 2, there are strong surface interactions between  $\text{TiO}_2$  and water, so the effective diffusivity of water through the pores is likely reduced. Rapid diffusion of water to the bottom of pores, closest to the IDE, is crucial for sensor performance since electric field lines are the most concentrated closest to the IDE.

The effect of deposition angle and film thickness on sensor response time has been studied [18]. The response time was found to decrease with increasing deposition angle. For films  $1.5 \mu\text{m}$  thick, the response time decreased with a slope of approximately  $-16 \text{ ms degree}^{-1}$ . The response time increased with film thickness by  $162 \pm 4 \text{ ms } \mu\text{m}^{-1}$  at a deposition angle of  $81^\circ$ . These two correlations can be combined into the follow relation describing response time as a function of film thickness and deposition angle:

$$\tau(d, \alpha) = (162 \text{ ms } \mu\text{m}^{-1})d - (16 \text{ ms degree}^{-1})(\alpha - 81 \text{ degrees}) \quad (3.4)$$

where  $\tau$  is the sensor response time,  $d$  is the film thickness, and  $\alpha$  is the deposition angle. This relation does not take into account the possibility of any cross

dependence. The decrease in response time with increasing deposition angle can be related to the increase in pore width that occurs with  $\alpha$ , as described above. This is predicted by the Knudsen diffusion model in Equation 3.1. According to Equation 3.3 the response time should be related to the square of the film thickness if Fickian diffusion dominates with respect to the pore length, however this is not the case as a linear correlation is observed. This suggests that the response time is instead dominated by surface interactions rather than diffusion since surface area roughly scales with film thickness to first order.

Kupsta *et al.* have developed an etching procedure for the films with the aim of decreasing the response time by increasing the effective diffusivity of water vapour by smoothing the columns [19].  $\text{TiO}_2$  films were etched using a  $\text{CF}_4$  etch gas along with a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) spacer to absorb free fluorine radicals in the plasma so that the  $\text{TiO}_2$  columns don't clump together. The etch process was able to reduce the adsorption response time of the sensors from 150 ms to 50 ms, and although initial desorption rates were improved, long desorption tails still remained. The desorption tails could be because of nodular defect columns that grow at the edges of the electrodes. These columns have different volume and surface properties than the rest of the film and likely respond differently to humidity than the rest of the column population. The etching process also introduced large hysteresis in the sensor response. Applying a 48-hour UV treatment significantly reduces the hysteresis introduced by the etch, but does not affect the improvements in response time.

### **3.3.6 Sensor Ageing**

Ageing is observed in GLAD RH sensors over time. A decrease in the response and hysteresis in the response curve of aged sensors is observed (Figure 3.12). It has been found that ageing in titania films can be reversed by treating the sensors with UV light [28]. Sensors that have received a UV treatment exhibit a capacitance change over a wider range than untreated sensors and also have an increased sensitivity at lower humidities (Figure 3.13). The effects of this treatment are reproducible. It is possible that organic contaminants or a decrease in pore distribu-

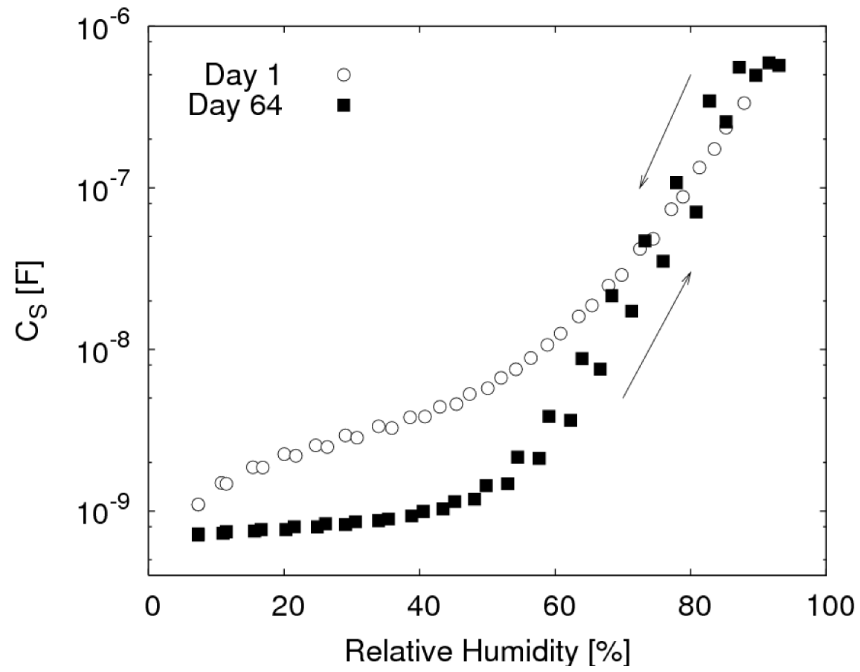


Figure 3.12: Hysteresis and decreased responsivity in an aged sensor. Reprinted from [28]. Copyright 2008, with permission from Elsevier.

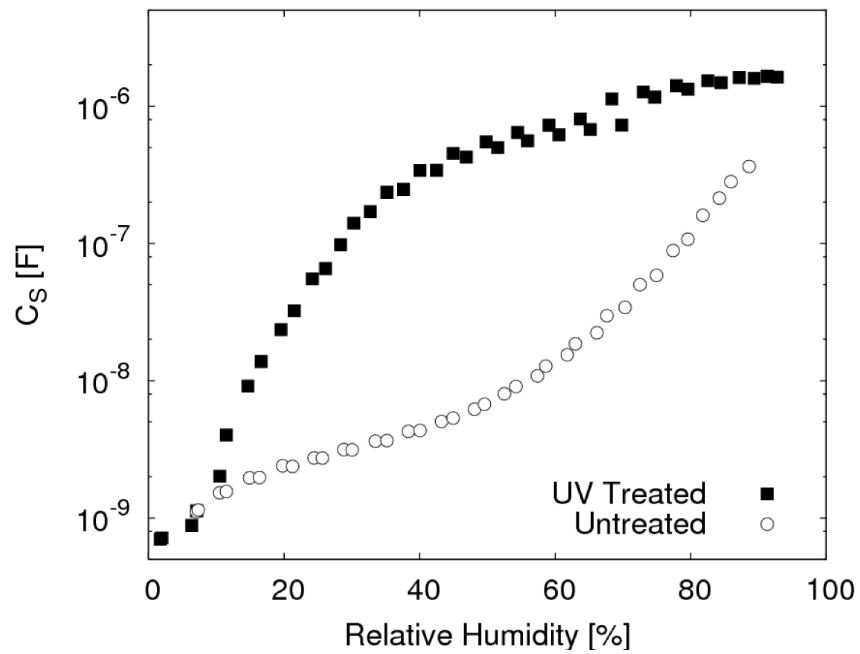


Figure 3.13: Response curves for UV treated and untreated sensors. Reprinted from [28]. Copyright 2008, with permission from Elsevier.

tion or number of sites is responsible for the ageing in the sensors. However the physical and chemical mechanisms behind the ageing and UV treatment are largely unknown.

### **3.4 Conclusion**

GLAD is a physical vapour deposition process that allows for fine control over the morphology of deposited porous thin films. Capacitive relative humidity sensors have been fabricated with GLAD films on top of countersunk IDEs. Because of the high porosity of the films the sensors exhibit extremely fast response times and show capacitive changes over three orders of magnitude. Titania, silica, and alumina films have been studied, with titania films found to produce the largest change in capacitance and have the highest sensitivity. The dependence of response time on film thickness and deposition angle has been characterized, with a linear relationship between response time and thickness established. The relationships between sensor response and sensitivity and film thickness and deposition angle have also been characterized. Based on this research, film thickness and deposition angle may be tuned and optimized depending on the sensor application. The effects of pore sizes in the films on response time have been examined, and it is possible to improve response time by using a reactive ion etch treatment to smooth the columns.

Currently the largest deficiency of GLAD RH sensors is ageing over time and the associated drift in the sensor response. It has been found that a UV treatment can reverse the ageing. The research described in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 aims to characterize the effects of UV treatment on sensor performance and long term stability. Initial experiments have used a mercury vapour lamp as the UV source, however compact UV LEDs have recently become commercially available. The goal is to combine UV LEDs with capacitive humidity sensors to create a device with improved long term stability. The available UV LED technology is discussed next in Chapter 4.

# Chapter 4

## UV LED Technology

### 4.1 Introduction

Deep ultraviolet (UV) light emitting diodes (LEDs) offer the possibility of replacing mercury vapour lamps in a variety of applications such as anti-microbial treatments, sterilization, decontamination, DNA decomposition and fluorescence biological agent detection. Mercury vapour lamps are large, bulky, power hungry, environmentally unfriendly and require expensive optical filters to isolate individual emission lines at specific wavelengths. UV LEDs are small, compact and span a wide range of UV wavelengths.

UV LEDs are a very young technology compared to other visible and infrared LEDs, which have been available for decades. The very first 285 nm UV LED was announced in 2002 [62] followed by the 265 nm UV LED in 2003 [63]. Development was slow because there are many materials issues with group III-nitride semiconductors, which are the most suitable material for UV light emitting devices and have a bandgap range that covers wavelengths down to 200 nm. Developments of growth techniques such as metalorganic vapour phase epitaxial growth (MOVPE) [64] and migration-enhanced metalorganic chemical vapour deposition (MEMOCVD) [65] have allowed the fabrication of these devices. Although UV LED output efficiencies are quite low compared to other more common wavelengths, UV LED efficiencies have been steadily increasing while prices have been decreasing.

## 4.2 Materials Physics in UV Devices

### 4.2.1 UV LED Semiconductor Materials

The UV spectrum spans wavelengths from 10 nm to 400 nm, corresponding to bandgap energies from 124 eV to 3.1 eV. Fabrication of UV light-emitting devices requires materials with direct bandgaps greater than 3.1 eV. Si and Ge are both very important materials to the semiconductor industry, but have indirect bandgaps that are too small, making them unsuitable for UV light-emitting devices. Direct bandgap materials are required for efficient light-emitting devices.

Table 4.1: III-V binary semiconductor bandgap energies, wavelengths and type (D = direct, I = indirect) at T = 300 K. Reproduced from [66].

Material	Bandgap Energy $E_g$ (eV)	Bandgap Wavelength $\lambda_g$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Type
Ge	0.66	1.88	I
Si	1.11	1.15	I
AlN	6.2	0.2	D
AlP	2.45	0.52	I
AlAs	2.16	0.57	I
AlSb	1.58	0.75	I
GaN	3.39	0.365	D
GaP	2.26	0.55	I
GaAs	1.42	0.87	D
GaSb	0.73	1.70	D
InN	0.7	1.77	D
InP	1.35	0.92	D
InAs	0.36	3.5	D
InSb	0.17	7.3	D

Group III-V semiconductors combine group III elements (Al, Ga, In) with group V elements (N, P, As, Sb). Table 4.1 summarizes the bandgap energies, wavelengths and type of group III-V binary semiconductors. Group III-Nitride materials stand out from the group because they are direct-bandgap semiconductors and cover a wide range, from 0.7 eV for InN to 6.2 eV for AlN [67].

Bandgaps may be shifted with ternary and quaternary alloys of these materials. This involves replacing some group III atoms in the lattice with one or two different group III atoms. The crystal structure is still the same, however the elements have



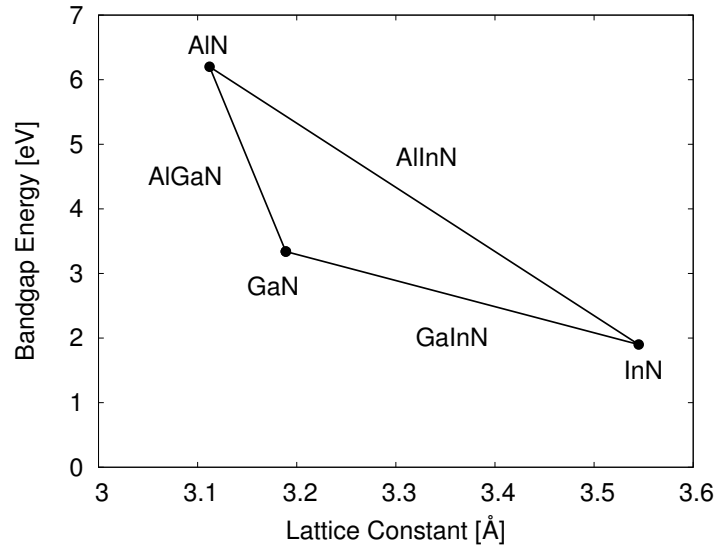


Figure 4.1: Bandgap versus lattice constant of GaN, AlN, InN and their alloys. Values from [68].

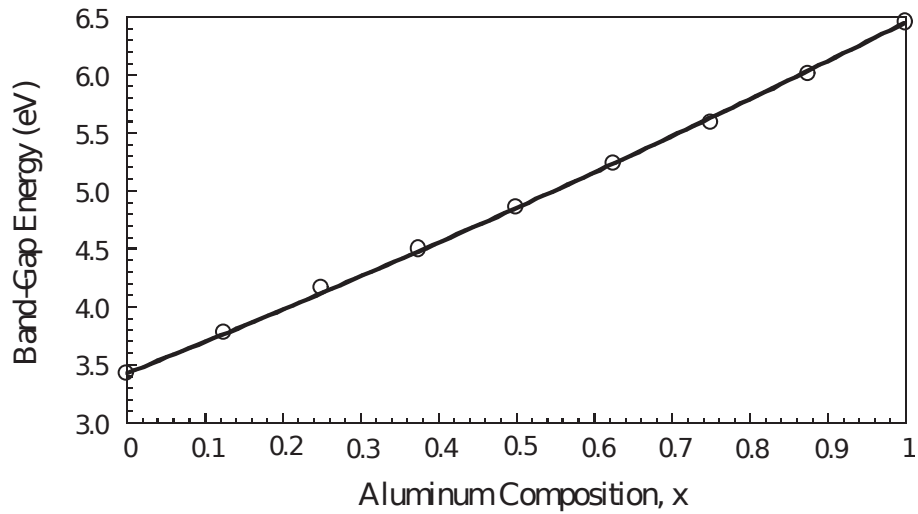


Figure 4.2: Change of bandgap energy of  $\text{Al}_x\text{Ga}_{1-x}\text{N}$  with respect to aluminum composition. Image from [69]. Copyright 2002 The Japan Society of Applied Physics.

different electronic structures and band energies so the material bandgap and lattice constant properties are modified. Figure 4.1 shows the relationship between bandgap energies and lattice constant for changing alloys of group III-nitrides.  $\text{Al}_x\text{Ga}_{1-x}\text{N}$  is a ternary alloy and  $\text{Al}_x\text{In}_y\text{Ga}_{1-x-y}\text{N}$  is a quaternary alloy with the  $x$  and  $y$  subscripts denoting the elemental composition. Changing the elemental composition of Al in  $\text{Al}_x\text{Ga}_{1-x}\text{N}$  can create bandgaps spanning the range between those of GaN (3.4 eV) and AlN (6.2 eV) (Figure 4.2). Figure 4.3 shows the optical characterization of a range of  $\text{Al}_x\text{Ga}_{1-x}\text{N}$  LEDs.  $\text{Al}_x\text{In}_y\text{Ga}_{1-x-y}\text{N}$  alloys are sometimes used to lattice-match to GaN substrates. Different lattice constants between the substrate and epitaxially grown layers puts strain on the crystal lattice. This results in polarization fields in the crystal, which reduce the overall optical emission of the device [70, 71]

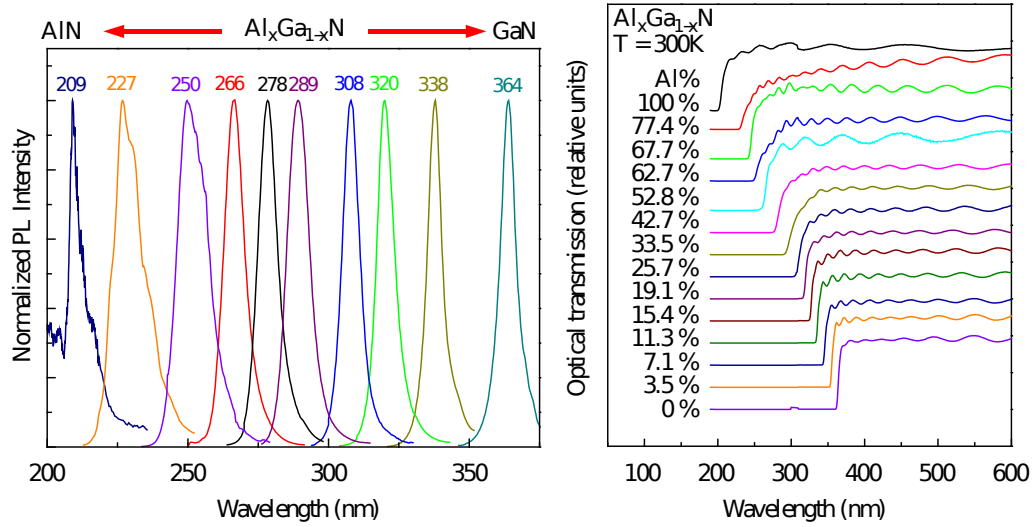


Figure 4.3: Optical characterization of  $\text{Al}_x\text{Ga}_{1-x}\text{N}$  material with different compositional levels of Al. Left shows the photoluminescence and right shows the optical transmission (which shows fundamental absorption edges). Reprinted from [72]. Copyright 2009, with permission from Elsevier.

## 4.2.2 Quantum Well Structures

A heterojunction is formed when two crystalline semiconductors with different band structures are interfaced. An ideal heterojunction creates an abrupt discontinuity in the material energy bandgap at the interface. Quantum wells (QWs) are

important structures for the active regions of LEDs and consist of alternating series of thin-layer heterojunctions. A multiple quantum well structure consists of  $n$  QW layers (GaN) of width  $d_{QW}$  and  $(n + 1)$  barrier layers (AlGaN) of width  $d_{barrier}$  [71]. The quantum wells confine electrons and holes within the layer, effectively confining them to 2-dimensional motion rather than 3-dimensional. This increases photon-emitting electron-hole recombination and increases the internal quantum efficiency of the device.

## 4.3 UV LED Devices

### 4.3.1 Typical UV LED structure

Figure 4.4 shows the structure of an AlGaN UV LED device [73]. The structure is the same for all ultraviolet wavelengths, with the Al composition in some layers determining the wavelength. It is fabricated on a sapphire substrate and employs an AlInGaN multiple quantum well active region. Most UV LED devices have very similar structures.

Sapphire substrates are typically used for UV LED devices. This requires a buffer or nucleation layer, which is Al for deep UV devices and may be GaN for near UV devices. Many devices use an AlN/AlGaN superlattice layer next to relieve strain in the lattice to reduce piezoelectric polarization fields and to maintain the bandgaps of the materials. On top of this a thick conducting  $n^+$ -AlGaN layer doped with Si is grown and acts as the n-contact, sometimes followed by a more lightly doped n-AlGaN layer. Most devices have a single AlGaN or AlInGaN quantum well or multiple quantum well active region. A Mg-doped p-type AlGaN current blocking layer prevents electrons from overflowing out of the active region [74]. This layer has an Al composition about 5-10% higher than the barrier layer in the quantum well [75]. The entire structure is capped off with a graded p-type AlInGaN [73] or GaN [72, 75]) ohmic p-contact layer.

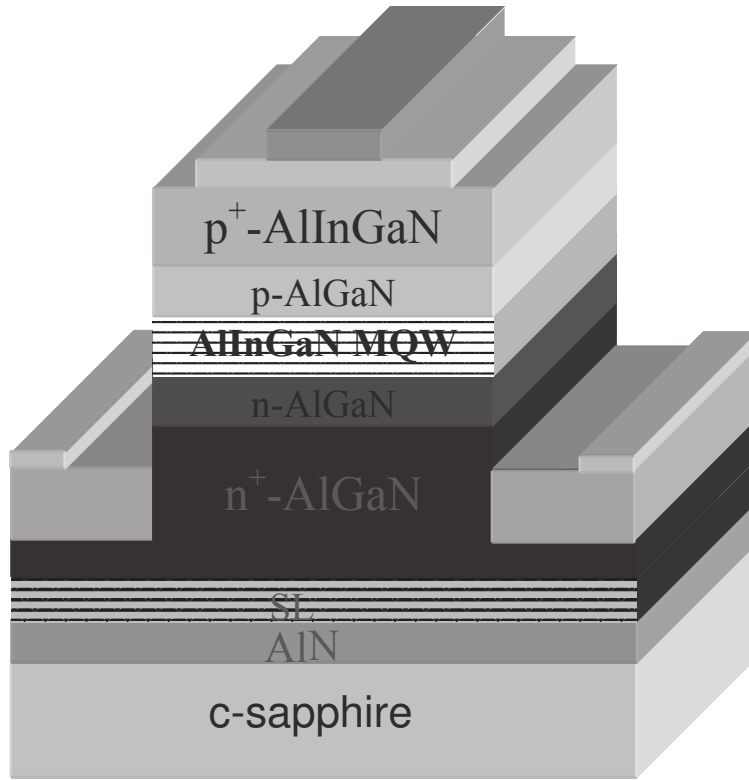


Figure 4.4: Structure of an AlGaN UV LED device. Image from [73]. Copyright 2005 The Japan Society of Applied Physics.

### 4.3.2 Device Performance

UV LEDs have been built spanning a range of wavelengths from 210 nm - 365 nm (Figure 4.5). The output powers follow a general trend of decreasing output power with decreasing wavelength. Below 250 nm LED powers drop off considerably. For example, a 210 nm LED from the University of South Carolina has an output power of only  $0.02 \mu\text{W}$ , compared to powers of 3.3 mW at 273 nm and 8.4 mW at 346 nm from RIKEN [76].

LEDs are usually operated in two modes: Continuous-wave (CW) mode where a DC current is applied to the device, and pulsed mode where a larger DC current is pulsed through the device. 20 mA is a common current for reporting the CW performance of devices. Pulsed currents allow for larger currents to be passed through the device, usually at a duty cycle of 1-2 %, and for greater output powers to be obtained. Figure 4.6 shows the CW power versus current performance for sev-

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Figure 4.5: Output power of AlGaIn based deep UV LEDs. Copyright 2010 Wiley. Used with permission from [76]

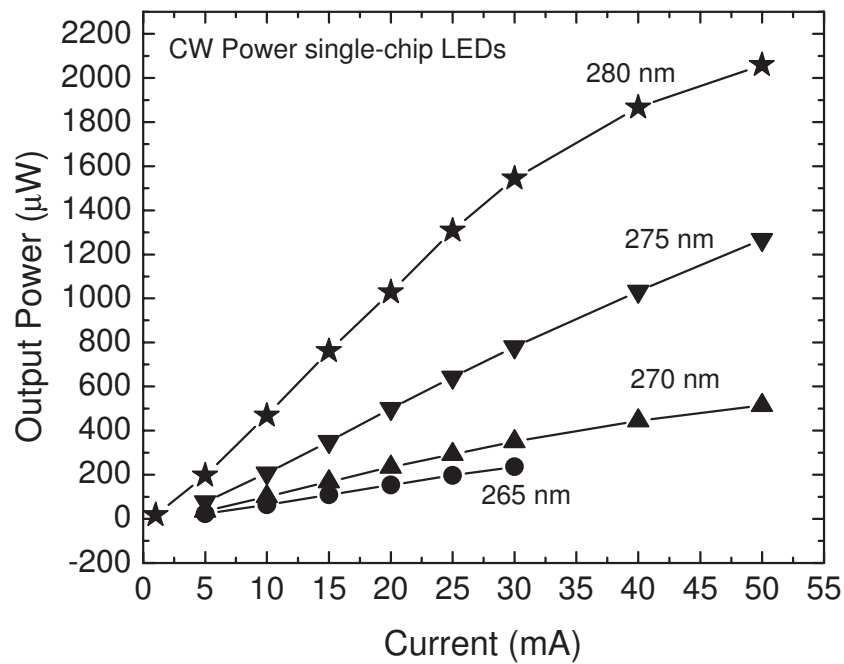


Figure 4.6: (a) CW power-current plot for 265, 270, 275, and 280 nm single-chip packaged LEDs. Image from [73]. Copyright 2005 The Japan Society of Applied Physics.

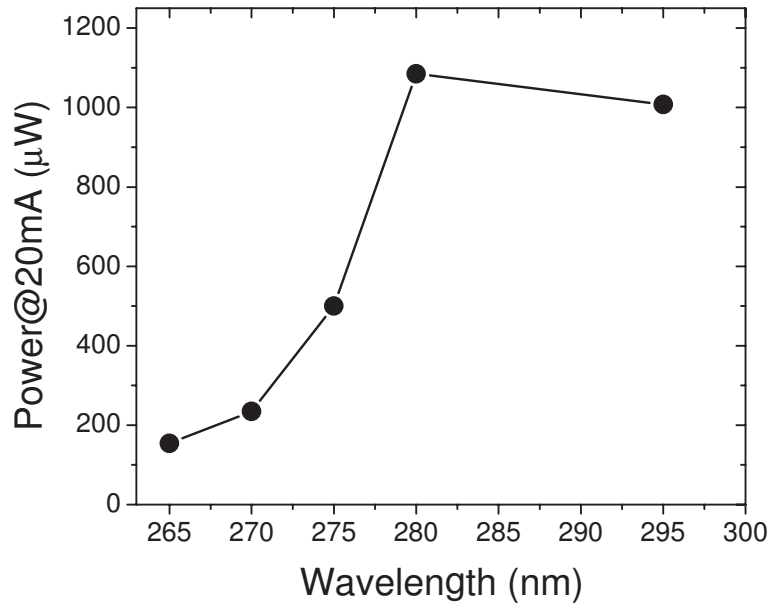


Figure 4.7: Plot of power at 20 mA DC vs. emission wavelength. Image from [73]. Copyright 2005 The Japan Society of Applied Physics.

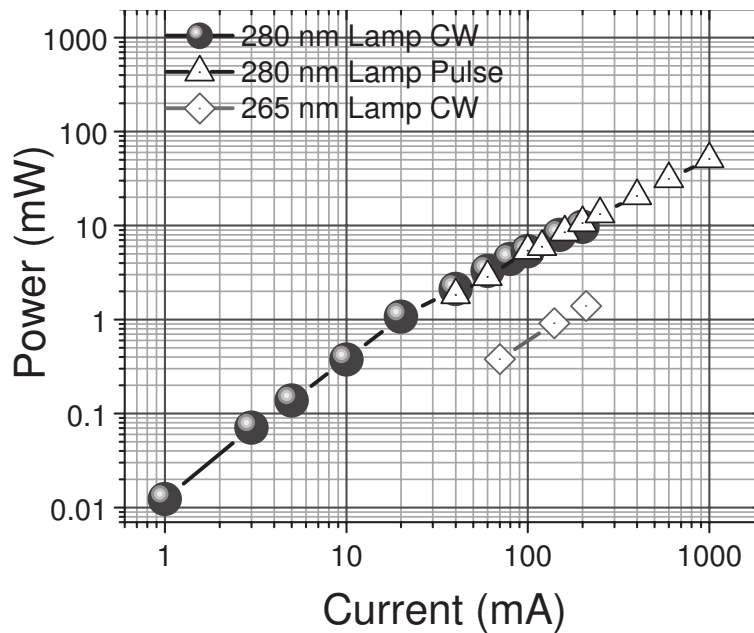


Figure 4.8: Power-current plot for 265 and 280 nm UV lamps consisting of three chips connected in parallel. A duty cycle of 2 % at 10 kHz was used for the lamp pulse. Solid circles represent 280 nm CW powers, open triangles represent 280 nm pulse powers, and open diamonds represent 265 nm CW powers. Image from [73]. Copyright 2005 The Japan Society of Applied Physics.

eral wavelengths of devices from Sensor Electronic Technology Inc. Note that the power-current relationship of the LEDs is linear. Figure 4.7 shows the relationship between power and wavelength at 20 mA. This plot shows that output powers start to decrease considerably below 280 nm.

Figure 4.8 shows the output power for 280 nm and 265 nm UV lamps from Sensor Electronic Technologies Inc. consisting of three LED chips connected in parallel. The 280 nm lamp is operated in both CW and pulsed modes. Pulsed operation at currents over 50 mA at 10 kHz and a duty cycle of 2% allows for an output power over 56 mW to be obtained [73].

Figure 4.9 shows that there is little drift in the emission peak position of the LEDs during operation, only increasing significantly at higher DC currents, which tend to damage the LED. The spectral width, or full-width-half-maximum (FWHM) value, stayed below 10 nm for both modes of operation.

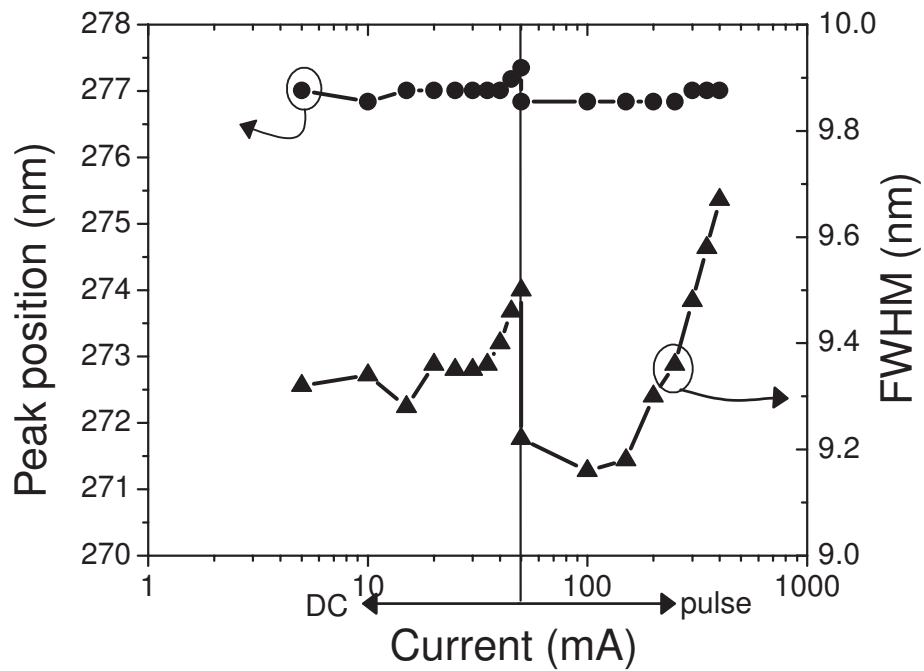


Figure 4.9: Emission peak position and spectral width (FWHM) vs. current. Image from [73]. Copyright 2005 The Japan Society of Applied Physics.

## 4.4 Conclusion

Advancements in techniques such as MOVPE and MEMOCVD for growing high quality AlInGaN based layers have led to the fabrication of deep-UV LEDs. Other design techniques such as superlattice growth and the growth of high-quality AlN buffer layers on sapphire substrates have mitigated some of the issues with using group III nitride materials. LEDs with emission wavelengths ranging from 210nm - 365nm have been fabricated and a very wide range of wavelengths are now commercially available. The price of UV LEDs continues to decrease and the output power increases as processes and techniques for fabrication are improved. UV LEDs are an excellent low-power replacement for bulky mercury vapour lamps and their use for UV treatment of GLAD RH sensors is demonstrated in Chapter 5. The research presented in Chapter 6 characterizes different UV LED wavelengths for sensor treatment.



# Chapter 5

## UV Regeneration Characterization<sup>1</sup>

### 5.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 explained how metal oxide humidity sensors can drift (age) over time because of surface hydration from continued exposure to humidity and from the buildup of organic contaminants. Chapter 3 discussed how the sensitivity and performance of metal oxide GLAD humidity sensors was observed to decrease over time. It was seen that treating titanium dioxide ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ) GLAD humidity sensors with ultraviolet light reverses this ageing process and enhances the sensor response [28]. This may be related to the well-known photoactivity of titanium dioxide under UV irradiation. Because of this effect, titanium dioxide is used in a wide range of applications such as water purification, air cleaning, anti-fogging coatings, and self-cleaning surfaces [26, 27]. Photocatalytic activity in GLAD titanium dioxide films has been demonstrated and studied by many groups [77, 78]. Recently it was found that titanium dioxide surfaces become hydrophilic under UV irradiation [79, 80], which may also affect the performance of humidity sensors.

The research presented in this chapter investigates the effect of UV irradiation wavelength with a mercury vapour lamp on sensor performance and ageing. The regenerative effect is also demonstrated using commercially available UV light emitting diodes (LEDs). The objective is to establish a baseline wavelength characterization of the UV treatment.

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<sup>1</sup>Part of this chapter has been published in: D.P. Smetaniuk, M.T. Taschuk, and M.J. Brett. "Photocatalytic titanium dioxide nanostructures for self-regenerating relative humidity", *IEEE Sensors Journal*, 11(8):1713-1719, August 2011. [29]

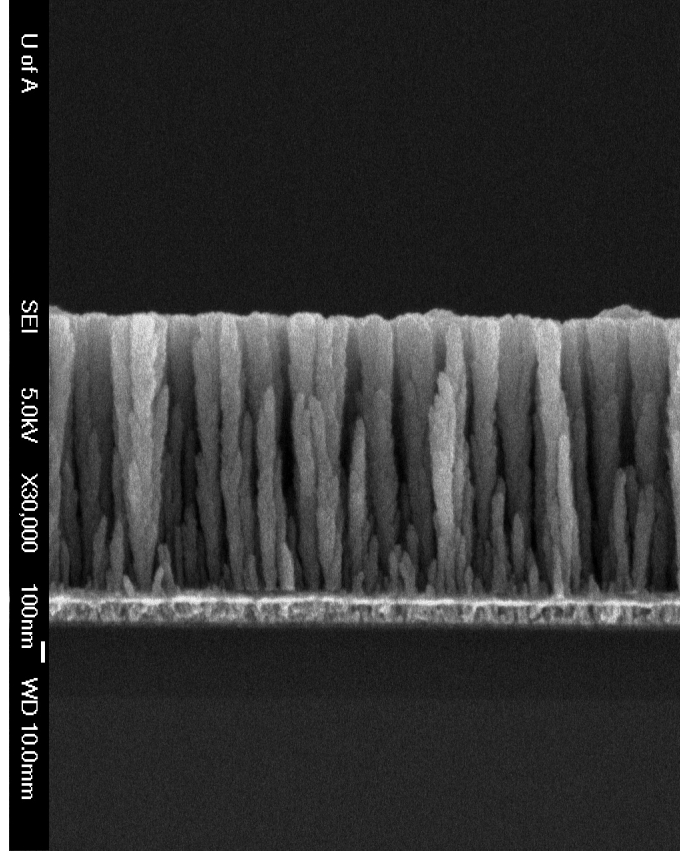


Figure 5.1: SEM image of a  $1.5\ \mu\text{m}$  thick  $\text{TiO}_2$  film deposited at  $\alpha = 80^\circ$  on top of an electrode.

## 5.2 Experimental Setup

The sensors studied consist of interdigitated electrodes (IDEs) countersunk into a substrate (Micralyne, Inc.) with GLAD films deposited on top [17]. The tops of the countersunk IDEs were planar with the substrate to prevent shadowing during film deposition. The GLAD films were  $\text{TiO}_2$  vertical posts  $1.5\ \mu\text{m}$  tall and several hundred nanometers in diameter. Rutile  $\text{TiO}_2$  (99.9 %, Cerac, Inc.) was used as a source material. A film thickness of  $1.5\ \mu\text{m}$  was chosen so that the results of the study can be compared to other studies using the same thickness. It also provides a reasonable balance between a high sensitivity and a fast response time. An incident vapour flux angle  $\alpha = 80^\circ$  was chosen because it provides a good balance between fast response time, and good sensitivity at lower humidities. The film parameters may be tuned for a specific application, but for the purposes of this study were held

constant so that results may be directly compared. The films were deposited at a vapour flux deposition rate of  $0.5 \text{ nm s}^{-1}$  between pressures of  $6 \times 10^{-5}$  Torr and  $8 \times 10^{-5}$  Torr using an electron beam evaporation system (Kurt J. Lesker, AXXIS). To grow a more stoichiometric film oxygen was added during deposition at a flow rate of 2.2 sccm - 3.6 sccm using a mass flow controller (MFC) (MKS 1179A). After deposition the samples were thermally oxidized in atmosphere at  $100^\circ\text{C}$  for 24 hours. Figure 5.1 shows an SEM image of the film on an electrode. A planar  $1.0 \mu\text{m}$  thick  $\text{TiO}_2$  film was deposited on a Si substrate by depositing at  $\alpha = 30^\circ$  for water contact angle measurements.

The sensor impedance response to humidity was tested using a custom humidity chamber [40], shown schematically in Figure 5.2, able to achieve relative humidities between 2 %RH and 95 %RH. Wet air was created by bubbling dry nitrogen through a water reservoir. Two mass flow controllers (MKS M100B) mix ratios of dry nitrogen and the wet air by controlling the flow rates in order to achieve the range of humidities. Flow rates vary between 0 - 500 standard cubic centimeters per minute (sccm). The air mixture flows into a sealed chamber containing the humidity sensor being tested and a commercial humidity probe (Vaisala HMP100). The leads for the sensor and the humidity probe are passed through a small hole in the top of the chamber to be accessible outside. The humidity in the chamber was measured using the commercial probe and the impedance of the sensors was measured using an LCR meter (Quadtech 1715 Digibridge).

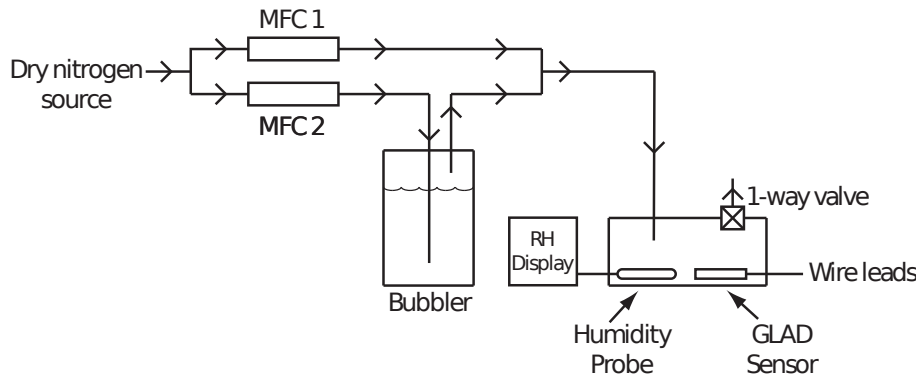


Figure 5.2: Relative humidity testing chamber setup. Image from [16] © 2008 IEEE.

Calibration of the commercial humidity probe and LCR meter were done previously and are described in detail in [40]. The commercial humidity probe was calibrated using saturated salt solutions of LiCl, MgCl<sub>2</sub>, NaCl, and K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> [81,82]. A large number of capacitors and resistors from different vendors were used to calibrate the LCR meter. The series capacitance, impedance magnitude and phase of the sensors was recorded at 1 V<sub>rms</sub> and at frequencies ranging logarithmically from 20 Hz to 1 MHz. The capacitance measurement error of the LCR meter was found to be 2.4% (95% confidence level). The measurement error of the commercial humidity probe depends on relative humidity and is given by (95% confidence level):

$$\epsilon_{RH}^2 = (1.7 \times 10^{-4})RH^2 + (3.5 \times 10^{-4})RH + 1.04 \quad (5.1)$$

where  $\epsilon_{RH}$  is the percent RH error in the probe reading, and RH is the nominal relative humidity in percent.

The water contact angles on the planar films were recorded with a Contact Angle Measurement System (First Ten Angstroms, Inc.). For each UV wavelength a single sample was used for measurements before and after UV treatment.

An 8 W mercury vapour lamp (UVP MRL-58) was used for UV treatment of the sensors. The lamp emission spectra is shown in [28]. A set of optical bandpass filters (Melles Griot) centered at 254 nm (F1M016), 289 nm (F1M022), 313 nm (F1M024), 365 nm (F1M028), and 360 ± 50 nm (Schott Glass UG3) was used to isolate individual emission lines of the lamp to expose sensors to a specific wavelength or wavelength range. Sensor A was treated with 254 nm, Sensor B with 289 nm, Sensor C with 360 ± 50 nm (wideband), Sensor D with 313 nm, and Sensor E with 365 nm. The sensors were placed under holes approximately 2 cm × 2 cm in a sheet of black corrugated plastic. An optical filter covered each hole and the entire arrangement was placed under the mercury vapour lamp. The tube of the lamp is approximately 25 cm long and was situated 10 cm above the samples. Initial UV treatment tests were conducted using UV LEDs (UVTOP295, UVTOP310, Sensor Electronic Technology Inc.) with peak emissions centered at wavelengths of 295 nm (12 nm FWHM) and 310 nm (10 nm FWHM). The 295 nm and 310 nm LEDs both have total output powers of 500 μW at a diode current of 20 mA. The

samples were placed 1.5 cm away from the UV LEDs, producing an irradiance of approximately  $500 \mu\text{W cm}^{-2}$  at the surface. All treatments were conducted within an enclosed steel storage cabinet for 48 hours. When the samples were not being treated they were stored in a separate steel cabinet. Relative humidity scans of the sensors were conducted before and after UV treatment and compared.

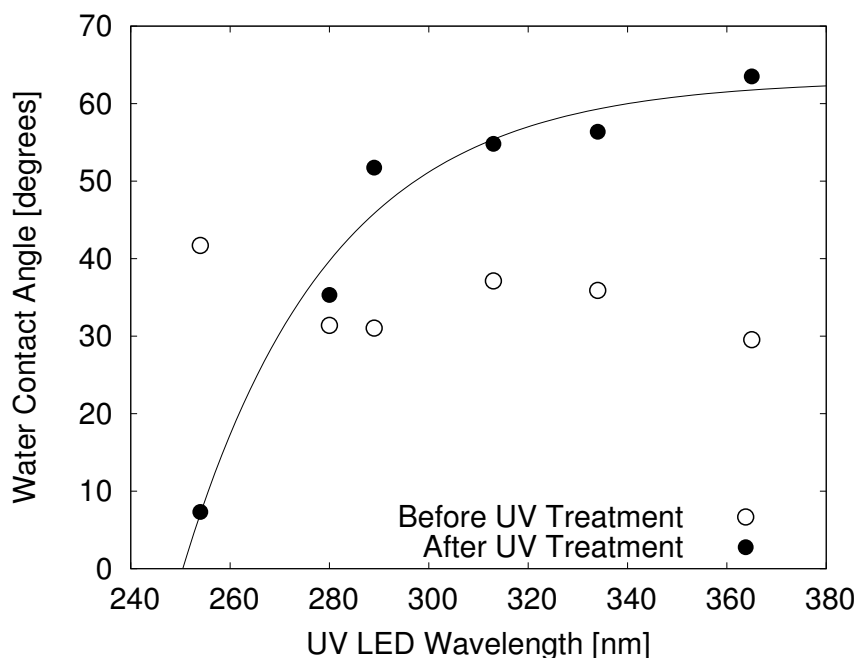


Figure 5.3: Water contact angle of planar films before and after UV treatment. The trend line serves as a guide for the eye.

### 5.3 Results

A difference was observed in water contact angles on the planar films before and after UV treatment (Figure 5.3). Smaller water contact angles correspond to a greater hydrophilicity of the film. The contact angles before UV treatment ranged from  $30^\circ$  to  $42^\circ$ . The contact angle was greater after UV treatment for all wavelengths except for 254 nm which saw a large decrease in the contact angle. The contact angles after UV treatment decreased slightly with decreasing wavelength down to about 300 nm after which a more significant decrease was seen down to 254 nm.

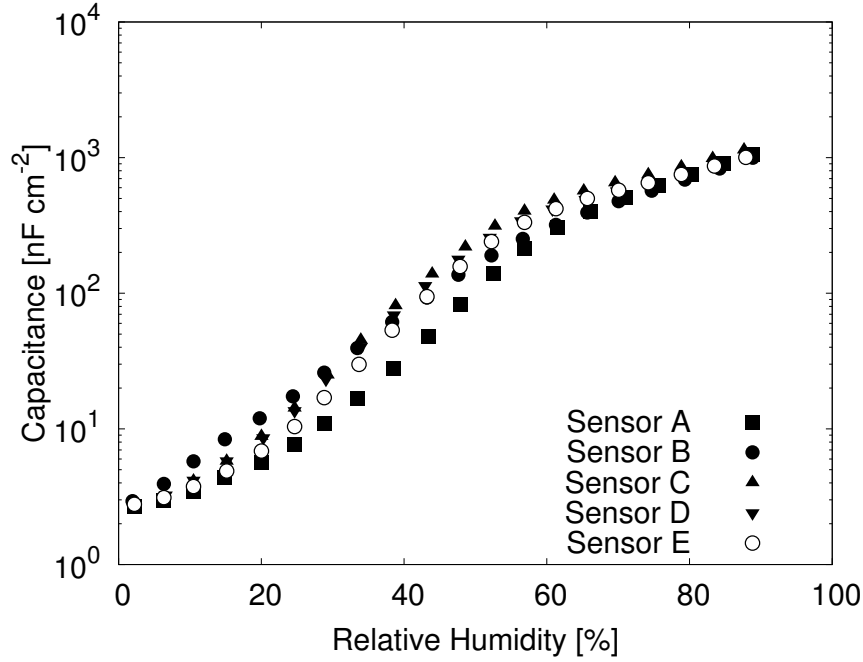


Figure 5.4: Sensor responses before UV treatment showing device reproducibility.

New, as-deposited sensors show little variability in the response curves (Figure 5.4.) After UV treatment with the mercury lamp, a spread in the response curves is observed (Figure 5.5.) The change in responsivity is larger for smaller wavelengths. The steepest region of the responsivity curve is found at lower relative humidities with lower UV wavelengths. The UV treated sensors were then left to age between 87 and 96 days. After ageing the steep region of the response curve shifts towards higher relative humidities as seen in Figure 5.6. The relative spread between the curves after ageing is similar to the spread before ageing. Even after 90 days of ageing the response of the sensor treated with 254 nm light is still above the response of the original sensor before treatment.

The sensitivity of a sensor is defined as the change in areal capacitance with a change in relative humidity in units of  $\text{nF cm}^{-2} \%RH^{-1}$ . Figure 5.7a shows the change in the sensitivity curves after UV treatment for all wavelengths. The sensitivity curves of the sensors have a constant high sensitivity region at greater humidities that saturates at a value of approximately  $20 \text{ nF cm}^{-2} \%RH^{-1}$ . This region is extended toward lower humidities with decreasing treatment wavelengths. In Figure 5.7b after 87-96 days ageing the high sensitivity region shifts to higher

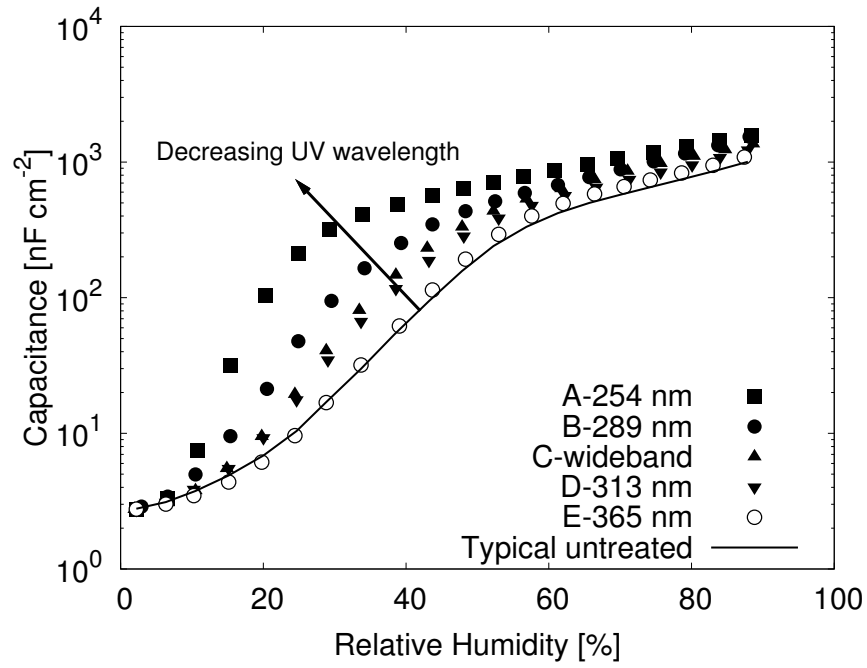


Figure 5.5: Sensor responses after 48 hour UV treatment showing that lower wave-lengths create a larger change.

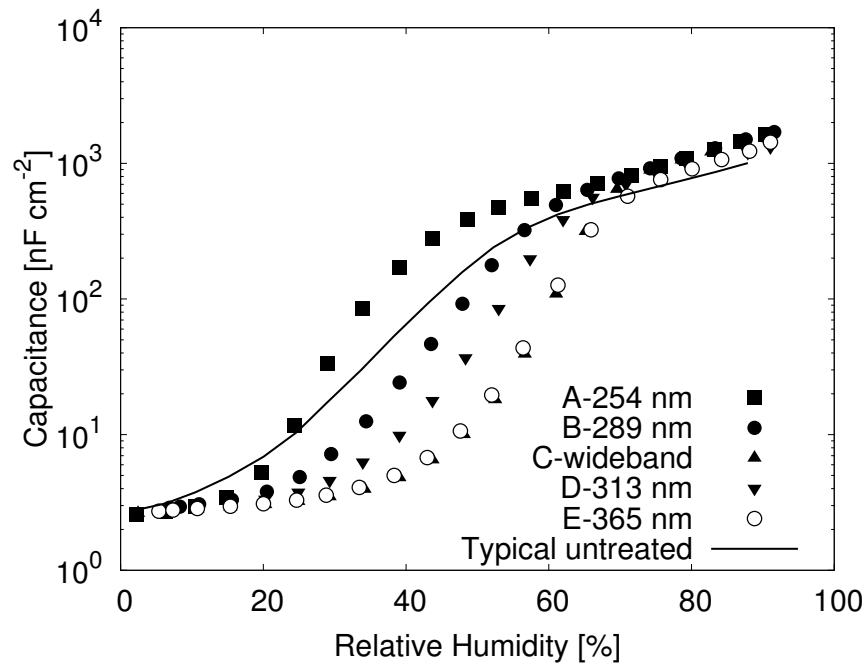


Figure 5.6: Sensor responses after 87-96 days ageing. The 254 nm response still exceeds the original untreated sensor.

humidities and the sensitivity at lower humidities is decreased.

Figure 5.8 shows the changes in the responsivity curves before and after treatment with the 295 nm and 310 nm UV LEDs. The largest change in the responsivity was observed below 50 %RH for both cases.

A figure of merit (FOM) was defined in order to quantify the change in responsivity of the sensors after UV treatment and ageing:

$$FOM = \int_5^{85} (\log_{10} C_x[\%RH] - \log_{10} C_0) dRH \quad (5.2)$$

where  $C_0$  is the reference capacitive response curve of the original as-deposited sensor before UV treatment or ageing and  $C_x[\%RH]$  is the capacitive response curve after UV treatment or ageing. This is shown as the shaded area in Figure 5.9. The area is integrated between 5 %RH and 85 %RH because humidities below 5 %RH and above 85 %RH are sometimes difficult to reach with the humidity setup. A larger FOM corresponds to a larger change in the response curves of the sensors. Aged sensors in which the response curve is below the reference correspond to a negative FOM. A positive FOM corresponds to an improved sensor response and a negative FOM a decreased response with respect to the original sensor response.

The FOM as a function of illumination wavelength is shown in Figure 5.10 for sensors treated with the mercury lamp and two sensors treated with UV LEDs. With the exclusion of the UV LED treated sensors, an exponentially decreasing FOM with illumination wavelength is observed. The FOM values range from 2.1 for 365 nm to 61 for 254 nm. Treatment with the UV LEDs resulted in significantly larger FOMs than similar mercury lamp wavelengths. Figure 5.11 shows FOMs normalized by dividing by the power delivered at each wavelength. The resulting trend of the normalized FOM peaks around 275 nm and drops off sharply below 260 nm. The normalized FOMs for UV LED treated sensors are significantly lower than the trend due to the high power of the LEDs. The relation between FOM and illumination power is shown in Figure 5.12. A high power regime around 500  $\mu$ W produced the largest FOMs. The 254 nm mercury lamp line and UV LED treatments fall in this regime. The power delivered by these was 2-3 orders of magnitude greater than all other treatments. In the low power regime below 10



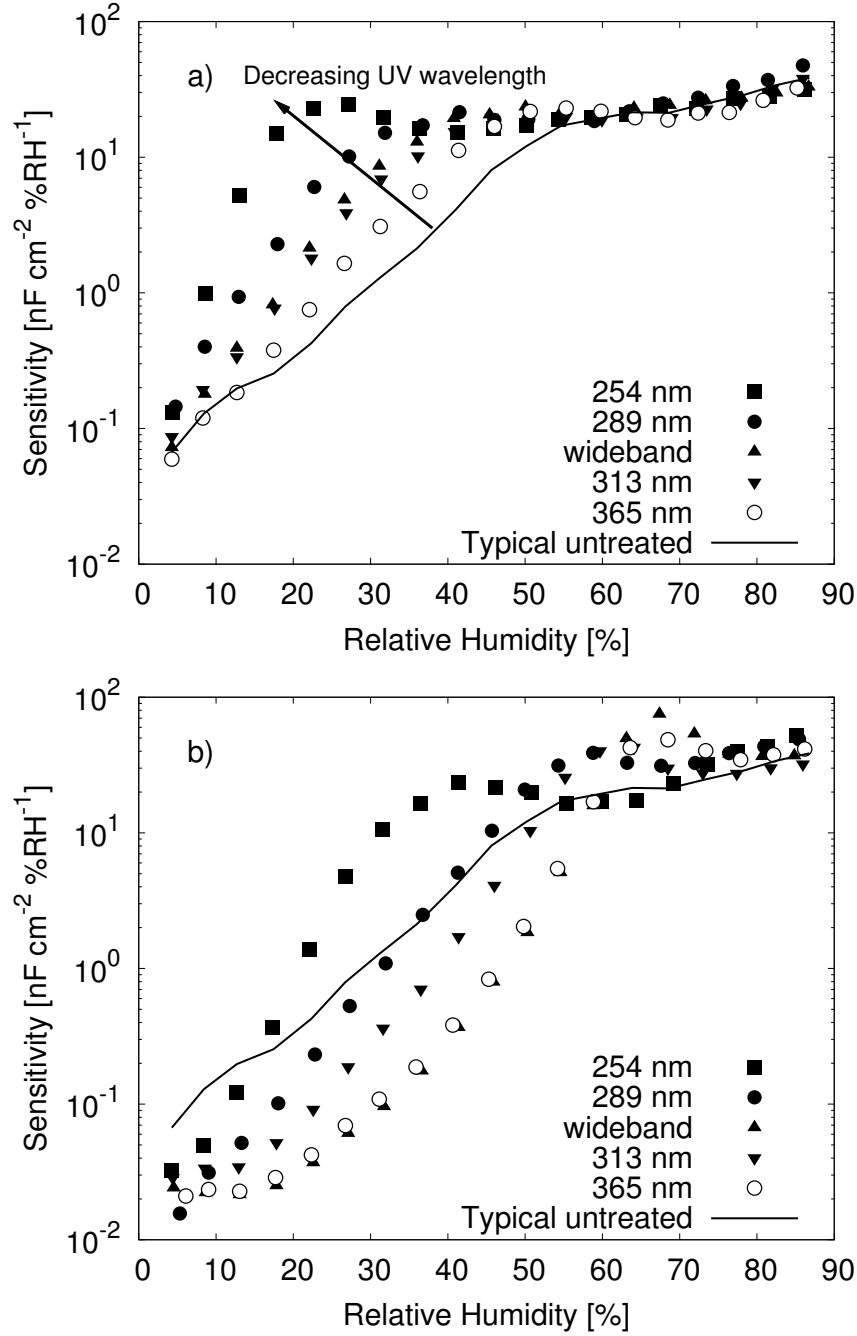


Figure 5.7: Sensor sensitivity (a) after UV treatment and (b) after 87-96 days ageing. The UV treatment extends the high sensitivity range of the sensors, with a wider high sensitivity range obtained for lower wavelengths. The high sensitivity performance saturates at a value of approximately  $20 \text{ nF cm}^{-2} \%RH^{-1}$ .

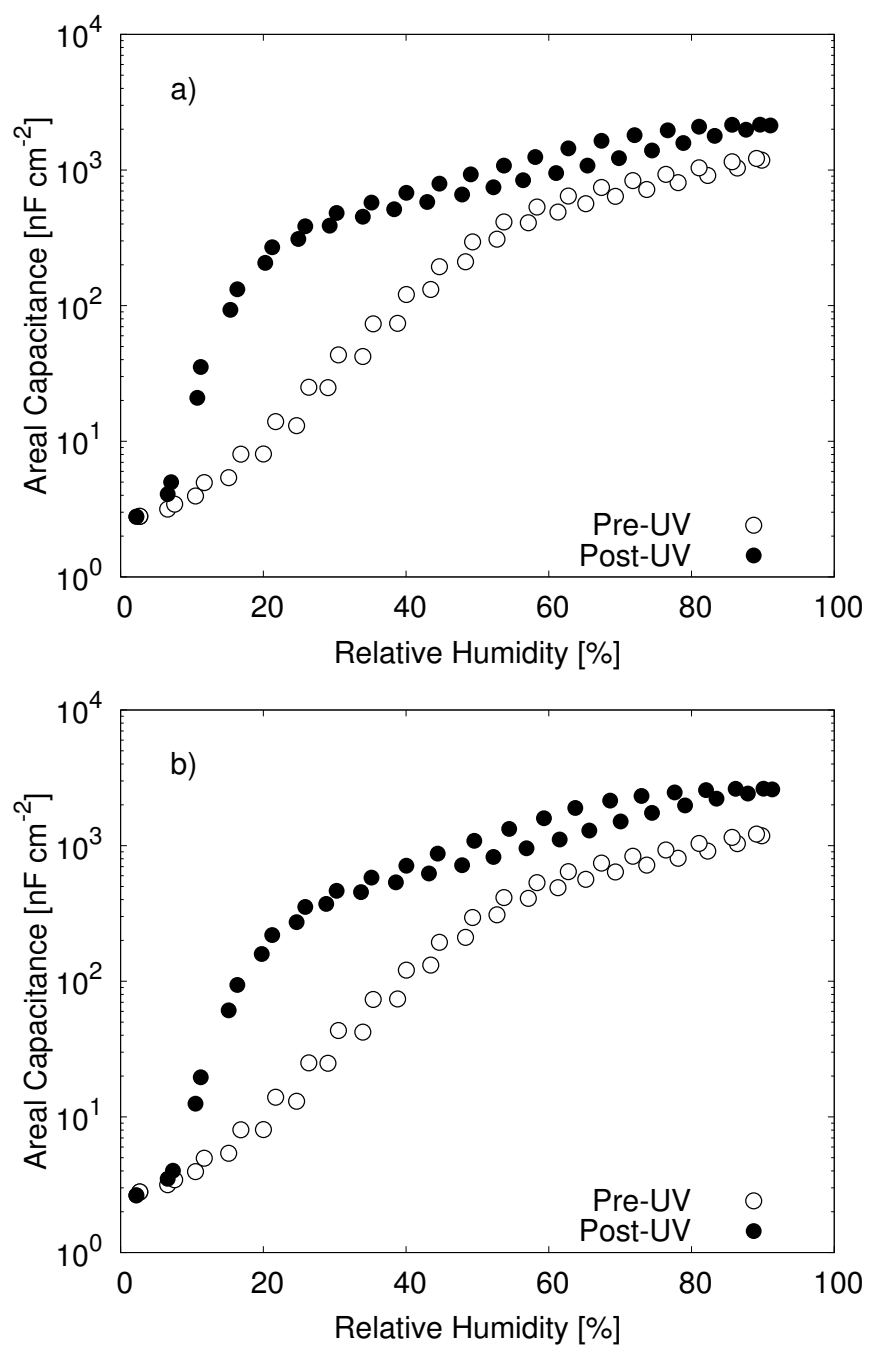


Figure 5.8: Responsivity of RH sensors treated with (a) 295 nm and (b) 310 nm UV LEDs

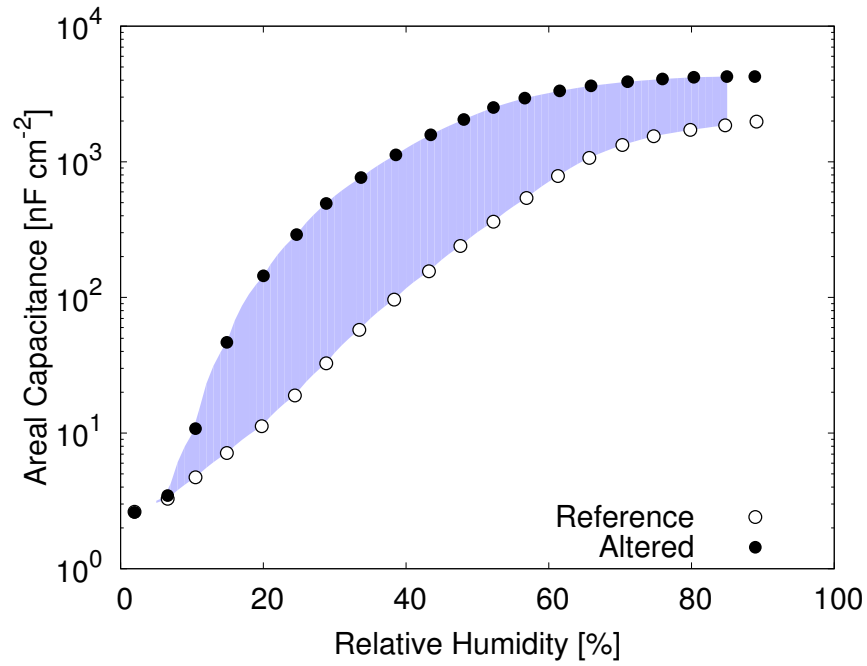


Figure 5.9: Graphical representation of the figure of merit (FOM), defined as the area between a reference sensor response curve (the original as-deposited sensor) and the altered sensor response curve. A UV-treated device has a FOM greater than zero, while an aged device has a FOM less than zero.

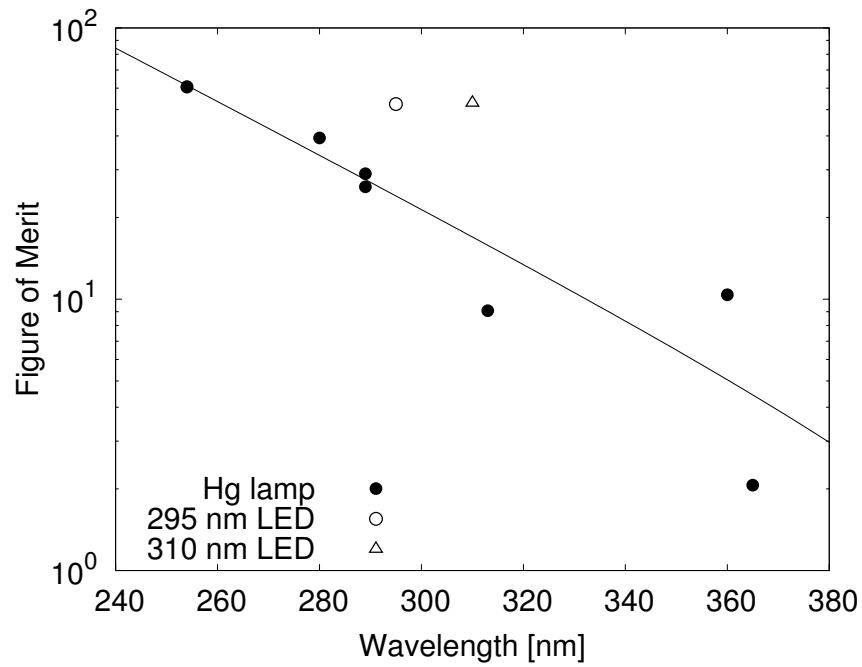


Figure 5.10: FOM as a function of illumination wavelength. The curve is a guide for the eye.

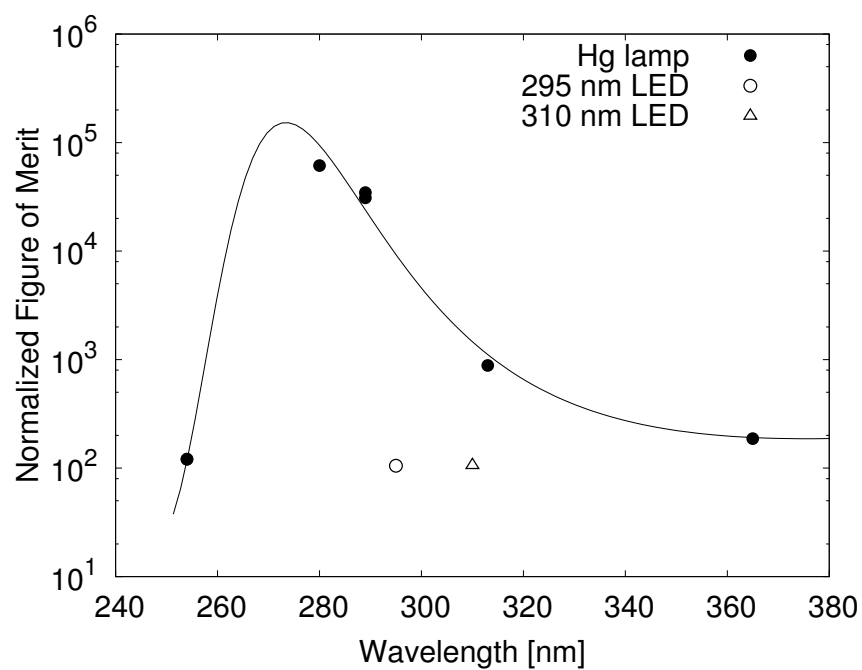


Figure 5.11: FOM divided by power delivered at that wavelength. The curve is a guide for the eye.

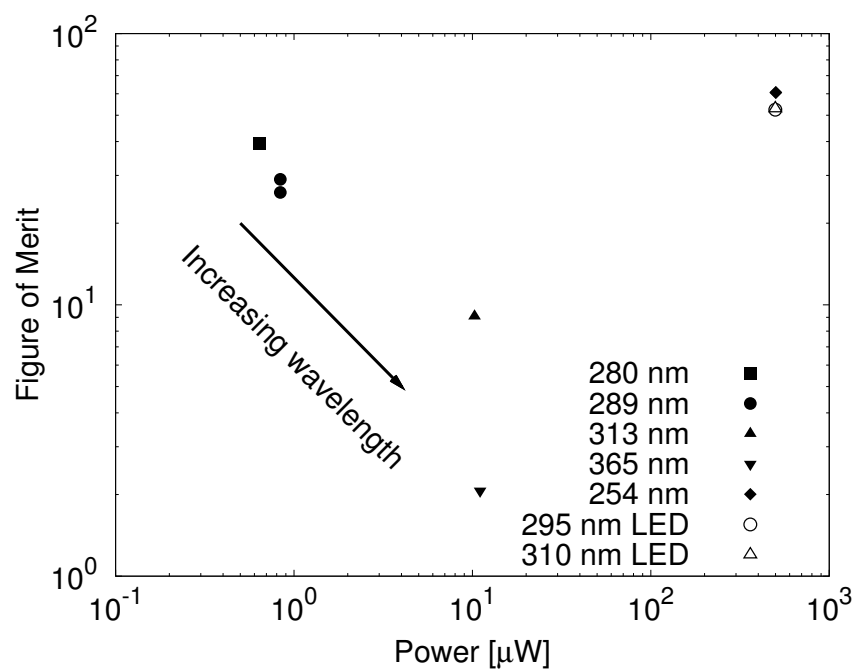


Figure 5.12: FOM as a function of the illumination power.

$\mu\text{W}$  the FOM decreased with increasing power since higher powers correspond to longer treatment wavelengths.

After UV treatment the devices were left to age for 87-96 days before being tested again. Ageing resulted in a decrease in the FOM (Figure 5.13a). Devices in the low-power regime had a negative FOM while the devices in the high-power regime retained positive FOMs. The change in FOM ranged from -56.9 to -32.6 with a mean of -36.3. Figure 5.13b shows time-resolved device ageing under several different conditions. The samples treated with filtered wavelengths were the most stable and aged the slowest, at an average rate of  $-0.43 \pm 0.03$  FOM/day. An untreated sample aged at a rate of  $-0.93 \pm 0.04$  FOM/day. The least stable sample was treated with an unfiltered lamp (data from a previous study [28]) and aged at a rate of  $-1.38 \pm 0.03$  FOM/day.

## 5.4 Discussion

The increase in the water contact angle after UV treatment at all wavelengths except for 254 nm is contrary to what was expected. It is possible that the sensors were not exposed for long enough at higher wavelengths to induce hydrophilicity. The power of the 254 nm emission line is significantly greater than the other lines and produced the smallest contact angle and largest change. Sakai *et al.* found that the rate of change in the water contact angle is proportional to the irradiation intensity [83]. They also reported that there is a strong relation between the reciprocal of the contact angle and the density of surface hydroxyl groups [84], which will be explained in more detail below. Lin *et al.* reported an average water contact angle of  $24^\circ$  for fresh titanium oxide films deposited by reactive DC magnetron sputtering [85], which is smaller but compares to the average of  $34^\circ$  for the new films examined here. Lin *et al.* also found that after ageing for 2 days the average contact angle was over  $60^\circ$ , after ageing for 6 days the average contact angle was over  $80^\circ$ , and UV irradiation quickly changed the contact angle back to a range around  $33^\circ$ . For the films reported here, after the 48 hour treatment the contact angle for all films except for the one treated at 365 nm were below  $60^\circ$  and all except for the

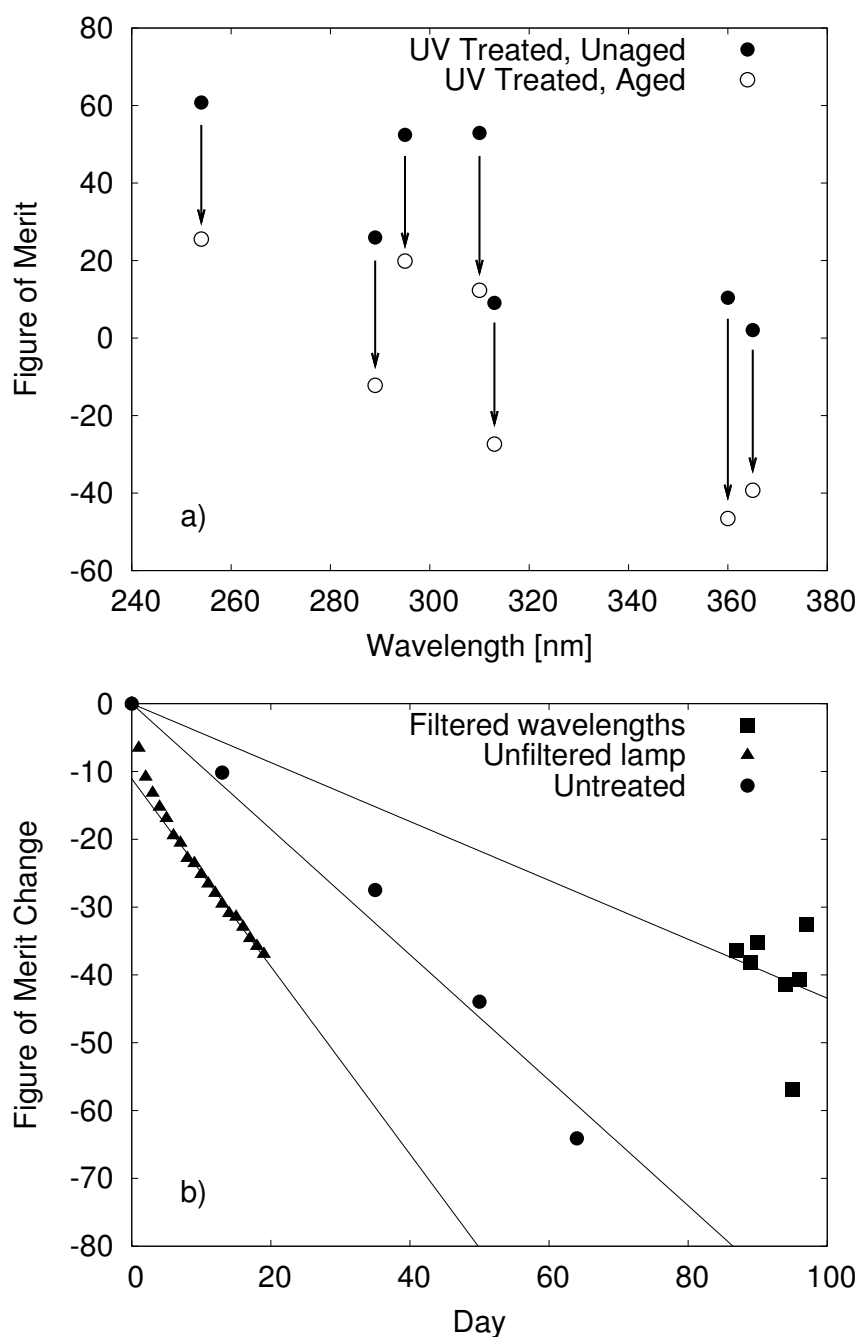


Figure 5.13: (a) FOM of unaged sensors and sensors aged approximately 90 days as a function of illumination wavelength. (b) Change in the FOM over time for different applied treatments. The sensors treated with the filtered mercury lamp are the most stable (show the smallest change in FOM) followed by the untreated sensor and then by the sensor treated with an unfiltered mercury lamp (data from a previous study [28]). The untreated sensor starts at a FOM of 0 while the treated sensors start with a FOM of between 25 and 100.

one treated at 254 nm had increased. This could be because the irradiation intensity was too weak and the films aged faster than they were regenerated over the 48 hour treatment period. With sufficient irradiation intensity a point may be reached where the ageing is countered and the sensors are regenerated, since the rate of change in water contact angle is proportional to the intensity.

Despite the increases observed in water contact angle after UV treatment, the decreasing trend in angle with decreasing wavelength after treatment shows some similarity to the FOM trend. As the water contact angle decreases, the FOM increases. Both trends suggest that shorter UV wavelengths have a greater effect on the films and sensors. The effect is greatest in both cases at wavelengths below 300 nm. These results form the basis of the UV characterization and will be useful when selecting a UV LED wavelength for sensor regeneration and stabilization.

Analysis of the FOM versus illumination wavelength in Figure 5.10 is somewhat misleading because the trend suggests that a greater FOM may be achieved with continually shorter illumination wavelengths. The FOMs from the UV LEDs contradict this trend. The reason for this is because the delivered power is not taken into account. When the FOMs are normalized with respect to the power it becomes apparent that the 254 nm and UV LED treatments are less efficient treatments when compared to the others. However the trend observed in Figure 5.11 does not necessarily mean that the optimum wavelength is 275 nm. Since the 254 nm and UV LED treatments deliver 2-3 orders of magnitude more power than the other treatment, and that the FOMs in this high power regime are similar values, it is likely that the treatments were saturated and more power was delivered than necessary to achieve the results. The fact that the (relatively) high-powered LEDs produced significantly larger FOMs than low-power treatments at similar wavelengths supports this. This means that although the optimum LED wavelength in terms of FOM versus power delivered might be at shorter wavelengths, cheaper LEDs at longer wavelengths may be used to achieve good sensor results.

In Figure 5.13b the sensor treated with an unfiltered mercury lamp aged about 3 times as fast as sensors treated with filtered wavelengths. Two plausible reasons for this difference have been identified. The first is the frequency of testing. The RH

was continuously cycled and impedance data collected for the duration of several weeks for the sensor treated with the unfiltered lamp. Extreme RH cycling has been observed to age sensors faster than normal [28]. This is contrasted with the sensors treated with filtered wavelengths, which were left unilluminated inside a cabinet for approximately 3 months before being tested again.

The second potential reason for the difference in the rate of ageing is the shape of the response curve and the way that it might affect the FOM. The baseline shape of the response curve varies slightly between different batches of sensors. It is possible that a change in the response curve of one sensor registers as a larger change in the FOM because of the inherent shape of the curve. This characteristic of the FOM has not yet been examined.

The fact that some sensors age faster than others, however, is not important in the context of regenerating sensors with the UV treatment. The rate at which the sensors are regenerated is much faster than the rate at which they age. Thus a continuous UV treatment may negate the ageing of the sensors and stabilize their response curves.

The accumulation of organic contaminants on the surface of the sensors [86,87] has been observed to reduce the hydrophilicity of titanium dioxide films and could be one factor that contributes to sensor ageing. Titanium oxide is well known as a photocatalyst [27]. Treatment with UV light might regenerate the sensors by photocatalyzing the decomposition of the organic contaminants on the surface.

Alternatively, a reduction or restructuring of the surface hydroxylation of the sensors could also be responsible for the ageing. Formation of stable hydroxyl groups bound to oxygen vacancies at the surface is thought to cause a drift in the conductivity of humidity sensors [20]. This can also be thought of hydration of bridging oxygen atoms on the surface, caused by long-term exposure to water [20]. This is reflected in the ageing of sensors after extreme humidity cycling [28]. Sensor conductivity is due to protons hopping between the hydroxyl ions of the initial layer of chemisorbed water at low humidities and between physisorbed water molecules according to the Grothuss chain reaction mechanism at higher humidities [88] (see Chapter 2). The decreased conductivity of aged sensors is caused by the increase in



the stable chemisorbed hydroxyl groups on the surface, instead of the presence of chemisorbed water molecules [89].

A model for the surface restructuring is described by Sakai *et al.* [84]. In this model under dark conditions oxygen vacancy (defect) sites are occupied by hydroxyl groups that are bound to two Ti atoms. UV illumination recreates the oxygen defect at which water is chemisorbed and dissociates. This results in two hydroxyl groups at the site that are each bound to a single Ti atom. This process increases the total number of hydroxyl groups and reduces the number of hydroxyl groups bound to oxygen vacancies. In the dark, the surface reverts back to doubly-bound hydroxyl groups at oxygen vacancies. This change and restructuring of surface hydroxylation changes the hydrophilicity of the films and could be related to the shift in the steep region of the sensor response between higher and lower humidities.

Annealing titanium oxide films at high temperatures also creates oxygen defects and it was found that after annealing at 900 K the surface defect coverage reaches a maximum of about 10 % [90]. Unfortunately, such treatments will degrade the GLAD structure which is responsible for the rapid response times our sensors are capable of. It is possible that the saturation observed in the FOM is related to a maximum density of hydroxyl groups or defect states on the sensor surface. After delivering a certain amount of energy to the films, the hydroxyl density might become saturated. Further characterization of sensor regeneration across a range of UV LEDs will determine the longest wavelength and minimum power required to regenerate and stabilize a sensor.

## 5.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, the wavelength dependency of the UV treatment of GLAD RH sensors was characterized using a filtered mercury vapour lamp. A figure of merit (FOM) was defined and used to quantify the change in sensor response after treatment and ageing relative to the original sensor response. A general trend of a larger FOM with shorter UV treatment wavelength was observed. However when the delivered power was taken into consideration, high-power and low-power treatment

regimes became evident. The effect of the treatment in the high-power regime seemed to saturate regardless of the wavelength. The low-power regime still followed the trend of greater FOM with shorter wavelength. Treated sensors were observed to age on average at a constant rate of -0.43 FOM/day independent of the treatment wavelength, much slower than the sensor regeneration of up to 61 FOM over 48 hours. It is thought that these effects are the result of changes in the hydroxylation of the surface of the sensors.

The next chapter describes work on characterization of the sensor treatment and long-term stabilization of sensors with a range of UV LED wavelengths.

# Chapter 6

## UV LED Treatment and Stability <sup>1</sup>

### 6.1 Introduction

The treatment and stabilization of GLAD relative humidity sensors using UV LEDs are described in this chapter. The UV LED technology discussed in Chapter 4 offers a small, low power alternative to mercury vapour lamps and does not have environmental hazard disposal issues. This chapter first discusses the treatment and performance enhancement of sensors using a range of UV LED wavelengths in order to identify an optimum wavelength. The repeatability of the UV LED treatment is then presented. Next the long-term stability of sensors under continuous illumination with the UV LEDs is investigated. Lastly, the performance of these UV-stabilized sensors is compared to commercial humidity sensors.

### 6.2 Experimental Setup

Two sets of relative humidity sensors were fabricated using the procedures described in Chapter 5. Porous films  $1.5\ \mu\text{m}$  thick were deposited on top of countersunk IDEs (Micralyne, Inc.) with a deposition angle  $\alpha = 80^\circ$  using GLAD. Rutile  $\text{TiO}_2$  (99.9%, Cerac, Inc.) was used as a source material to deposit  $\text{TiO}_2$  vertical columns  $1.5\ \mu\text{m}$  thick at a vapour flux deposition rate of  $0.5\ \text{nm s}^{-1}$  between pressures of  $6 \times 10^{-5}$  Torr and  $8 \times 10^{-5}$  Torr. Oxygen was added during deposition at a flow rate of 2.2 sccm - 3.6 sccm to grow a more stoichiometric film.

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<sup>1</sup>Part of this chapter has been submitted for publication in: D.P. Smetaniuk, M.T. Taschuk, and M.J. Brett, "Performance and lifetime enhancement of  $\text{TiO}_2$  capacitive nanostructured relative humidity sensors using ultraviolet LEDs," Under revision August 14, 2011 for IEEE Sensors Journal.

The samples were thermally oxidized at 100°C in atmosphere for 24 hours after deposition [16, 28, 40].

One set of sensors was constantly irradiated with an UV LED (UVTOP, Thorlabs) for each sensor. Typical UV LED specifications are summarized in Table 6.1. Note that the costs are approximate \$CAD and for a small volume purchase. The UV LED spectra were measured using an Ocean Optics HR2000 UV-VIS CCD spectrometer. LED260W, LED285W, LED315W, and LED341W come in TO-39 packages while LED370E and LED405E come in T-1 3/4 packages. All LEDs were operated with a constant current of 20 mA. Each sensor and LED was mounted inside a small aluminum box with the sensor on one side of the box, and the LED on the other, positioned so that the maximum irradiance was delivered to the sensor IDE (Figure 6.1). Because of differences in the beam divergence angle, LEDs in TO-39 packages were positioned approximately 5 mm from the sensor and LEDs in T-1 3/4 packages were positioned approximately 2 cm from the sensor so that the beam spot covers the entire IDE. The LEDs were left on for the entire duration of the experiment, including during sensor testing. The other set of sensors was tested before and after a 48 hour treatment under a 370 nm UV LED to test the treatment variability from device to device.

For this chapter a new figure of merit different than that in Chapter 5 was defined (Figure 6.2):

$$FOM^* = \int_{RH_{min}}^{RH_{max}} [\log_{10} C_s(RH) - \log_{10} C_g] dRH \quad (6.1)$$

where  $RH_{min}$  and  $RH_{max}$  are the minimum and maximum relative humidities achieved during testing,  $C_s$  is the capacitive response of the sensor to relative humidity, and  $C_g$  is the geometric capacitance of the IDE.  $FOM^*$  uses the geometric capacitance instead of the initial response of the sensor. Because of this  $FOM^*$  is able to track the overall performance change in the sensor, rather than the relative change and is not susceptible to variations in the initial sensor response.  $FOM^*$  is always positive, and a value of zero or near zero effectively means the sensor is dead. The new  $FOM^*$  values may be approximately compared to the values in Chapter 5 by adding 80 to the old FOM.

Table 6.1: UV LED specifications

Part #	Center Wavelength	Spectral FWHM	Optical Power @ 20 mA	Cost (\$CAD)
LED260W	$260 \pm 5$ nm	12 nm	0.3 mW	\$289
LED285W	$285 \pm 5$ nm	12 nm	0.8 mW	\$182
LED315W	$315 \pm 5$ nm	10 nm	0.6 mW	\$142
LED341W	$340 \pm 10$ nm	15 nm	0.35 mW (Max)	\$175
LED370E	$375 \pm 10$ nm	10 nm	2.5 mW	\$4
LED405E	$405 \pm 10$ nm	15 nm	6 mW	\$14

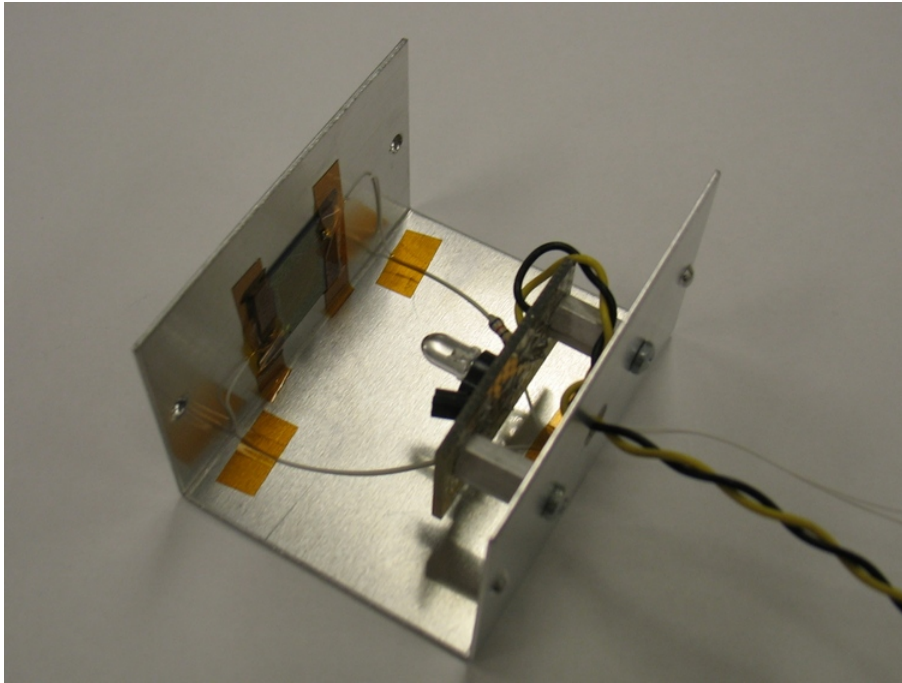


Figure 6.1: Aluminum box (without cover) containing a sensor and UV LED.

The geometric capacitance may be calculated from a model that takes into account the IDE geometry, substrate, and deposited film electrical properties [58]. The values  $RH_{max} = 80$  %RH,  $RH_{min} = 5$  %RH, and  $C_g = 1.6$  nF were used when calculating FOM\* values.  $C_g$  was obtained by a capacitive measurement at 1 MHz at a low humidity where the contributions of adsorbed water may be neglected.

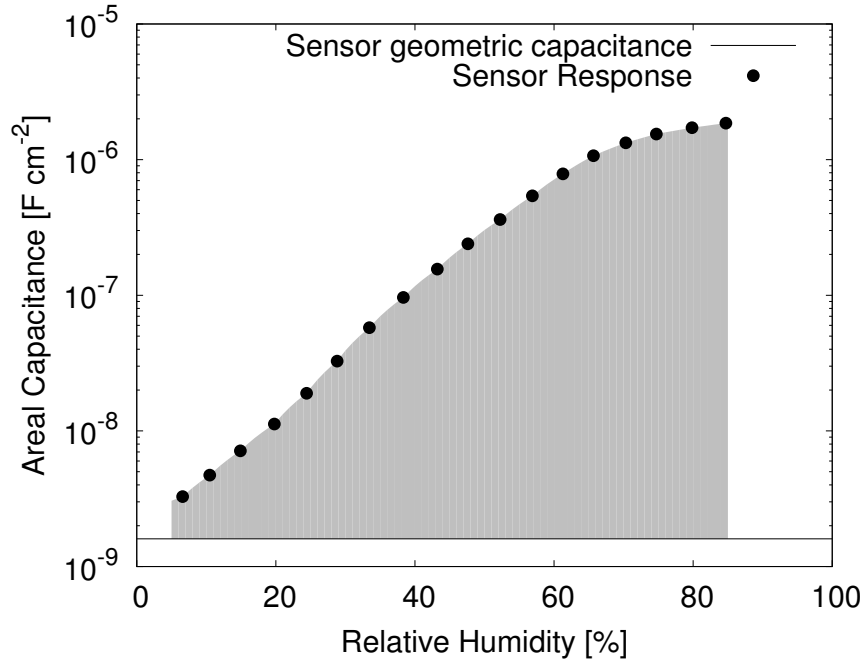


Figure 6.2: Graphical representation of the new figure of merit (FOM\*), defined as the area between the sensor response curve and the geometric capacitance of the IDE. The FOM\* is always greater than or equal to zero. A bare IDE without a film will have a FOM\* of zero.

## 6.3 Results

UV LED wavelengths up to 370 nm effectively enhanced sensor performance after 15-21 days of UV treatment (Fig. 6.3). A typical response for a new, untreated sensor is shown by the solid line. The response curves of all regenerated sensors are very similar in shape. The sensor treated with the 405 nm LED showed some ageing. 370 nm was identified as the longest wavelength and least costly LED that effectively regenerates the sensors.

Figure 6.4 shows the hysteresis in the response of the sensor treated with the 370 nm LED over time. In a new sensor, hysteresis is prevalent at higher humidities and capacitance. As the sensor is treated over time the hysteresis loop tends to shift to the left towards lower humidities and gets smaller relative to the response. During sensor ageing without UV treatment the hysteresis loop opens up and shifts right towards higher humidities [28].

Sensor sensitivity is defined as the change in areal capacitance with a change

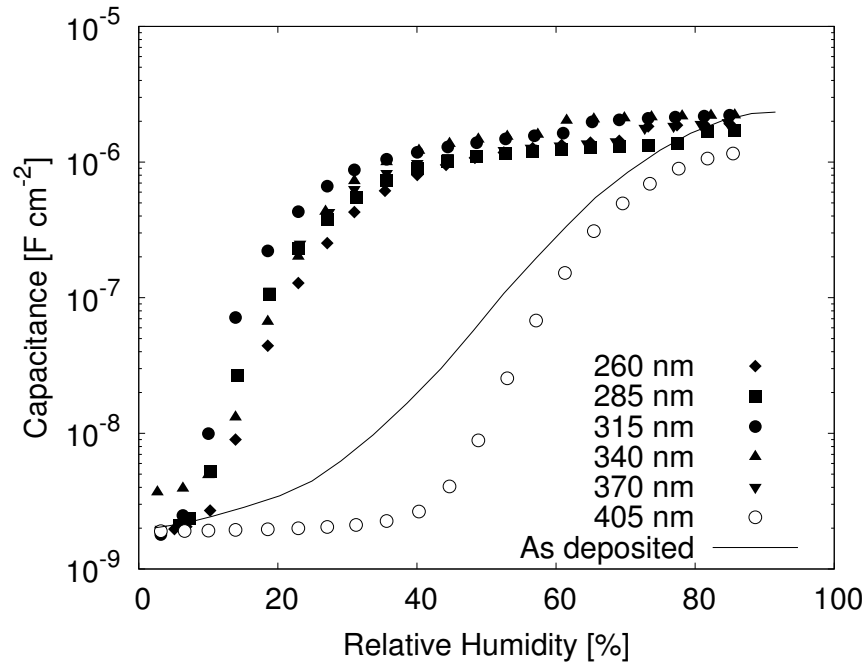


Figure 6.3: Sensor response after 15-21 days of treatment with UV LEDs. The solid line is the response of an untreated, unaged sensor.

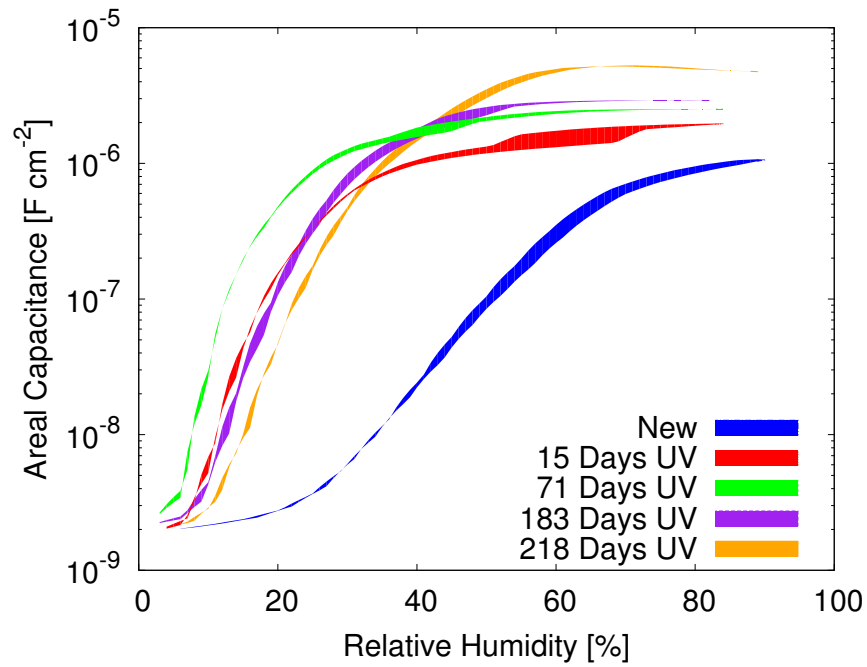


Figure 6.4: Sensor hysteresis loops for treatment with the 370 nm LED. The hysteresis loop tends to shift towards the left and closes as the sensor is treated.

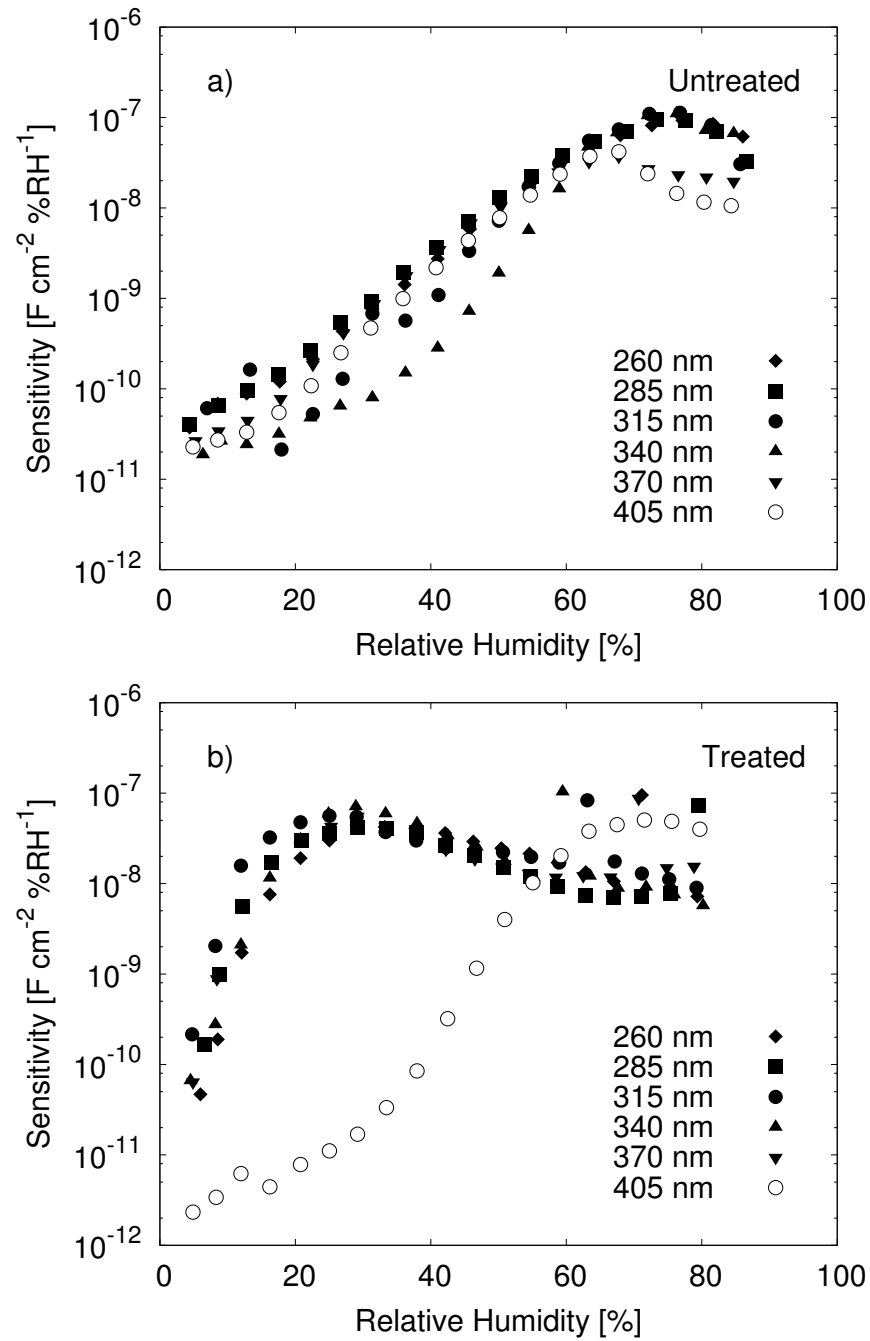


Figure 6.5: Sensor sensitivity before (a) and after (b) UV treatment. All LEDs except for 405 nm result in extension of the high sensitivity range to lower humidities.



in relative humidity and has units of  $\text{nF cm}^{-2} \%RH^{-1}$ . Figure 6.5a shows the sensitivity of new sensors before treatment. The sensors show low sensitivity at low humidities, in the range of  $30 \text{ pF cm}^{-2} \%RH^{-1}$ . The sensitivity increases with increasing humidity and reaches a maximum between  $50 - 100 \text{ nF cm}^{-2} \%RH^{-1}$  around approximately  $70 \%RH$ . Figure 6.5b shows sensor sensitivity after 15-21 days of treatment with a UV LED. The sensor treated with the  $405 \text{ nm}$  LED shows an overall drop in sensitivity, down to around  $3 \text{ pF cm}^{-2} \%RH^{-1}$  at low humidities. Sensors treated with UV wavelengths below  $405 \text{ nm}$  show an extension of the high sensitivity region. The sensitivity starts off in the same range at low humidities, but quickly increases to over  $10 \text{ nF cm}^{-2} \%RH^{-1}$  above  $15 \%RH$ .

The  $FOM^*$  was calculated for the sensors treated with UV LEDs at several times during treatment. The behavior of the  $FOM^*$  values was modelled by fitting the following function:

$$FOM^*(t) = A \left[ 1 - \exp\left(\frac{c-t}{\tau}\right) - mt \right] \quad (6.2)$$

where  $t$  is the time in days,  $\tau$  is the time constant, and  $A$ ,  $c$ , and  $m$  are constants with  $A$  being the maximum value of the  $FOM^*$ . The exponential term fits the increasing behavior of the  $FOM^*$ . The linear term with a slope  $-m$  models the approximately linear rate at which the  $FOM^*$  decreases as the sensor ages, as seen in Chapter 5. The  $FOM^*$  values and trend lines are shown in Figure 6.6, where initial  $FOM^*$  values for new, untreated sensors range from 71 to 105. After 15-21 days of treatment, the  $FOM^*$  increased significantly, ranging from 175 to 195, for sensors treated with LEDs with wavelengths of  $370 \text{ nm}$  and lower. Up to approximately 75 days the  $FOM^*$  continues to increase, but only slightly compared to the first treatment interval. The  $315 \text{ nm}$  and  $370 \text{ nm}$  sensors both remain fairly stable after this period, however the  $FOM^*$  for  $285 \text{ nm}$  and  $260 \text{ nm}$  starts to decline and drop back towards the initial value. The  $FOM^*$  value for the sensor treated with the  $405 \text{ nm}$  LED decreased slowly from 101 to 53 over 246 days of treatment.

The time constant  $\tau$  and LED wavelength are compared on the left axis in Figure 6.7a. There is a correlation between  $FOM^*$  time constant and LED wavelength, specifically, the greater the LED wavelength, the  $FOM^*$  increases with a smaller

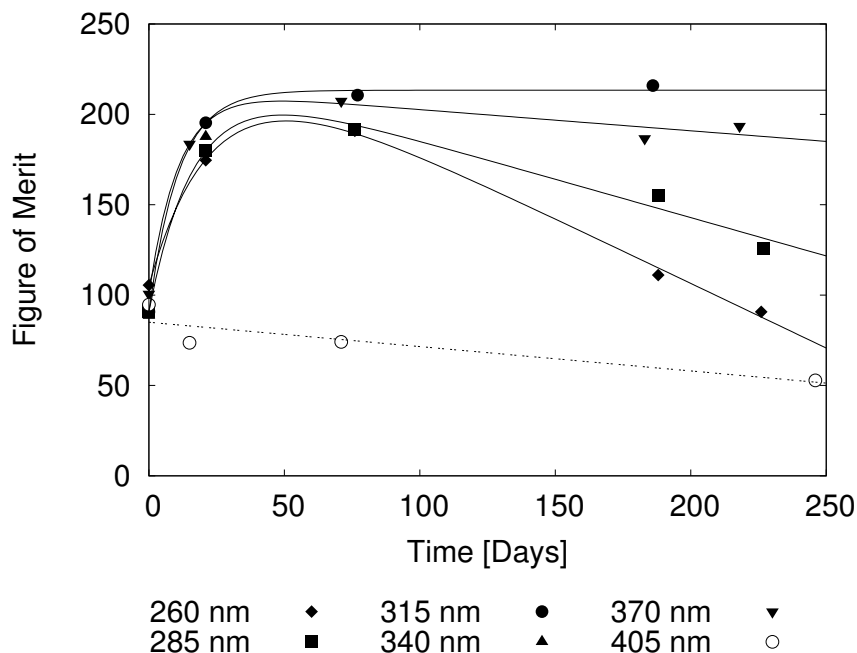


Figure 6.6: Figure of merit (FOM\*) values over time with fitted curves.

time constant. However the right axis in Figure 6.7a shows that the LED output power generally increases with increasing LED wavelength. The time constant is compared to the LED power in Figure 6.7b; the solid line is a linear fit to the data. There is a general inverse correlation between the time constant and the LED power, i.e., the greater the LED power, the smaller the time constant. The 370 nm LED had the smallest time constant of 10 days.

In order to examine variability in the UV treatment from device to device, FOM\* values were calculated for the second set of sensors before and after treatment with the 370 nm LED. The FOM\* results of the repeatability experiment are summarized in Table 6.2. Before treatment the mean FOM\* was 132.1 with a standard deviation of 2.4. After treatment the mean FOM\* was 169.6 with a standard deviation of 0.9, demonstrating in both cases that device to device performance is consistent.

The performance of GLAD TiO<sub>2</sub> relative humidity sensors is compared with the performance of several commercial sensors in Table 6.3. The response time of less than 250 ms for GLAD sensors is much faster than the commercial sensors shown, and the sensitivity is around 10 nF/%RH over 15% RH, over four orders of magnitude greater than any of the commercial sensors. The  $\pm 2.5\%$  RH hysteresis

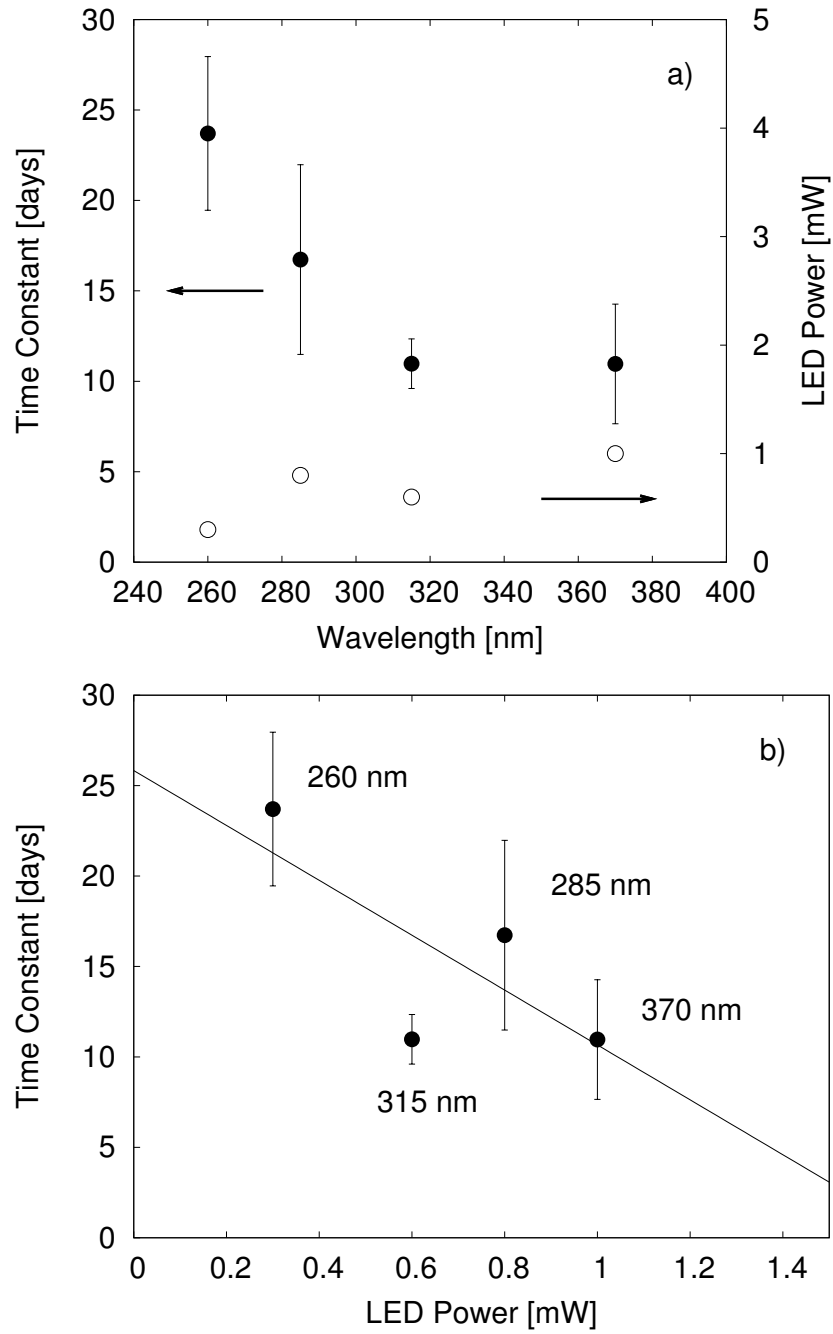


Figure 6.7: a) The time constant from the curve fitted to the FOM\* values versus the LED wavelength is shown with the closed symbols on the left axis. The LED power versus the LED wavelength is shown with the open symbols on the right axis. b) FOM\* time constant versus LED power. The solid line is a linear best fit to the data.

Table 6.2: 370 nm LED treatment repeatability

Sample #	FOM* before treatment	FOM* after treatment	$\Delta$ FOM*
1	128.98	170.53	41.55
2	131.56	169.27	37.70
3	132.99	168.90	35.91
4	134.73	-	-
mean	132.07	169.57	38.39
standard deviation	2.428	0.858	2.882

is similar to that of most sensors shown, which range from  $\approx 0\%$  RH to  $\pm 2\%$  RH. Below approximately 50% RH the stability of GLAD sensors is  $\pm 3.5\%$  RH over four months. Above approximately 50% RH or the flat region of the sensor response the stability is worse with a drift of  $\pm 12\%$  RH or greater.

## 6.4 Discussion

The goal of the UV treatment is to enhance sensor performance, improve stability and prevent ageing. Since the bandgap of anatase titanium dioxide is 3.2 eV, corresponding to a wavelength of 387 nm, electron-hole pair generation will occur for UV treatment wavelengths below 387 nm. Photogenerated holes trapped at the surface create oxygen defects, which act as sites for catalysis [29, 84]. This supports the enhanced sensor performance observed with UV LED treatments up to 370 nm wavelengths. The sensor treated with the 405 nm LED exhibited ageing, however the rate of ageing with respect to the FOM\* was slower than was seen with other untreated sensors in Chapter 5. This is likely because approximately 25  $\mu$ W or 0.4 % of the spectral power of the 405 nm LED is below 387 nm, based on spectral measurements. This may be enough UV illumination to slow the rate of ageing, but not enough to enhance the performance.

Overall, sensor performance is enhanced by the tightening and shifting of the hysteresis loop to lower humidities (see Figure 6.4) as well as extension of the high sensitivity range to lower humidities (see Figure 6.5). During sensor ageing, the

Table 6.3: Comparison of GLAD humidity sensors with commercial humidity sensing technologies

Description	Humidity		Sensitivity	Accuracy		Hysteresis	Stability	Response sTime
	Range							
CHS-U [21]	5 ~ 95% RH	-	-	±3% RH @ 5 ~ 95% RH	±0	-	-	60 s (30 ~ 85% RH)
HS1100 [22]	1 ~ 99% RH	0.34 pF/%RH	0.34 pF/%RH	±2% RH @ 10 ~ 90% RH	±1.5% RH	0.5% RH/yr	5 s (33 ~ 76% RH)	5 s
HHH-5030 [23]	0 ~ 100% RH	-	-	±3% RH @ 11 ~ 89% RH	2% RH	±1.2% RH/5 yrs		
HCH-1000 [24]	0 ~ 100% RH	0.6 pF/%RH	0.6 pF/%RH	±2% RH	±2% RH	0.2 %RH/yr	15 s (20 ~ 90% RH)	60 s (90% RH)
HMP110 [25]	0 ~ 100% RH	-	-	±1.7% RH @ 0 ~ 90% RH	-	±2% RH/2 yrs		
				±2.5% RH @ 90 ~ 100% RH				
GLAD TiO <sub>2</sub>	2 ~ 92% RH <sup>(1)</sup> ~ 10 nF/%RH <sup>(2)</sup>			±2% RH	±2.5% RH	7% RH/4 mths <sup>(3)</sup> 25% RH/4 mths <sup>(4)</sup>		< 250 ms

<sup>(1)</sup> Limited by humidity chamber capabilities.

<sup>(2)</sup> Above ~15% RH. See Figure 6.5.

<sup>(3)</sup> Below ~50% RH.

<sup>(4)</sup> Above ~50% RH.

opposite is observed: the hysteresis loops open up and shift to the right, while the high sensitivity range shrinks to higher humidities [28].

In Figure 5.13 the initial increasing behavior of the FOM\* follows an exponential trend and saturates at approximately 200, depending on the UV wavelength. Chapter 5 suggests that the change in the sensor response is related to hydroxylation of the sensor surface [29]. At low humidities sensor conductivity is due to proton hopping between the hydroxyl ions in the first chemisorbed layer of water. As the humidity is increased, sensor conductivity and sensitivity increase drastically as subsequent layers of water are physisorbed and proton-hopping occurs between freely-bound water molecules via the Grotthuss mechanism. The number of hydroxyl groups bound to a single Ti atom is increased under UV illumination, increasing the conductivity at lower humidities. We expect that the UV LED-induced change in hydroxyl density is responsible for the reported shift in the steep region of the response and sensitivity curves after UV treatment. The inverse exponential decay behaviour of the FOM\* supports the idea that there are a limited number of sites available for hydroxylation and that the majority of sites have been hydroxylated when the FOM\* begins to saturate. At this point the rates of the sensor ageing and regeneration processes have reached equilibrium.

Once treated, the ideal case is that the sensor response remains stable and the FOM\* is constant. However we observe a decreasing FOM\* for all sensors except for the one treated with 315 nm. This slow decrease in FOM\* may be due to decreasing UV output power from the LEDs over time. Meneghini *et al.* found an output power decrease of 13% in UV LEDs after 100 hours of operation at 20 mA [91]. UV LEDs manufactured by Nichia, which use similar technology as the UV LEDs used in this study, typically have lifetimes of 500 - 1000 hours [92]. The 370 nm and 405 nm sensors show some stability, with only a modest decrease in the FOM\* with time. However the 405 nm sensor is not an attractive choice for a sensor because of the poor sensitivity range (see Figure 6.5) and because its wavelength is above the bandgap wavelength of TiO<sub>2</sub>.

To counteract the ageing of the LEDs, we recommend increasing the number of LEDs and decreasing the average current per LED. This will extend the lifetime

of the LEDs, and thereby the lifetime of the combined sensor package. From a cost and performance perspective, we recommend an array of 370 nm LEDs. A close hexagonal packed array of seven LEDs would allow three LEDs to illuminate the sensor, increasing lifetime well beyond the 200 days observed here. As these LEDs fail, the additional LEDs could be switched on autonomously to replace them, thereby extending the combined sensor package lifetime significantly.

The time constant for the increase of the FOM\*,  $\tau$ , is generally smaller with longer LED wavelengths (Figure 6.7a). However this apparent correlation is deceptive since the LED power tends to increase with increasing wavelength. There is a stronger inverse linear correlation in Figure 6.7b between LED power and  $\tau$ , suggesting that the power of the LED is more important than the wavelength. Thus initially treating sensors with greater UV power will more quickly enhance the performance. From a manufacturing standpoint, treatment with a high power Hg lamp after sensor fabrication would eliminate the initial slow rise in FOM observed here. The treated sensors could then be coupled to the LED array described above, and deployed in the field.

## 6.5 Conclusion

In this chapter we reported the regeneration and stabilization of GLAD relative humidity sensors using commercial UV LEDs. We have identified 370 nm as the best LED to use for sensor regeneration and stabilization. All LED wavelengths tested below 387 nm enhance sensor performance, but 370 nm is significantly less expensive than all of the others in addition to having the smallest time constant for the increase of the FOM\* and the greatest optical output power. The repeatability test for treatment with 370 nm showed a large reduction in the variability of the FOM\* after treatment. The decrease in  $\Delta\text{FOM}^*$  between each sample could be because the LED power was decreasing, since the same LED was used serially to treat the sensors.

The next chapter discusses the design and testing of a custom 8-channel impedance analyzer for future UV treatment experiments beyond the scope of this thesis.

## Chapter 7

# Impedance Measurement Electronics: Design and Testing

This chapter discusses the design and testing of a custom impedance analyzer with 8 channels, capable of independent impedance measurements. The objective of this work is to allow for future experiments beyond the scope of this thesis that require the testing of several sensors in parallel. These experiments will allow for better sensor design and are suggested in the Proposed Future Work section of Chapter 8. This chapter first introduces impedance spectroscopy, discusses the theory behind impedance measurement, describes the implementation of the impedance analyzer, and then provides initial testing results.

### 7.1 Introduction

The impedance of a device can generally be defined as the degree to which the device opposes the flow of an alternating current (AC) at a frequency  $f$ . Impedance,  $Z$ , is described as a complex quantity:

$$Z = R + jX = |Z|\angle\theta \quad (7.1)$$

where the real component  $R$  is the resistance and the imaginary component  $X$  is the reactance when described in rectangular-coordinate form, and  $|Z|$  is the impedance magnitude and  $\theta$  is the phase angle when described in polar form. The reactance may either be inductive ( $X_L$ ) or capacitive ( $X_C$ ) and may be determined by the



following relationships:

$$X_L = 2\pi fL = 2\omega L \quad (7.2)$$

$$X_C = \frac{-1}{2\pi fC} = \frac{-1}{\omega C} \quad (7.3)$$

where  $L$  is the component inductance,  $C$  is the component capacitance, and  $\omega = 2\pi f$  is the angular frequency.

Impedance spectroscopy is the analysis of the electrical response of a system to perturbation by a signal over a range of frequencies in order to gain information about the properties or characteristics of the system. Impedance spectroscopy could assist in gaining insight into the physical mechanisms behind humidity sensing in GLAD devices. It may be useful in determining when ageing has occurred in a sensor, and provide feedback for modulating UV LED power to stabilize the device. An equivalent circuit model for titania thick film humidity sensors has been proposed by Faia *et al.* [93, 94]. The model contains discrete elements and a physical justification for each element has been provided. Applying the model to GLAD RH sensors may provide valuable information and insight and aide in better sensor design, but is beyond the scope of this thesis.

Work on GLAD RH sensors has so far primarily focused on capacitive changes in the sensors. However a large amount of information may additionally be gained by examining changes in overall impedance of the device. Figure 7.1 shows an example of the impedance magnitude, phase, and capacitive response of a sensor measured at 1 kHz using the Quadtech 1920 Precision LCR meter. Complex changes also occur in all three parameters across a wide frequency range. Figures 7.2, 7.3, and 7.4 show examples of frequency-resolved curves for impedance, capacitance, and phase respectively for the same sensor across a frequency range from 20 Hz to 1 MHz measured with the Quadtech 1920 Precision LCR meter.

The Quadtech 1920 Precision LCR meter currently used for impedance measurements only has one channel and is only able to measure a single device at a time. Ideally we would like to be able to test several sensors simultaneously. This would allow for several devices with differing UV irradiation power or duty cycle

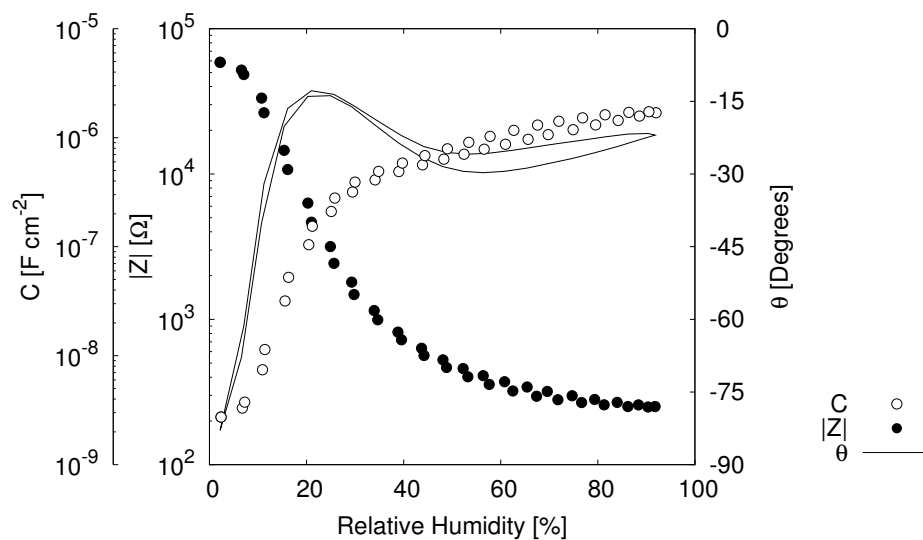


Figure 7.1: Example of sensor impedance, capacitance, and phase response measured at 1 kHz with the Quadtech 1920 Precision LCR meter.

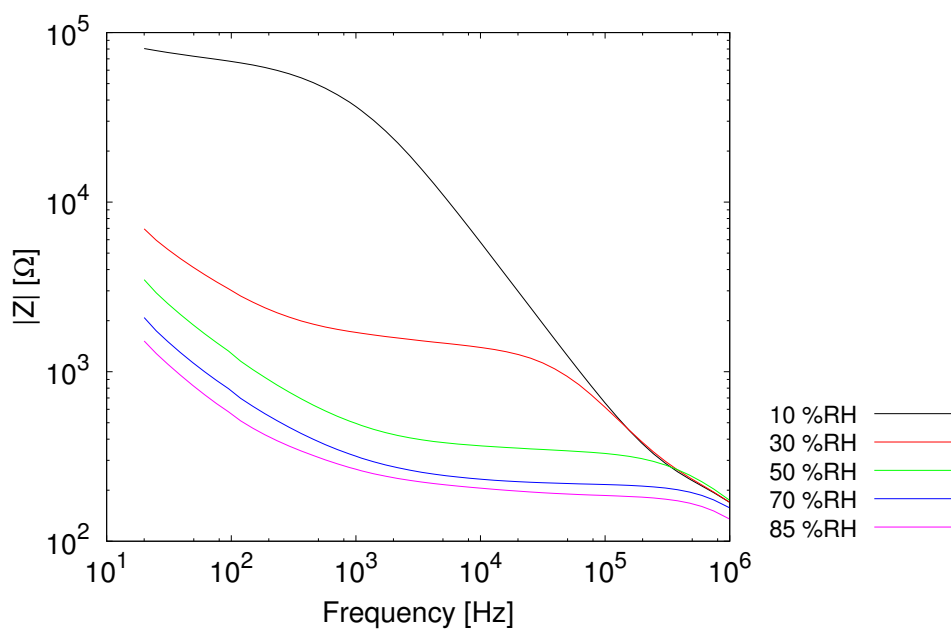


Figure 7.2: Frequency-resolved impedance  $|Z|$  of a sensor measured with the Quadtech 1920 Precision LCR meter.

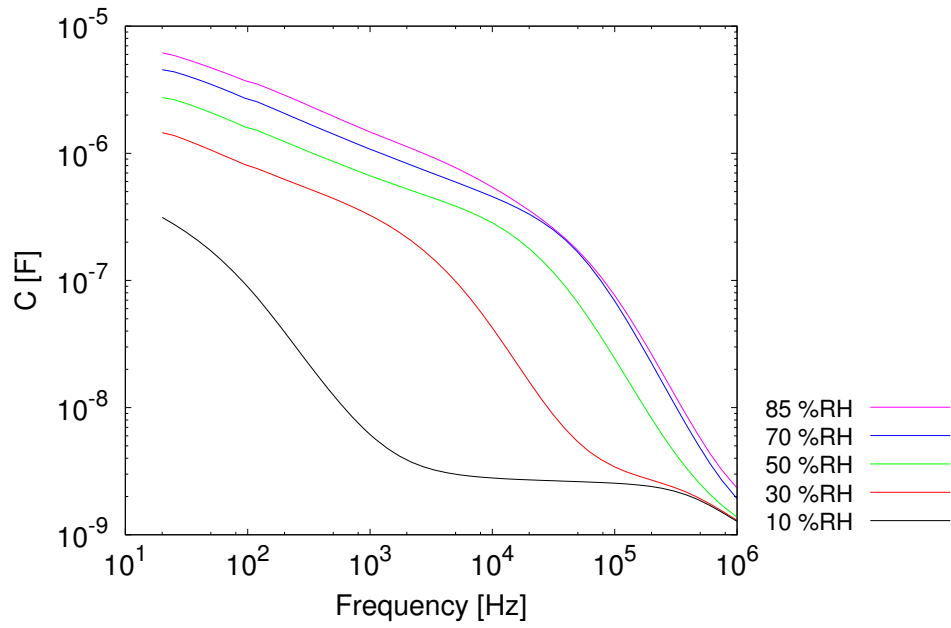


Figure 7.3: Frequency-resolved capacitance  $C$  of a sensor measured with the Quadtech 1920 Precision LCR meter.

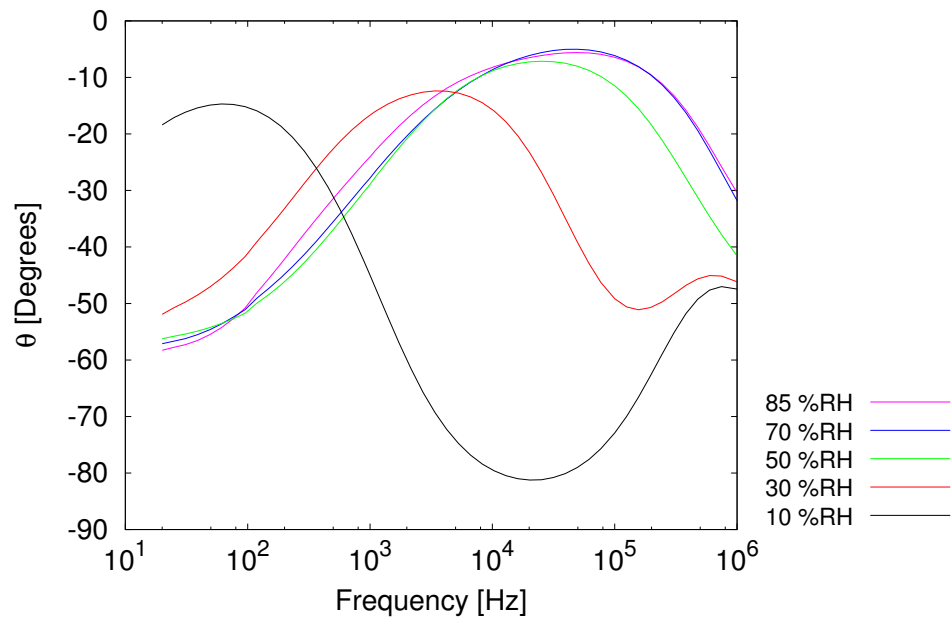


Figure 7.4: Frequency-resolved phase  $\theta$  of a sensor measured with the Quadtech 1920 Precision LCR meter.

to be tested together in the humidity chamber under the same humidity cycling conditions. Also, time-resolved ageing or regeneration changes in the sensors could be directly compared. Using relays to switch measurement between sensors is undesirable because at lower impedances the relays would affect the measurements, introducing significant errors. Ideally, each sensor will have its own dedicated analog measurement electronics. Given the cost of hundreds to thousands of dollars for LCR meters, a custom impedance analyzer capable of measurements on up to eight separate channels was developed. It is capable of measuring the impedance magnitude and phase with a frequency range of 0.1 Hz to 100 kHz.

The impedance analyzer consists of a main motherboard and eight daughterboards. The motherboard contains a DLP-2322PB-G microcontroller module and interfaces with a computer via USB connection. Each daughterboard contains the analog impedance measurement circuitry and interfaces digitally with the motherboard by plugging into one of eight ports. The rest of this chapter describes the theory behind the impedance measurement and the hardware and software implementation.

## 7.2 Theory

There are several different techniques for measuring impedance: bridge method, resonant method, I-V method, RF I-V method, network analysis method, and auto-balancing bridge method. The auto-balancing bridge method is generally the best for lower frequencies under 100 MHz and allows for measurements over a large frequency range and high accuracy over a large impedance range [95] and will be the only method discussed below.

The general principle behind measurements with the auto-balancing bridge method is to apply a test signal to the device under test (DUT) and to measure the voltage of the test signal and the current flowing through the DUT (Figure 7.5). The impedance  $Z$  may simply be determined by the following:

$$Z = \frac{V}{I} \quad (7.4)$$

where  $V$  is the measured voltage, and  $I$  is the measured current through the DUT.

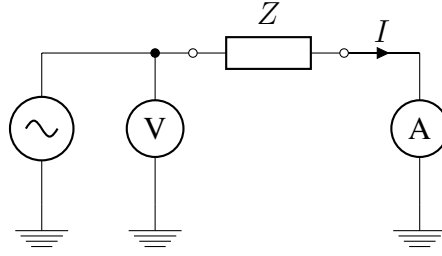


Figure 7.5: The principle behind impedance measurements using an autobalancing bridge.

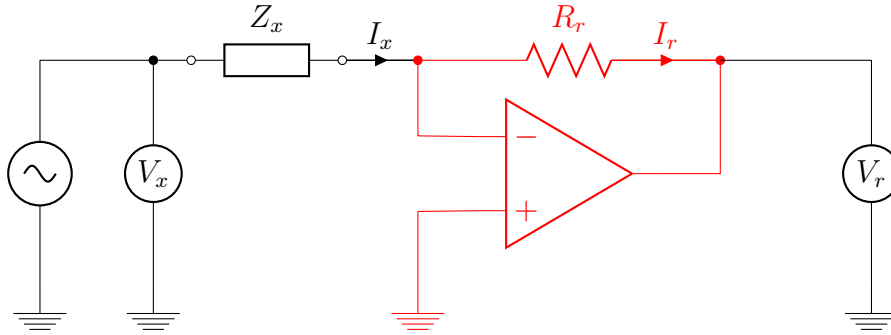


Figure 7.6: Simple auto-balancing bridge requiring two voltage measurements. The circuit in red is the op-amp I-V converter.

In practice, the current through the DUT is converted to a voltage, using an I-V converter circuit, and then the voltage instead of current is measured. Figure 7.6 shows the auto-balancing bridge with the I-V converter inserted (shown in red). The I-V converter is a simple circuit that uses an operational amplifier (op-amp) with a resistor in the negative feedback loop. The non-inverting input of the op-amp is connected to ground, so the inverting input acts as a virtual ground. The current  $I_x$  flows through the feedback resistor  $R_r$ , creating a voltage drop which is measured at the op-amp output. Because the voltage drop is with respect to the virtual ground, the voltage at the output  $V_R$  is negative and is determined by the following:

$$V_r = -I_r R_r \quad (7.5)$$

Since  $I_r = I_x$ , rearranging we get

$$I_x = -\frac{V_r}{R_r} \quad (7.6)$$

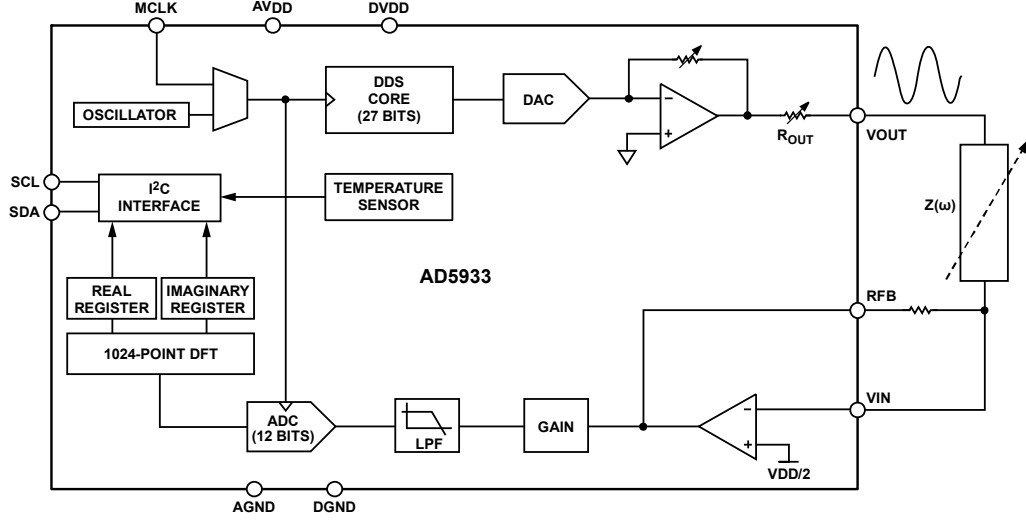


Figure 7.7: Functional block diagram of the AD5933 with the suggested configuration. Image reproduced from [96] with permission. Copyright Analog Devices, Inc.

Substituting into Equation 7.4 we derive the equation for the impedance  $Z_x$  of the DUT:

$$Z_x = \frac{V_x}{I_x} = -R_r \frac{V_x}{V_r} \quad (7.7)$$

The value of the resistor  $R_r$  is important and is known as the range resistor because it determines what range of impedances can be measured. If the value is too high, then the op-amp output will saturate, or the voltage will be too high to measure. Conversely, if the value is too low, the signal becomes more vulnerable to noise and the measurement accuracy will be lower.

Although in principle the auto-balancing bridge is simple, in practice implementing it requires numerous modules which add to the system complexity, part count, cost, and required layout area. However, recently Analog Devices has made available the AD5933, a system-on-a-chip (SoC) that contains an impedance converter network analyzer (Figure 7.7). It internally contains a frequency generator capable of synthesizing a wide range of frequencies up to 100 kHz with 27 bit resolution (0.1 Hz) using the direct digital synthesis (DDS) method. The output stage consists of the DDS core, a digital to analog converter (DAC), and a programmable gain amplifier (PGA) with an output resistance  $R_{out}$ . The generated sinusoid is applied as a test signal to the unknown impedance and the resulting response signal is passed to the input stage which consists of a current-to-voltage amplifier, a low-pass

filter (LPF) and a 12-bit analog-to-digital converter (ADC). A 1024-point discrete Fourier transform (DFT) is then applied to the quantized values from the ADC to produce 16-bit signed values for the real and imaginary components of the DFT.

The configuration suggested by Analog Devices [96] has several drawbacks. The first drawback is that two measurement cycles must be conducted, one with a calibration resistance connected instead of the impedance, the second with the actual impedance connected. The calibration resistance allows for the voltage applied to the impedance to be estimated before measuring the current through the impedance in the second cycle. In order to minimize errors, the calibration resistance should be close in value to the impedance being measured. For the large impedance range of GLAD RH sensors, this two-cycle process would be very cumbersome and impractical to automate. The second drawback is the large error when measuring at lower resistances. The series output resistance  $R_{out}$  of the output stage typically ranges from around  $200\ \Omega$  -  $2.4\ \text{k}\Omega$ , depending on the selected output excitation voltage of the stage. If this value is not accounted for in the system calibration, then there will be large errors introduced when the measured impedance is in a similar range. Additional error at lower impedances comes from the higher current that flows through the device, requiring the I-V amplifier on the  $V_{in}$  pin to sink and source greater currents, potentially putting the amplifier in a nonlinear region of operation.

A configuration using two AD5933 SoCs that addresses the drawbacks of the configuration described above has been designed by Hoja *et al.* [97]. A block diagram of the design is shown in Figure 7.8. One SoC generates the test signal. The purpose of capacitor  $C$ , when combined with the series output resistance  $R_{out}$ , is to low-pass filter the generated signal after it passes through the DAC, removing higher order harmonics. The resulting signal after filtering,  $u_o$ , is the test signal applied to the rest of the circuit and causes a current to flow through the range resistor  $R_R$  and the unknown impedance  $Z_x$ . Ideally no current flows into the input of the operational amplifiers, so  $i_x = i_R$ . The voltage-follower op amp configuration, shown in red in Figure 7.8, is used to measure the voltage across the unknown impedance  $u_x$ . Because of the feedback loop from the output to the inverting input

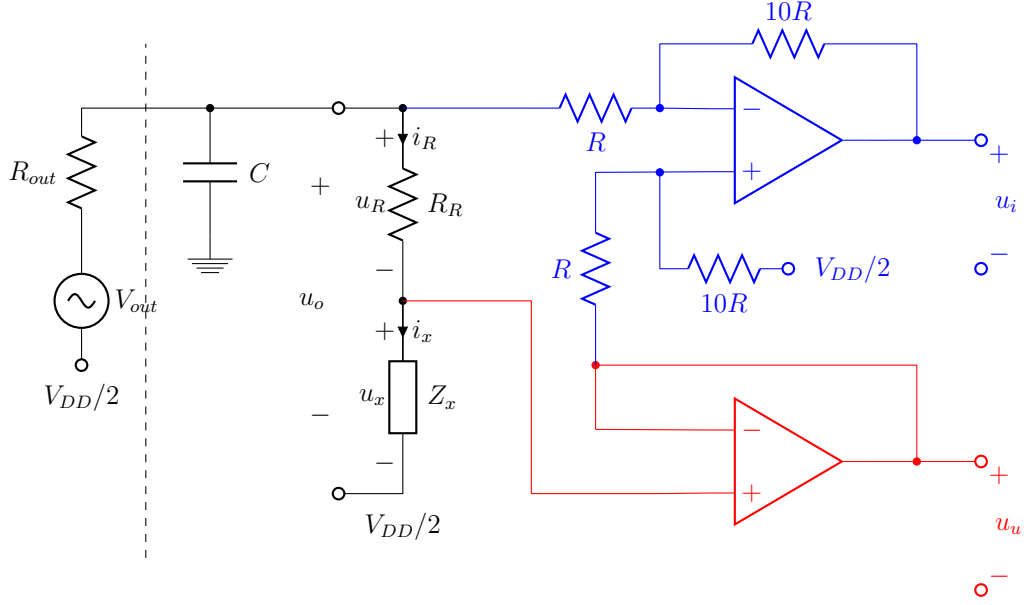


Figure 7.8: Block diagram of circuit configuration suggested by Hoja *et al.*

the voltage on the output mirrors the voltage on the input, and  $u_u = u_x$ . This circuit buffers the voltage because of the high input impedance and low output impedance of the op amp and eliminates loading effects. The second op amp configuration, shown in blue in Figure 7.8, is a differential configuration which is used to measure the current  $i_R$  through resistor  $R_R$  by measuring the voltage drop across the resistor. The differential amplifier outputs the difference between two voltages multiplied by a gain factor determined by the resistors. The values of  $R$  and  $10R$  for the resistances of the differential amplifier sets a gain factor of 10, which will be explained later. The general output of the amplifier is:

$$V_{out} = 10(V_2 - V_1) \quad (7.8)$$

From the circuit diagram we get

$$u_i = 10(u_o - u_x) = 10u_R = 10R_R i_x \quad (7.9)$$

Rearranging and substituting we can get an equation to determine the unknown impedance:

$$Z_x = \frac{u_x}{i_x} = 10R_R \frac{u_u}{u_i} \quad (7.10)$$

Signals  $u_u$  and  $u_i$  are sampled by the two SoCs and then a DFT is applied to them. The result of the transform are the complex values  $U_u$  and  $U_i$  which represent



the amplitude and phase of the measured sinusoid signal. The real and imaginary components of these values are stored separately in the AD5933 as 16-bit signed numbers. Thus we can modify Equation 7.10 to get the following equation for the magnitude of the unknown impedance:

$$|Z_x| = 10R_R \sqrt{\frac{(Re\{U_u\})^2 + (Im\{U_u\})^2}{(Re\{U_i\})^2 + (Im\{U_i\})^2}} \quad (7.11)$$

The impedance phase is:

$$\theta_x = \arctan \frac{Im\{U_u\}}{Re\{U_u\}} - \arctan \frac{Im\{U_i\}}{Re\{U_i\}} \quad (7.12)$$

### 7.3 Implementation

In order to implement the circuit described above, the hardware needed to be designed carefully and there were many considerations that were made when selecting components, especially for the analog circuitry.

To minimize the error when measuring a large impedance range, multiple range resistor values must be used. By choosing a value for  $R_R$  that is an order lower than the magnitude of the unknown impedance  $|Z_x|$  the noise on the unknown impedance is reduced. Amplifying the signal  $u_R$  by a gain factor of 10 ensures that the amplitude of signals  $u_u$  and  $u_i$  are a similar range. The resistors are switched in decades according to the following criteria, as suggested by Hoja *et al.*:

$$0.01|Z_x| < R_R \leq 0.1|Z_x| \quad (7.13)$$

The system is designed to be able to measure impedances from 100  $\Omega$  to 1 G $\Omega$  if the proper range resistors are used. Currently five 1% precision range resistors that span four decades from 10  $\Omega$  to 100 k $\Omega$  are used, allowing a measurement range from 100  $\Omega$  to 1 M $\Omega$ . Miniature reed relays are used to switch the resistances. The advantages that reed relays have over other types is that they have very fast switching speeds, require little power, and can be miniaturized. MEDER SIL05-1A72-71L relay switches were used and have a contact resistance < 100 m $\Omega$ , contact capacitance of 0.3 pF and maximum switching time of 0.7 ms. The

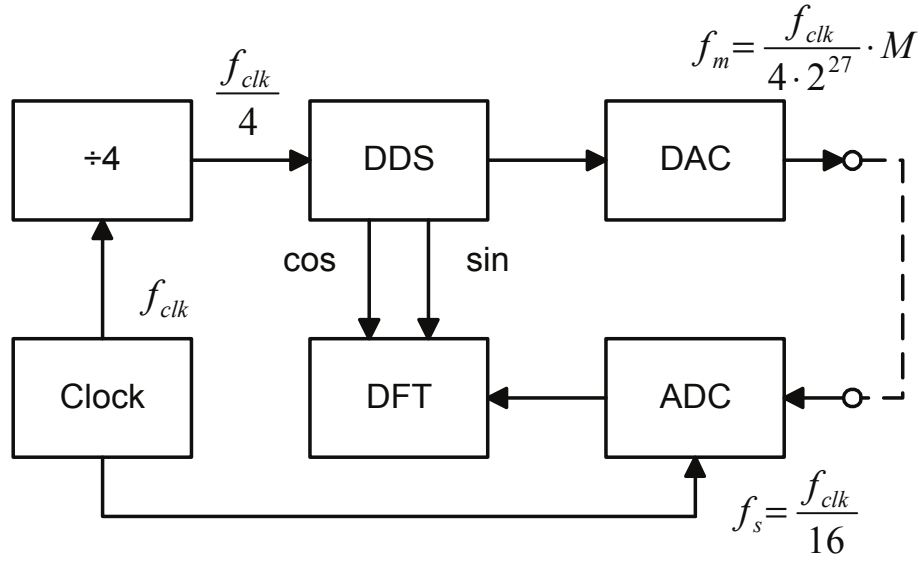


Figure 7.9: Block diagram of clock signals in the AD5933. Image reproduced from [98] with permission.

contact resistance is added in series with the range resistors, so it is very important to have a small contact resistance for the 10  $\Omega$  resistor. A 74AC138 1-of-8 decoder/demultiplexer is used to switch the relays.

### 7.3.1 Frequency Synthesis

The AD5933 uses the direct digital synthesis (DSS) method to generate the output sinusoidal signal, which is also used as input for the discrete Fourier transform (DFT) calculation. DDS works by generating the phase of a signal and then using a look-up table and digital-to-analog converter (DAC) to convert the phase into the desired signal. The phase of any periodic waveform such as a sinusoid is a sawtooth function, which is easy to implement by continuously incrementing a counter, known as the phase accumulator, by a constant value stored in the phase increment register (PIR). The phase accumulator in the AD5933 is 27 bits, and the frequency resolution is controlled by a 24-bit word. The output frequency  $f_m$  is determined as follows:

$$f_m = \frac{\text{PIR}}{2^{27}} \cdot \frac{f_{clk}}{4} \quad (7.14)$$

where  $f_{clk}$  is the system clock frequency and PIR is the value stored in the phase increment register. The maximum system clock frequency that can be used is 16.776

MHz. Figure 7.9 shows the clock signals in the AD5933. With this method a large range of arbitrary frequencies may be generated with the frequency resolution determined by the size of the phase accumulator. Higher frequencies requiring large phase increases have correspondingly larger steps in the staircase approximation of the output waveform, resulting in larger harmonics and a higher signal noise floor. Smaller phase increases are more desirable because they produce a better staircase approximation which is more easily smoothed by a low-pass filter.

### 7.3.2 Discrete Fourier Transform

On the receive side of the AD5933, a discrete Fourier transform (DFT) is processed by an on-board digital signal processor (DSP). The DFT algorithm takes 1024 samples and using the sinusoid generated by the DDS core produces a real and imaginary value for that frequency. The window sampled by the DFT is assumed to be periodic, so it is important that the sampled signal contains an integer number of periods  $L$ . If it does not, then there will be spectrum leakage, which means that some of the power of the signal will ‘leak’ to other frequencies during computation of the DFT. In order to reduce spectrum leakage and improve accuracy we require that the sampling period contains an integer number of periods of the measured signal:

$$\frac{N}{f_s} = \frac{L}{f_m} \quad (7.15)$$

where  $L$  is an integer number of periods,  $f_s = f_{clk}/16$  is the ADC sampling frequency,  $N = 1024$  is the number of samples, and  $f_m$  is the measuring signal frequency. Substituting and simplifying, we get the following relation:

$$f_m = \frac{L f_{clk}}{16384} \quad (7.16)$$

As described above, it is desirable that  $f_m$  and therefore  $L$  are as small as possible. Based on the requirements established, multiple system clock frequencies are necessary to cover a large frequency range. The solution to this proposed by Hoja *et al.* is to scale the system clock frequency supplied to the AD5933 [97,98]. Each decade of generated frequencies has a corresponding  $f_{clk}$  (Table 7.1). The measured frequencies in each decade are spaced evenly by  $\Delta f_m$ . The time required

Table 7.1: Probe signal measurement parameters. Reproduced from [97]

$f_{clk}$ [Hz]	$f_m$ [Hz]	$\Delta f_m$ [Hz]	L	$T_{meas}$ [s]
4.096 M	10-100 k	10 k	40-400	4 m
819.2 k	1-9 k	1 k	20-180	20 m
	100-900	100	2-18	
81.92 k	10-90	10	2-18	0.2
8.192 k	1-9	1	2-18	2
819.2	0.1-0.9	0.1	2-18	20

for the measurement  $T_{meas}$  depends on the sampling frequency (and thus system clock frequency) and the number of samples N. It is determined by the following equation:

$$T_{meas} = \frac{16384}{f_{clk}} = \frac{L}{f_m} \quad (7.17)$$

The master clock for both AD5933 systems was generated using the pulse width modulation (PWM) output on the microcontroller on the DLP-2232PB-G module. The 20 MHz crystal oscillator on the DLP-2232PB-G module was replaced with a 16.384 MHz crystal oscillator so that the frequencies in Table 7.1 could be generated. With this clock frequency 4.096 MHz is the maximum frequency that may be generated by the PWM output.

It is important that both AD5933 SoCs are synchronized when taking measurements, since any phase difference in the generated sinusoids will affect the measurements. Even though the output signal is only used from one AD5933, the DFT algorithm internally uses the generated sinusoid to calculate the resulting real and imaginary values. The Inter-Integrated Circuit (I<sup>2</sup>C) bus protocol is used to communicate with the AD5933 systems and requires two bidirectional lines: a serial data line (SDA) and a serial clock (SCL). Multiple devices with different addresses can share the two-wire interface without interference, however the address of the AD5933 is fixed and cannot be changed. The daughter-boards have one SCL line that both AD5933's use and two SDA lines, one for each AD5933. Both SDA lines are used to send the same command string when starting a measurement sequence so that both AD5933's are synchronized. The results are read by disabling one of the SDA lines and reading from one AD5933 at a time. On the mother-board the

SDA lines are multiplexed using two 74HC4051D 8-channel analog multiplexor/demultiplexors. The SDA line from the microcontroller is split into two lines, each going to its own multiplexor. The multiplexors are used to select the channel that the measurements are being done on. When sending commands to both AD5933s, both multiplexors are enabled. When communicating with one AD5933 on a channel, only one multiplexor is enabled while the other is disabled. This allows the two SoCs to be synchronized, while allowing each to be addressed individually.

## 7.4 Firmware

Firmware for the PIC16F877A microcontroller on the DLP-2232PB-G module was written in assembly and programmed over USB using the flash program utility supplied by DLP Design. The FT2232D Dual UART/FIFO IC on-board the DLP-2232PB-G module is used to convert communication from the USB to two serial/parallel channels, which are interfaced with the microcontroller. One channel is used solely for on-board flash programming of the PIC microcontroller, while the other channel is configured as a parallel asynchronous FIFO (first-in-first-out) interface and used for sending data in binary format to the computer. This channel may be accessed with any terminal program as a virtual COM port using the VCP driver, or may be incorporated into software using the DLL software interface with the D2XX driver. Currently the VCP is used with simple terminal software, but may be expanded in the future.

## 7.5 Testing Results

The performance of the impedance analyzer was tested by measuring the values of 10 resistors logarithmically spaced from  $100\ \Omega$  to  $3.3\ \text{M}\Omega$  and 9 capacitors logarithmically spaced from  $1\ \text{nF}$  to  $2.2\ \mu\text{F}$ , with frequencies from  $0.1\ \text{Hz}$  to  $10\ \text{kHz}$ . These values were compared to those measured with the Quadtech 1920 Precision LCR meter. The resistance and capacitance measured by the impedance analyzer are denoted by  $R_{meas}$  and  $C_{meas}$  respectively. The values measured by the Quadtech meter are assumed to be the nominal values and are denoted by  $R_{nom}$  and  $C_{nom}$ .

The meter has a measurement error of 2.4 % (see Chapter 5).

Figures 7.10 and 7.11 show plots of  $R_{meas}$  vs.  $R_{nom}$  at 100 Hz and 10 kHz respectively, and Figure 7.13 shows a plot of  $C_{meas}$  vs.  $R_{nom}$  at 100 Hz. The values in these plots span a wide range. A least squares regression technique for fitting a slope to the data will be dominated by the large data points. A fitting technique derived by Steele [40] based on fitting the logarithm was used to fit a linear slope to the data:

$$y = mx \quad (7.18)$$

To prevent large data values from dominating the fit, Equation 7.18 was converted to logarithmic space:

$$\log(y) = \log(m) + \log(x) \quad (7.19)$$

This equation was written in linear form by applying the transformation  $Y = \log(y)$ ,  $M = \log(m)$ , and  $X = \log(x)$  :

$$Y = M + X \quad (7.20)$$

The analytical expression for the slope parameter is:

$$M = \frac{\sum Y_i - \sum X_i}{N} \quad (7.21)$$

where  $i$  is the element index in the data set and  $N$  is the total number of elements in the data set. From this the slope  $m$  may be found:

$$m = 10^M \quad (7.22)$$

Error propagation was applied to Equation 7.21 to determine the error of the slope parameter,  $M$ :

$$\delta_M = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N(N-2)} \sum_i^N (Y_i - M - X_i)^2} \quad (7.23)$$

The error of the slope  $m$  is found by:

$$\delta_m = \ln(10)m\delta_M \quad (7.24)$$

The relative slope error,  $\delta_m/m$ , can be used to estimate the accuracy. It represents the range of nominal values,  $x$ , that correspond to the measured value,  $y$ .

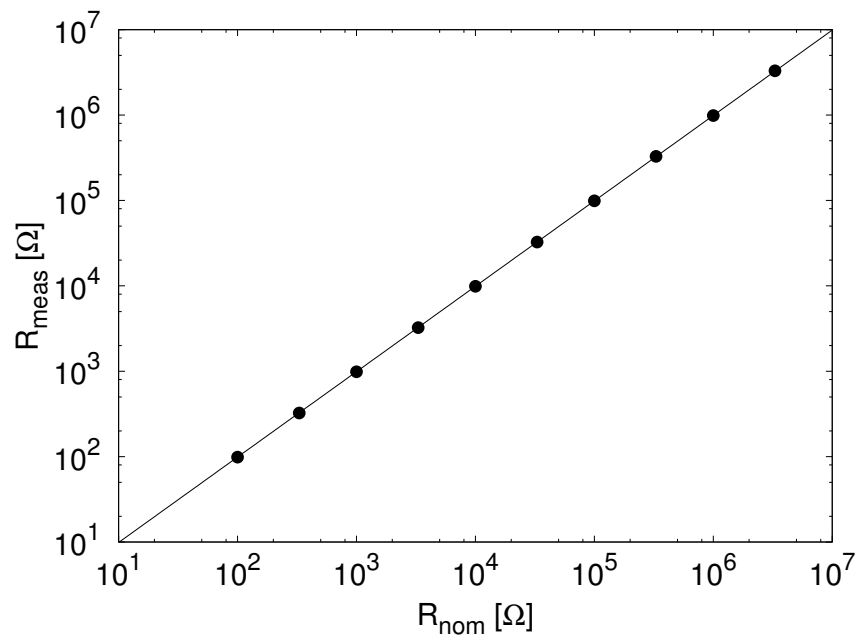


Figure 7.10: Nominal versus measured resistance at 100 Hz.

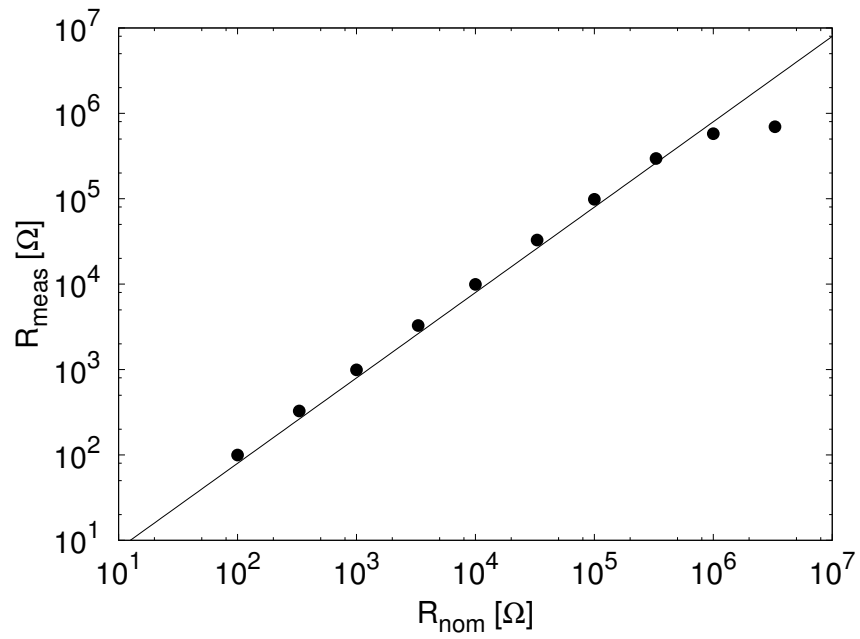


Figure 7.11: Nominal versus measured resistance at 10 kHz.

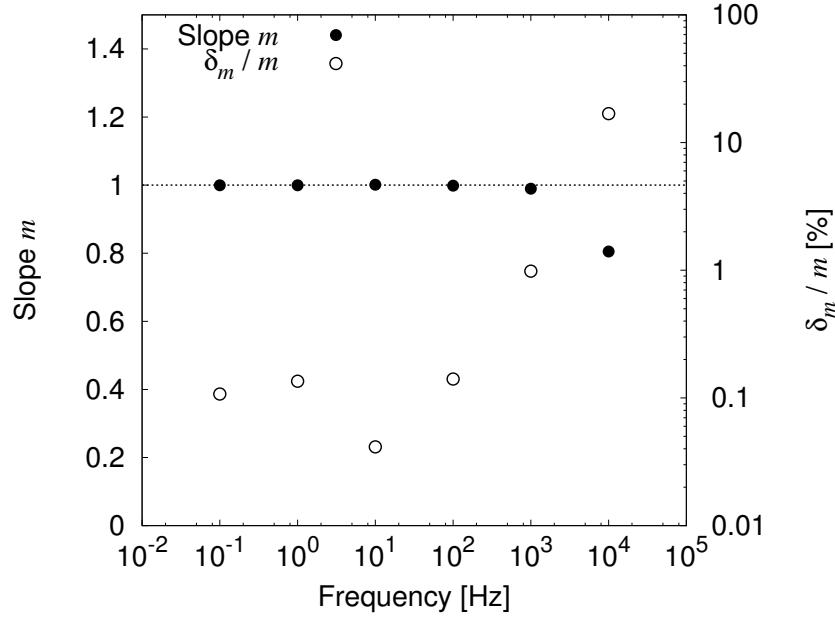


Figure 7.12: The fit slope,  $m$ , and relative slope error,  $\delta_m/m$ , of resistances measured across a range of frequencies. The dotted line corresponds to a slope of 1.

Figure 7.12 compares the fit slopes and relative slope errors across a range of frequencies for resistive measurements. For measurements below 10 kHz, the slope  $m$  ranged from 0.9896 to 1.0013 and the relative slope error,  $\delta_m/m$  which is considered to be the precision, ranged from 0.04 % to 0.98 %. At 10 kHz  $m = 0.8050$  and  $\delta_m/m = 16.8$  %. The reason for the inaccurate slope at 10 kHz is the deviation of the measurements from the nominal value at higher resistance (Figure 7.11). At low resistance, the slope of the values is quite accurate. The inaccuracies present at 10 kHz could be because there is a low number of steps in the staircase approximation when generating the sinusoid waveform (see Section 7.3.1).

Figure 7.14 compares the fit slopes and relative slope errors across a range of frequencies for capacitive measurements. Note that capacitive measurements at frequencies that resulted in measured impedances outside the designed range of 100  $\Omega$  to 1 M $\Omega$  were omitted. For example, a 1 nF capacitor has an impedance of 1.6 G $\Omega$  at 0.1 Hz, much higher than the acceptable measurement range. The fit slopes,  $m$ , ranged from 0.9601 to 1.0256 and the relative slope error,  $\delta_m/m$  which is considered to be the precision, ranged from 0.86 % to 4.86 %. The higher error at low frequencies could be because the impedance of capacitors becomes very



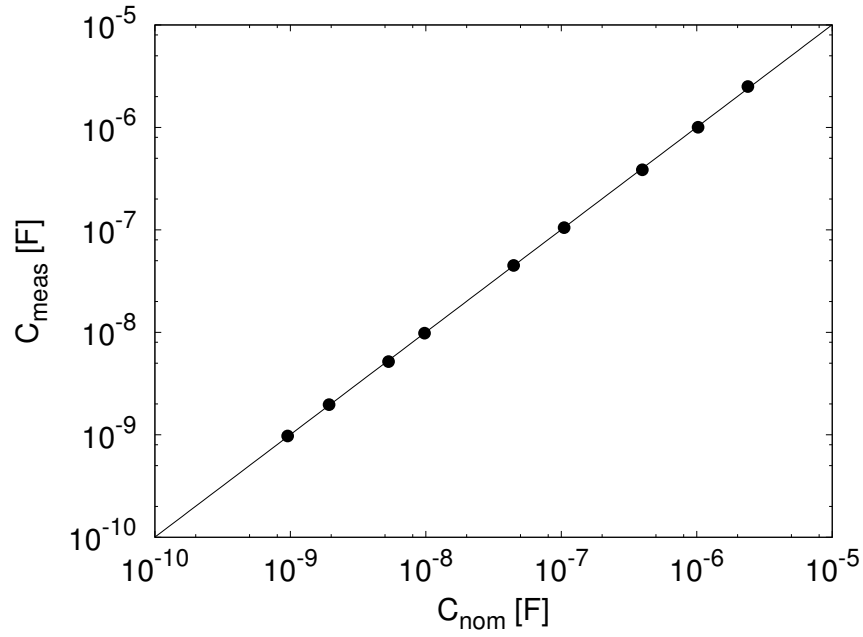


Figure 7.13: Nominal versus measured capacitance at 100 Hz.

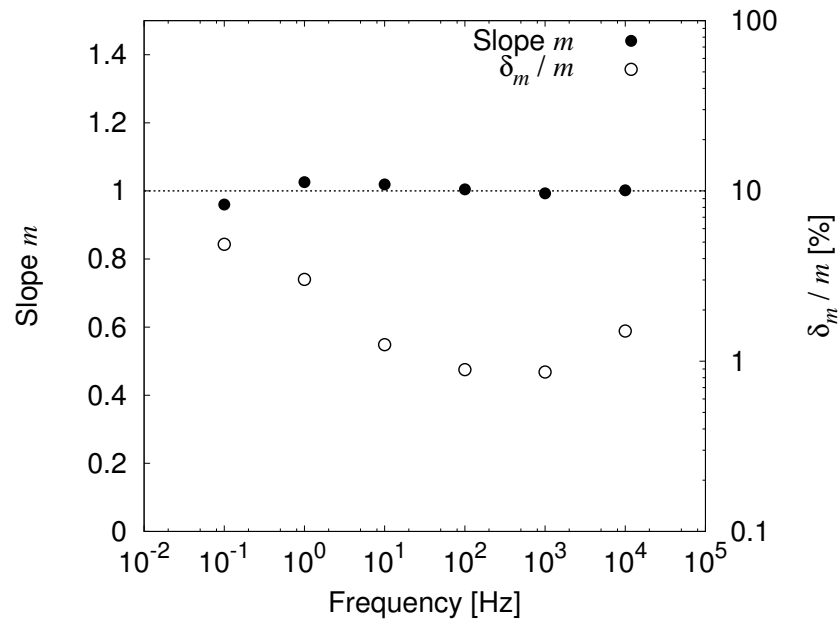


Figure 7.14: The fit slope,  $m$ , and relative slope error,  $\delta_m/m$ , of capacitances measured across a range of frequencies. The dotted line corresponds to a slope of 1.

large at small frequencies, and several measurements had to be omitted at the lower frequencies.

## **7.6 Conclusion**

The custom-built impedance analyzer described in this chapter used two AD5933 SoC's in a circuit configuration that measures the current and voltage across the DUT to calculate the impedance. The impedance analyzer is capable of generating test frequencies from 0.1 Hz to 100 kHz and measuring impedances from 100  $\Omega$  to 1 M $\Omega$ , expandable to 1 G $\Omega$ . Initial testing showed that the accuracy of the impedance analyzer is usually on the order of 0.1 - 1 %, depending on the frequency and type of measurement. The 8 separate channels of the device allow for parallel testing of several sensors and makes possible new future experiments that were not possible with the single-channel Quadtech LCR meter.

# Chapter 8

## Conclusions and Future Work

### 8.1 Summary of Results

The research presented in this thesis addresses the current lack of humidity sensors with sub-second response times and high sensitivities required for some applications. The motivation was to investigate the performance enhancement and stabilization of high-speed, high-sensitivity GLAD RH sensors using UV treatments. The goal was to lay the groundwork for future development of a sensing platform that incorporates a GLAD RH sensor and stabilizing UV LEDs in a single deployable device.

Capacitive relative humidity sensors were fabricated by depositing porous  $\text{TiO}_2$  GLAD films on planar IDEs. The films were vertical posts deposited at an angle  $\alpha = 80^\circ$  and grown  $1.5 \mu\text{m}$  thick. Sensor response times less than 250 ms are attainable, faster than any commercially available sensor. These sensors exhibit a capacitive response that spans over 3 orders of magnitude from  $1 \text{ nF cm}^{-2}$  to over  $1 \mu\text{F cm}^{-2}$ . The sensitivity of these sensors is orders of magnitude larger than high-speed commercial sensors. The largest issue with GLAD RH sensors is ageing, which may be reversed with a UV treatment.

Initial UV treatment characterization used a mercury vapour lamp and optical filters with differing UV wavelengths to treat a set of sensors. A figure of merit (FOM) was defined to quantify the change in sensor response curves. In general, short UV wavelengths were observed to have larger FOMs. However there were significant differences in the power at each wavelength. At high power the effect

saturates independent of wavelength. At lower powers there was a general trend of larger FOM with shorter wavelength.

The ageing study showed that on average UV treated sensors aged at a rate of -0.43 FOM/day. This was slower than untreated sensors and much slower than the rate of sensor regeneration, which was up to 30.5 FOM/day. Frequent humidity cycling had the effect of ageing the sensors more quickly.

Testing of treatment with UV LEDs showed that all LEDs with wavelengths below 387 nm, the bandgap of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , significantly enhanced the sensor performance. Of the UV LEDs tested, 370 nm was identified as the optimum wavelength to use for sensor regeneration and stabilization because it is significantly less expensive than the other LEDs, has the greatest optical output power, and enhanced sensors the quickest. This is important because it establishes that the 370 nm LED should be used for future experiments and sensor designs that incorporate a UV LED for stabilization.

Repeatability tests of treatment with 370 nm for 48 hours showed a large decrease in the variability of the FOM after the sensors were treated. The shape of the sensor response curve after treatment was duplicated with several treatments.

Sensor lifetime and stability were greatly improved using long-term UV LED illumination, which was the main goal of the research. The performance of GLAD sensors stabilized with UV LEDs was compared with the performance of commercially available sensors. The response time of less than 250 ms for GLAD sensors is much faster than that of commercial sensors, which are typically on the order of several seconds to 60 seconds. The sensitivity of 10 nF/%RH over 15 %RH for GLAD sensors is over four orders of magnitude larger than any commercial sensors compared. Most commercial sensors have a hysteresis of up to  $\pm 2\%$  RH, which is comparable to the  $\pm 2.5\%$  RH hysteresis of GLAD sensors. When stabilized with UV LEDs, the stability of GLAD sensors over 4 months was  $\pm 3.5\%$  RH below approximately 50% RH. Above 50% RH the stability was worse with a drift of  $\pm 12\%$  RH or greater.

A custom 8-channel impedance analyzer was designed and built. It is capable of measuring impedance magnitude and phase with test frequencies ranging from

0.1 Hz to 100 kHz. It can measure impedances from  $100\ \Omega$  up to  $1\ \text{M}\Omega$ , expandable up to  $1\ \text{G}\Omega$  with the addition of larger range resistors. The analyzer will allow for multiple sensors to be tested in parallel under the same humidity cycling conditions and is necessary for some of the future work suggested below.

## **8.2 Proposed Future Work**

### **8.2.1 Morphology vs Response Characteristics**

Currently a major issue with GLAD relative humidity sensors is the long-term stability at higher humidities. This is because the response is relatively flat at higher humidities, so a smaller drift in capacitance translates into a large change in the humidity reading. Despite the high sensitivity of  $10\ \text{nF}/\%\text{RH}$  compared to commercial sensors, it is small compared to the absolute capacitance at higher humidities, which is over  $1\ \mu\text{F}$ . It may be possible to obtain sensor response curves that have more desirable stability, sensitivity, or accuracy in certain ranges by modifying the morphology of the film. An extensive study investigating the relationship between morphology and the response characteristics may determine the morphology that obtains the best response characteristics.

### **8.2.2 UV Treatment Standardization**

The UV treatment of sensors serves two purposes: enhancement of the response curve, and stabilization of the response. The initial enhancement in sensor response occurs over a number of days, depending on the time constant. After the sensor response is enhanced, the UV treatment serves to stabilize the sensor and counter ageing. It is possible that a mercury vapour lamp could be used as part of a standard sensor fabrication step to enhance the sensor response to a desired curve after which point UV LEDs integrated with the sensor stabilize it. Much less power is required to stabilize the response rather than enhance it, so lower current through the UV LEDs may be used, greatly extending the lifetime of the LEDs, and thus the lifetime of the sensors. Research needs to be done on finding a suitable treatment duration and power with the mercury vapour lamp to enhance sensor responses to

get desired response characteristics. This may be coupled with the morphology research described above.

### **8.2.3 Time-Resolved Testing**

Testing several sensors in parallel under different UV powers will be useful for examining the the time-resolved effects of treatment and ageing on the sensors. The 8-channel impedance analyzer that was constructed will allow for impedance data to be collected for multiple sensors while testing them under the same conditions. Time-resolved testing will show how the sensor response changes over a small time-scale under different conditions and will be useful for optimizing the required UV power for regeneration and stabilization.

### **8.2.4 UV LED Ageing**

Extending the operational lifetime of the UV LEDs will allow for the sensors to be stabilized for longer. The issue of LED ageing could be alleviated by using lower currents, or operating the LEDs in pulsed mode at higher currents. Using an array of LEDs would allow for lower currents to be used in each while still providing the same total output power. A photodiode could be used to monitor the optical power and maintain the same level by regulating the LED current.

### **8.2.5 Modelling**

Modelling of the sensors could provide valuable insight into the physics behind the sensing mechanism. Existing equivalent circuit models for titania RH sensors may be applied to or modified for GLAD RH sensors and can be combined with impedance spectroscopy techniques. This type of work could lead to better sensor designs.

### **8.2.6 Sensing of Other Analytes**

Research on the sensitivity and selectivity of GLAD titania sensors to analytes other than water vapour is extremely important work that needs to be done. There are many other analytes for which high sensitivity and high speed sensors are critical,

such as  $\text{H}_2$ ,  $\text{CO}$ , and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  [99]. This work would expand the potential applications of the research so far. It is also important to establish the selectivity of GLAD RH sensors since in the field there are often analytes present other than water vapour which could potentially affect the sensor performance.

### **8.2.7 Frequency Selectivity**

Better performance characteristics such as sensitivity or stability in certain humidity ranges could potentially be achieved by measuring at different frequencies. It is also possible that different analytes will have different frequency responses, so improved selectivity between analytes could be achieved by probing at different frequencies. This will require detailed analysis of the frequency response of different analytes.

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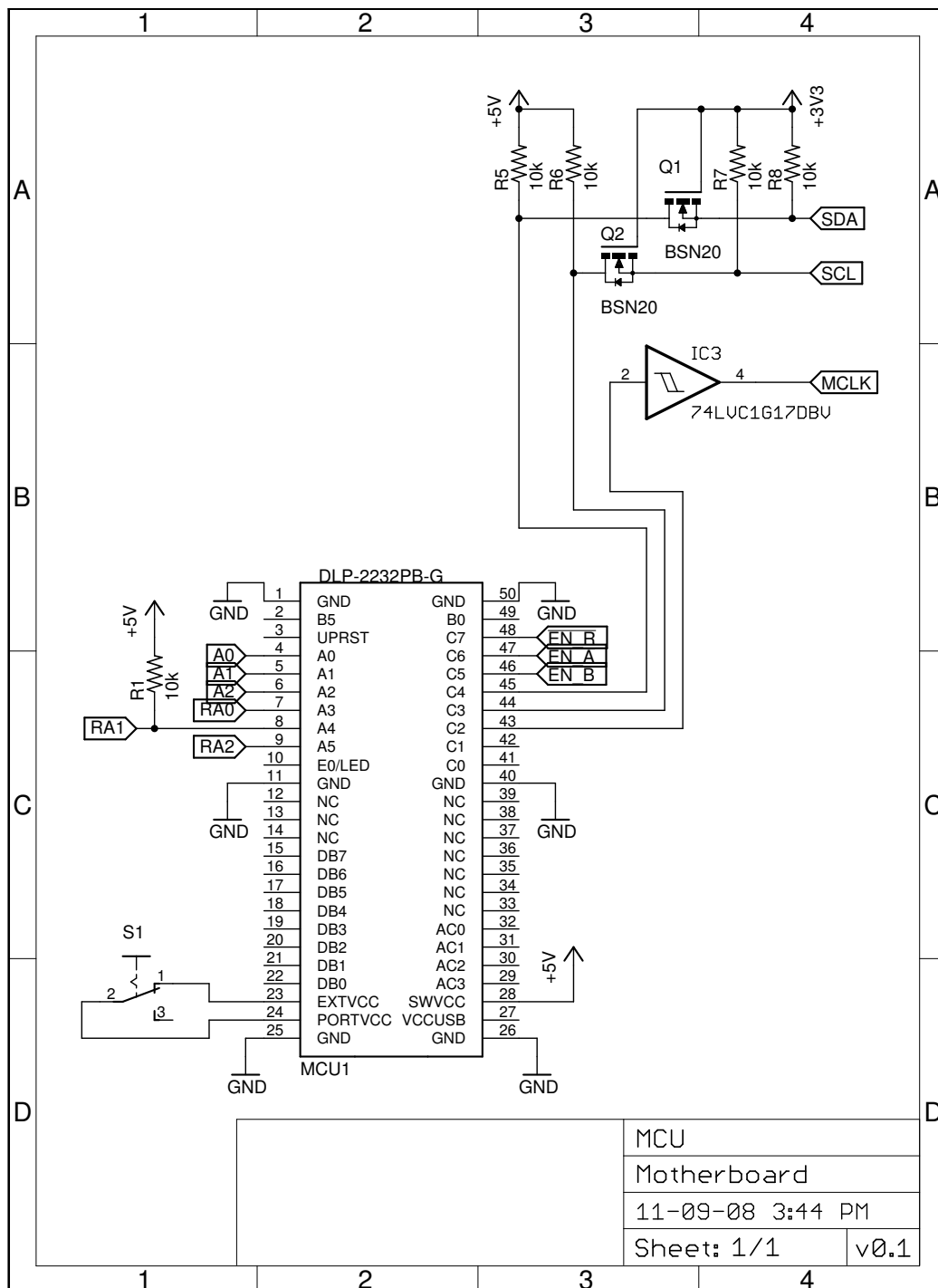
# **Appendix A**

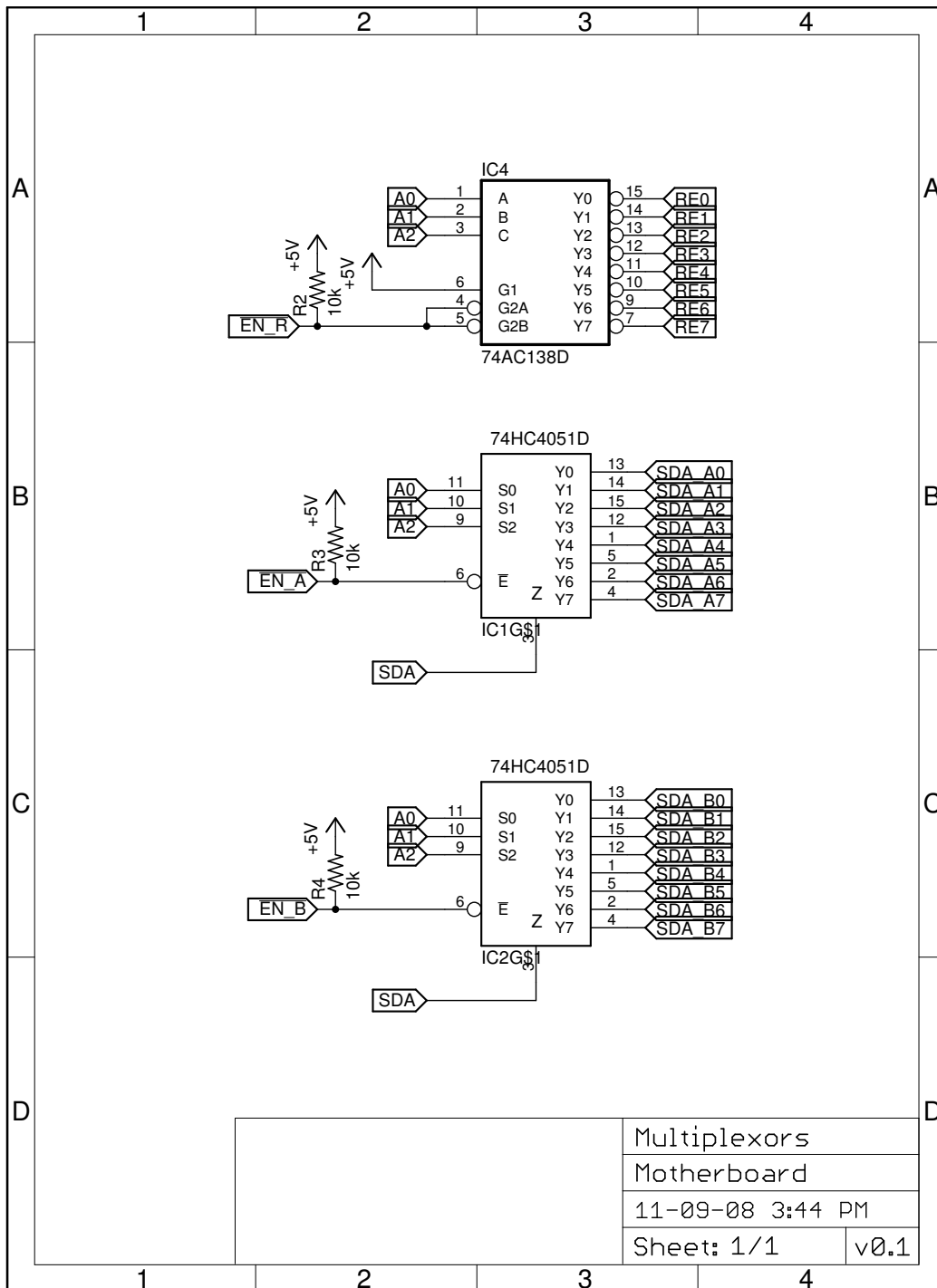
## **Impedance Analyzer Schematics**

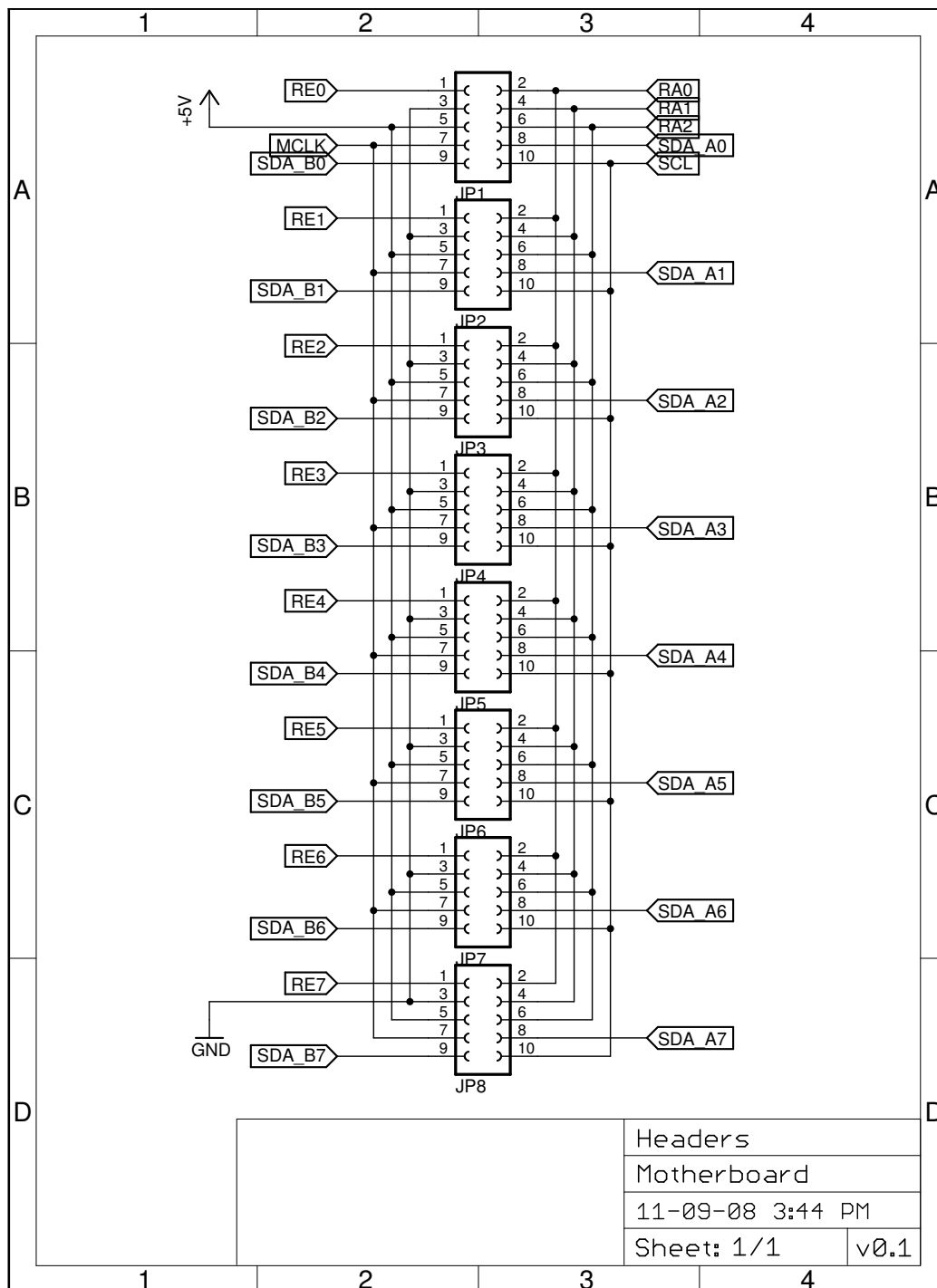
In this appendix schematic diagrams for the impedance analyzer electronics described in Chapter 7 are presented. Four schematics for the motherboard show the power connections, connections to the DLP-2232PB-G module containing the PIC microcontroller, the signal multiplexors, and the eight port headers on the board. Two schematics are shown for the daughterboards: one for the power connections, and one for the analog measurement electronics.

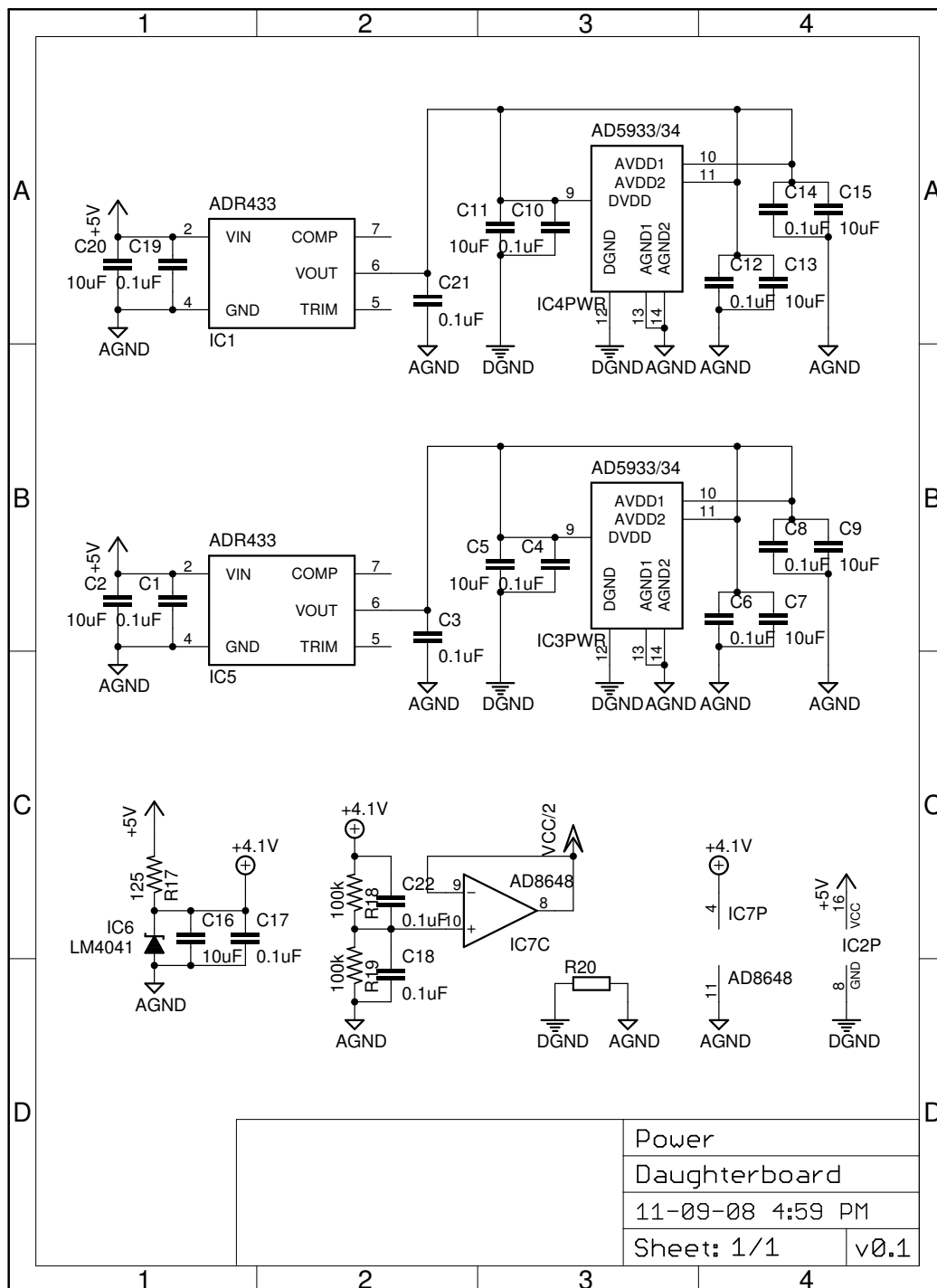


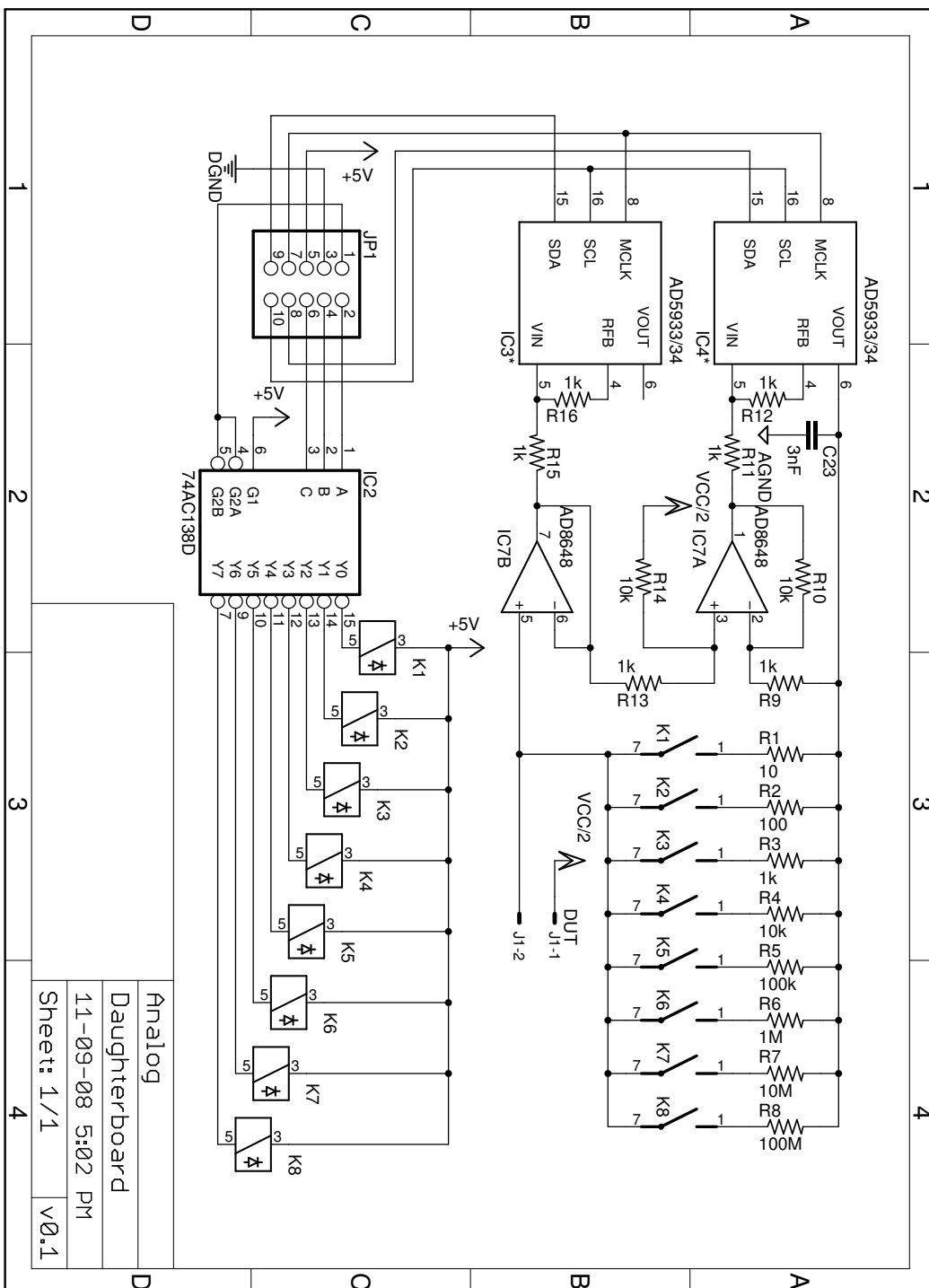












# Appendix B

## Impedance Analyzer Firmware Assembly Code

```
;;; *****  
;;; File Name:  ad5933.h  
;;; Purpose:    Register definitions for the AD5933 chip  
;;; Revision:   0.0  
;;; Date:       17 January 2011  
;;; Author:     D. Smetaniuk  
;;; *****  
;;; Revision History:  
;;; 0.0 – 17 January 2011  
;;; – Creation  
;;; *****
```

```
ADDR5933      EQU      0x0D
```

```
;; Register map
```

CTRLH	EQU	0x80
CTRL	EQU	0x81
SFREQ2	EQU	0x82
SFREQ1	EQU	0x83
SFREQ0	EQU	0x84
FINC2	EQU	0x85
FINC1	EQU	0x86
FINC0	EQU	0x87
NINCH	EQU	0x88
NINCL	EQU	0x89
NSETLH	EQU	0x8A
NSETLL	EQU	0x8B
STAT	EQU	0x8F
TEMPH	EQU	0x92
TEMPL	EQU	0x93
REALH	EQU	0x94
REALL	EQU	0x95
IMAGH	EQU	0x96
IMAGL	EQU	0x97

*;; Command Codes*

BWRITE	<b>EQU</b>	0xA0
BREAD	<b>EQU</b>	0xA1
ADRPTR	<b>EQU</b>	0xB0

```

;;; *****
;;; File Name:  branches.h
;;; Purpose:   Macros for conditional branching based on
;;;            unsigned values.
;;; Revision:  0.0
;;; Date:     27 September 2003
;;; Author:   L. Wyard-Scott
;;; Copyright: (c) 2003
;;; Device:   PIC16F873,  PIC16F874,  PIC16F876,  PIC16F877.
;;;            PIC16F873A, PIC16F874A, PIC16F876A, PIC16F877A.
;;; *****
;;; Revision History:
;;;     0.0 - 27 September 2003
;;;           - Creation
;;; *****
;;; Ideas for future work:
;;; - make signed equivalents of these routines (a lot more work).
;;; *****

```

```

;;;
;;; -----
;;; Macros.
;;; -----
;;; -----
;;; The following 2 macros can be used to to determine if W is
;;; equal or not equal to a constant.  These values may be
;;; considered signed or unsigned.
;;; -----
;;; *****
;;; Macro Name:      brweqk
;;; Description:     Branch if W is equal to a specified byte
;;;                  constant.  Page selection bits must be
;;;                  established appropriately in order to
;;;                  successfully branch to the destination.
;;; Requires:        W contains one of the values being
;;;                  compared to.
;;;                  Two additional parameters are:
;;;                  value - the other value for the
;;;                  comparison.
;;;                  destination - the destination
;;;                  address.
;;; Returns:         Nothing.  Program execution goes to
;;;                  "destination" if W == the unsigned value.
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed.
;;; *****
brweqk: MACRO    value, destination
        sublw    value
        btfsc    STATUS,Z
        goto     destination
ENDM

;;; *****
;;; Macro Name:      brweqk

```



```

;;; Description:      Branch if W is not equal to a specified
;;;                   byte constant. Page selection bits must
;;;                   be established appropriately in order to
;;;                   successfully branch to the destination.
;;; Requires:        W contains one of the values being
;;;                   compared to.
;;;                   Two additional parameters are:
;;;                   value — the other value for the
;;;                   comparison.
;;;                   destination — the destination
;;;                   address.
;;; Returns:          Nothing. Program execution goes to
;;;                   "destination" if W != the unsigned value.
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed.
;;; *****
brwneq: MACRO    value , destination
        sublw     value
        btfss     STATUS,Z
        goto      destination
ENDM

;;;


---


;;; The following 4 macros are used for comparing unsigned literal
;;; values with the contents of the W register.


---


;;; *****
;;; Macro Name:      brwlk
;;; Description:    Branch if W is lower than a specified byte
;;;                   constant. Page selection bits must be
;;;                   established appropriately in order to
;;;                   successfully branch to the destination.
;;; Requires:        W contains one of the values being
;;;                   compared to.
;;;                   Two additional parameters are:
;;;                   value — the other value for the
;;;                   comparison. This value must be
;;;                   non-zero.
;;;                   destination — the destination
;;;                   address.
;;; Returns:          Nothing. Program execution goes to
;;;                   "destination" if W < the unsigned value.
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed.
;;; *****
brwlk: MACRO    value , destination
        addlw     (0x100-value)
        btfss     STATUS,C
        goto      destination
ENDM

;;; *****
;;; Macro Name:      brwlsk
;;; Description:    Branch if W is lower than or the same as
;;;                   the specified byte constant. Page
;;;                   selection bits must be established

```

```

;;; appropriately in order to successfully
;;; branch to the destination.
;;; Requires: W contains one of the values being
;;; compared to.
;;; Two additional parameters are:
;;; value — the other value for the
;;; comparison.
;;; destination — the destination
;;; address.
;;; Returns: Nothing. Program execution goes to
;;; "destination" if W <= the unsigned value.
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed.
;;; *****
brwlsk: MACRO value, destination
        addlw (0xFF-value)
        btfss STATUS,C
        goto destination
        ENDM

;;; *****
;;; Macro Name: brwhik
;;; Description: Branch if W is higher than a specified
;;; byte constant. Page selection bits must
;;; be established appropriately in order to
;;; successfully branch to the destination.
;;; Requires: W contains one of the values being
;;; compared to.
;;; Two additional parameters are:
;;; value — the other value for the
;;; comparison.
;;; destination — the destination
;;; address.
;;; Returns: Nothing. Program execution goes to
;;; "destination" if W > value.
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed.
;;; *****
brwhik: MACRO value, destination
        addlw (0xFF-value)
        btfsc STATUS,C
        goto destination
        ENDM

;;; *****
;;; Macro Name: brwhsk
;;; Description: Branch if W is higher than or the same as
;;; the specified byte constant. Page
;;; selection bits must be established
;;; appropriately in order to successfully
;;; branch to the destination.
;;; Requires: W contains one of the values being
;;; compared to.
;;; Two additional parameters are:
;;; value — the other value for the
;;; comparison. This value must be

```



```

;;;
;;;
;;; Requires:      bits must be established in order to
;;;               access the file register.
;;;               W contains one of the values being
;;;               compared to.
;;;               Two additional parameters are:
;;;               fileregister – the location of the
;;;               other value.
;;;               destination – the destination
;;;               address.
;;; Returns:      Nothing. Program execution goes to
;;;               "destination" if W != the file register
;;;               contents.
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed.
;;; *****
brwneqf: MACRO   fileregister , destination
          subwf   fileregister ,W
          btfss   STATUS,Z
          goto    destination
          ENDM

;;;


---


;;; The following 4 macros are used for comparing unsigned values
;;; located in specified file registers with the contents of the
;;; W register.


---


;;; *****
;;; Macro Name:      brwlof
;;; Description:     Branch if W is lower than the contents of
;;;                 the specified file register. Page
;;;                 selection bits must be established
;;;                 appropriately in order to successfully
;;;                 branch to the destination. Bank selection
;;;                 bits must be established in order to
;;;                 access the file register.
;;; Requires:       W contains one of the values being
;;;                 compared to.
;;;                 Two additional parameters are:
;;;                 fileregister – the location of the
;;;                 other value.
;;;                 destination – the destination
;;;                 address.
;;; Returns:       Nothing. Program execution goes to
;;;                 "destination" if W < the file register
;;;                 contents.
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed.
;;; *****
brwlof: MACRO   fileregister , destination
          subwf   fileregister ,W ; F-W -> W
          ;; Branches iff Z=0, C=1
          btfsc   STATUS,Z
          goto    $ + 3
          btfsc   STATUS,C
          goto    destination
          ENDM

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Macro Name:      brwlsf
;;; Description:     Branch if W is lower than or the same as
;;;                  the contents of the specified file
;;;                  register. Page selection bits must be
;;;                  established appropriately in order to
;;;                  successfully branch to the destination.
;;;                  Bank selection bits must be established
;;;                  in order to access the file register.
;;; Requires:        W contains one of the values being
;;;                  compared to.
;;;                  Two additional parameters are:
;;;                      fileregister – the location of the
;;;                      other value.
;;;                      destination – the destination
;;;                      address.
;;; Returns:         Nothing. Program execution goes to
;;;                  "destination" if W <= the file register
;;;                  contents.
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed.
;;; *****
brwlsf: MACRO    fileregister , destination
        subwf    fileregister ,W
        ;; Branches iff Z=1, C=1, or Z=0, C=1 (resulting in C=1).
        btfsc    STATUS,C
        goto     destination
        ENDM

;;; *****
;;; Macro Name:      brwhif
;;; Description:     Branch if W is higher than the contents of
;;;                  the specified file register. Page
;;;                  selection bits must be established
;;;                  appropriately in order to successfully
;;;                  branch to the destination. Bank selection
;;;                  bits must be established in order to
;;;                  access the file register.
;;; Requires:        W contains one of the values being
;;;                  compared to.
;;;                  Two additional parameters are:
;;;                      fileregister – the location of the
;;;                      other value.
;;;                      destination – the destination
;;;                      address.
;;; Returns:         Nothing. Program execution goes to
;;;                  "destination" if W > the file register
;;;                  contents.
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed.
;;; *****
brwhif: MACRO    fileregister , destination
        subwf    fileregister ,W
        ;; Branches iff Z=0, C=0
        btfsc    STATUS,Z

```

```

        goto    $ + 3
        btfss   STATUS,C
        goto    destination
    ENDM

;;; *****
;;; Macro Name:      brwlsf
;;; Description:     Branch if W is lower than or the same as
;;;                  the contents of the specified file
;;;                  register. Page selection bits must be
;;;                  established appropriately in order to
;;;                  successfully branch to the destination.
;;;                  Bank selection bits must be established
;;;                  in order to access the file register.
;;; Requires:        W contains one of the values being
;;;                  compared to.
;;;                  Two additional parameters are:
;;;                      fileregister – the location of the
;;;                      other value.
;;;                      destination – the destination
;;;                      address.
;;; Returns:         Nothing. Program execution goes to
;;;                  "destination" if W <= the file register
;;;                  contents.
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed.
;;; *****
brwlsf: MACRO    fileregister , destination
        subwf    fileregister ,W
        ;; Branches iff Z=1, C=1, or Z=0, C=0 (resulting in Z=C).
        btfss    STATUS,Z
        goto     $ + 4
        btfsc    STATUS,C
        goto     destination
        goto     $ + 3
        btfss    STATUS,C
        goto     destination
    ENDM

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Filename:    dbus-lib.h
;;; Purpose:     FIFO databus library routine headers and other
;;;               library equates.
;;; Revision:   0.5
;;; Date:       7 January 2011
;;; Author:    L. Wyard-Scott, D. Smetaniuk
;;; Copyright: Public Domain
;;; *****
;;; Revision History:
;;;     0.5      7 January 2011 — DPS
;;;               — Adapted from UART to databus FIFO. Changed
;;;               "UART" names to "DBUS". Modified "DBUS_RxByte"
;;;               and "DBUS_TxByte" to work with databus FIFO
;;;     0.4      No update.
;;;     0.3      No update.
;;;     0.2      24 February 2005 — LWS
;;;               — Updated to specify baudrates for various
;;;               crystals. Now an "FXTAL" define is required on
;;;               the command line.
;;;     0.1      No update.
;;;     0.0      20 October 2002 — LWS
;;;               Creation.
;;; *****
;;; *****

```

```

;;; -----
;;; Macros. (File-specific)
;;; -----

;;; -----
;;; Externally defined variables.
;;; -----
extern PTRHIGH      ; Pointer passing for
                    ; UART_TxStringKx
extern PTRLOW       ; string constant transmission.

;;; -----
;;; Externally defined subroutines.
;;; -----
extern DBUS_Init     ; Initialize the DBUS FIFO
extern DBUS_RxByte   ; Receive a byte through the DBUS.
extern DBUS_KbHit    ; Determine if byte received.
extern DBUS_TxByte   ; Transmit byte through the DBUS.
extern DBUS_TxStringK ; Transmit a NULL-terminated
                    ; string constant.
extern DBUS_TxStringKN ; Transmit N bytes of a string
                    ; (or data). Will transmit a NULL,
                    ; if encountered.
extern DBUS_TxString ; Transmit a NULL-terminated
                    ; string in RAM.
extern DBUS_TxStringN ; Transmit N characters of a
                    ; string out through the DBUS.

```

```
extern DBUS_RxString ; Will transmit NULLS, if  
; encountered.  
; Receive a NULL-terminate a  
; string.
```



```

;;; *****
;;; Filename:    del_lib.h
;;; Purpose:     Delay library routine headers and other equates.
;;; Revision:  0.1
;;; Date:      16 March 2004
;;; Author:    L. Wyard-Scott
;;; Copyright: Public Domain
;;; *****
;;; Revision History:
;;;     0.1      16 March 2004 — LWS
;;;              No changes to header file — renumbered to be
;;;              consistent with del_lib.c
;;;     0.0      20 October 2002 — LWS
;;;              Creation.
;;; *****

;;; -----
;;; Externally defined subroutines.
;;; -----
extern DELAY_Wx1ms    ; Delay a multiple of 1ms.
extern DELAY_Wx10ms   ; Delay a multiple of 10ms.

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Filename:      i2c-lib.h
;;; Purpose:        Header file for I2C library routines.
;;; Revision:     0.0
;;; Date:         11 January 2011.
;;; Author:       D. Smetaniuk
;;; Copyright:    Public domain.
;;; *****
;;; Revision History:
;;;     0.0 — 11 January 2011
;;;         Creation.
;;; *****

;;; -----
;;; Externally defined variables.
;;; -----
extern I2C_ADDR
extern I2C_REG
extern I2C_DAT

extern I2C_PTRHIGH    ; Pointer passing for
                      ; UART_TxStringKx
extern I2C_PTRLOW     ; string constant transmission.

;;; -----
;;; Externally defined subroutines.
;;; -----
extern I2C_Init
extern I2C_Write
extern I2C_BlockWrite
extern I2C_Read
extern I2C_BlockRead

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Filename:    math_lib.h
;;; Purpose:     Math library routine headers and other library
;;;              variable definitions.
;;; Revision:   0.0
;;; Date:       19 January 2011
;;; Author:    D. Smetaniuk
;;; Copyright: Public Domain
;;; *****
;;; Revision History:
;;;             0.0      19 January 2011 – DPS
;;;             Creation.
;;; *****
;;; *****

```

```

;;; -----
;;; Macros.   ( File-specific )
;;; -----

```

```

;;; -----
;;; Externally defined variables.
;;; -----
      extern  ACCa, ACCa1, ACCa2, ACCa3, ACCa4
      extern  ACCb, ACCb1, ACCb2, ACCb3, ACCb4
      extern  ACCc, ACCc1, ACCc2, ACCc3, ACCc4

```

```

;;; -----
;;; Externally defined subroutines.
;;; -----
      extern  ABS16
      extern  ADD32U
      extern  MUL16U
      extern  DIV32U

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Library Name:          dbus_lib.asm
;;; Purpose:                Routines for using PORTD for parallel
;;;                        communication on the DLP-2232PB-G module
;;; Revision:            0.0
;;; Date:                12 February 2011
;;; Author:             L. Wyard-Scott, D. Smetnaiuk
;;; Copyright:          Public Domain
;;; Device:             PIC16F873, PIC16F874, PIC16F873A,
;;;                        PIC16F874A, PIC16F876, PIC16F877,
;;;                        PIC16F876A, PIC16F877A.
;;; *****
;;; Special Directions:
;;;   - To use these routines, include "dbus_lib.h" in the source
;;;     code calling the routines.
;;;
;;; *****
;;; Revision History:
;;;   0.0 - 12 February 2011 - DPS
;;;       - Creation. Adapted from code by L. Wyard-Scott
;;; *****
;;;
;;; *****
;;; NOTE: An error will be generated by the assembler if any
;;;       labels defined as global in this file are the same as
;;;       those in the main file (or other libraries).

```

```

list           ; Turn on list output. Note that device
               ; type needs to be specified to the
               ; assembler (on the command line, or
               ; through the MPLAB IDE).

```

```

;; Include register, bit, and other info specific to
;; the specified device.

```

```

ifdef    __16F873
#include <p16f873.inc>
messg "Assembling_dbus_lib.asm_for_PIC16F873."
endif
ifdef    __16F874
#include <p16f874.inc>
messg "Assembling_dbus_lib.asm_for_PIC16F874."
endif
ifdef    __16F876
#include <p16f876.inc>
messg "Assembling_dbus_lib.asm_for_PIC16F876."
endif
ifdef    __16F877
#include <p16f877.inc>
messg "Assembling_dbus_lib.asm_for_PIC16F877."
endif
ifdef    __16F873A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f873a.inc>
messg "Assembling_dbus_lib.asm_for_PIC16F873A."

```

```

endif
ifdef    __16F874A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f874a.inc>
messg "Assembling_dbus_lib.asm_for_PIC16F874A."
endif
ifdef    __16F876A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f876a.inc>
messg "Assembling_dbus_lib.asm_for_PIC16F876A."
endif
ifdef    __16F877A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f877a.inc>
messg "Assembling_dbus_lib.asm_for_PIC16F877A."
endif

;;; -----
;;; Assembler Equates Section. Define assembly-time constants here
;;; using the EQU assembler directive.
;;; -----

;; PORT B
PIN_RD      EQU 1
PIN_WR      EQU 2
PIN_RXF     EQU 4
;; PORT E
PIN_TXE     EQU 2

#define DBUS      PORTD

#define bitRD      PORTB, PIN_RD
#define bitWR      PORTB, PIN_WR
#define bitRXF     PORTB, PIN_RXF
#define bitTXE     PORTE, PIN_TXE

;;; -----
;;; Variable Address Assignments.
;;; -----

        UDATA                ; Start of the uninitialized data
                                ; section. The following
                                ; statements reserve memory, the
                                ; address of which is allocated by
                                ; the linker.

        ;; For DBUS_TxStringK.

PTRHIGH:    res 1              ; High byte of the saved pointer.
PTRLOW:     res 1              ; Low byte of the saved pointer.

        global  PTRHIGH, PTRLOW

TemporaryVars:  UDATA_OVR

```

```

        ;; For DBUS_TxStringN
NUMBYTESTOSEND    res 1                ; Number of bytes left to send.

        ;; For DBUS_RxString.
PTRSAVEHIGH:      res 1                ; A place to save the pointer.
PTRSAVELOW:        res 1
NUMCHARS:          res 1                ; The # of characters received.
MAXCHARS:          res 1                ; The maximum number of characters
                                ; that will be accepted.
RXDCHAR:           res 1                ; Individual received character.

```

```

;;; -----
;;; Subroutines.
;;; -----

```

```

        CODE                                ; Start the code section.

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    DBUS_Init
;;; Description:        Initializes the FIFO by emptying out the
;;;                     Receive buffer.
;;; Requires:           Nothing.
;;; Returns:            NULL
;;; Locations Affected: Destroys W
;;; *****

```

```

DBUS_Init:
    global    DBUS_Init                ; Make this subroutine callable
                                           ; outside the module

```

```

ChkFIFO:
    call      DBUS_KbHit
    skpc
    goto      Done
    call      DBUS_RxByte
    bcf       STATUS,C
    goto      ChkFIFO

```

```

Done:
    return

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    DBUS_RxByte
;;; Description:        Receives a byte through the FIFO databus
;;;                     and returns it in W. This routine blocks
;;;                     until a character is received.
;;; Requires:           Nothing.
;;; Returns:            The character in W.
;;; Locations Affected: None.
;;; *****

```

```

DBUS_RxByte:
    global    DBUS_RxByte                ; Make this subroutine callable
                                           ; outside the module.
    banksel   PORTD                      ; Set to bank0

    ;; Loop until a character is received.

```

```

DBUS_RxByteLoop:
    btfsc    bitRFX          ; Poll the receive flag.
    goto     DBUS_RxByteLoop
    bcf      bitRD
    nop
    movf     DBUS, W          ; Copy character from databus to W
    bsf      bitRD
    return

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    DBUS_KbHit
;;; Description:        Determines if a character has been
;;;                      received by the FIFO (but does not return
;;;                      the character itself).
;;;
;;; Requires:           Nothing.
;;; Returns:            STATUS, C = 1 (true) if a character has
;;;                      been received.
;;;                      STATUS, C = 0 (false) if no character is
;;;                      waiting.
;;;
;;; Locations Affected: None.
;;; *****
DBUS_KbHit:

```

```

    global   DBUS_KbHit      ; Make this subroutine callable
                             ; outside the module.
    banksel  PORTB          ; Set to bank0

    btfsc    bitRFX          ; Check the receive flag.
    goto     DBUS_KbHitFalse

```

```

DBUS_KbHitTrue:
    ;; A character has been received. Return true in the
    ;; STATUS register carry bit.
    bsf      STATUS,C
    return

```

```

DBUS_KbHitFalse:
    ;; No character has been received. Return false.
    bcf      STATUS,C
    return

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    DBUS_TxByte
;;; Description:        Sends the byte in W out through the FIFO
;;;                      databus. This routine will block until the
;;;                      Transmit Buffer is available.
;;;
;;; Requires:           The byte to send in W.
;;; Returns:            Nothing.
;;; Locations Affected: None.
;;; *****
DBUS_TxByte:

```

```

    global   DBUS_TxByte      ; Make this subroutine callable

```

```

                                ; outside the module.
banksel PORTD                  ; Set to bank0.

DBUS_TxByteWait
    btfsc    bitTXE            ; check that the Transmit buffer
                                ; is available
    goto     DBUS_TxByteWait
    bsf      STATUS, RP0       ; Select Bank 1
    clrf     TRISD             ; DBUS output
    bcf      STATUS, RP0       ; Select Bank 0

    movwf    DBUS              ; Send data
    bsf      bitWR
    nop
    bcf      bitWR

    bsf      STATUS, RP0       ; Select Bank 1
    movlw    0xFF
    movwf    TRISD             ; DBUS input
    bcf      STATUS, RP0       ; Select Bank 0

    return

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    DBUS_TxStringK
;;; Description:       Uses the DBUS to send a NULL-terminated
;;;                   string constant (a string that resides
;;;                   in the code space).
;;;                   This routine calls another (specialized)
;;;                   subroutine, DBUS_GetStringKChar
;;;                   in order to overcome the
;;;                   PIC CPU limitation not allowing pointers
;;;                   to constants.
;;;                   To send a string in RAM, see DBUS_TxString
;;; Requires:          PTRHigh – high byte of address of string
;;;                   constant.
;;;                   PTRLow – low byte of address of string
;;;                   constant.
;;; Returns:           Nothing.
;;; Locations Affected: PTRHigh, PTRLow will point at the NULL.
;;;                   W will contain the NULL.
;;; *****
DBUS_TxStringK:
    global   DBUS_TxStringK    ; Make this subroutine callable
                                ; outside the module.

    ;; This routine uses a "trick" to allow specification of
    ;; and arbitrary string constant by PTRHigh:PTRLow.
    ;; The trick is to make a subroutine call to an
    ;; intermediate piece of code which then uses a "computed
    ;; goto" to jump to a string character.
    ;; When making a subroutine call, the return address
    ;; gets pushed onto the stack. The intermediate
    ;; subroutine itself does not pull the value off the

```



```

;; stack , but instead passes control to the table.
;; This is slightly different than the suggested method
;; by Microchip in AN556 (Implementing a Table Read)
;; wherein the table itself includes an instruction to
;; complete a computed goto statement.

```

**DBUS\_TXStringKLoop:**

```

    banksel PTRLOW
    ;; Get a character.
    call    DBUS_GetStringKChar

    ;; Return to this page if the string constant was
    ;; located in another page.
    pagesel DBUS_TXStringKLoop

    ;; Check to see if it is a NULL.
    andlw   0xFF                ; Does nothing but set/clear Z in
                                ; STATUS.

    btfsc   STATUS,Z
    return                ; String transmission complete.

    ;; Send the character.
    call    DBUS_TxByte

    banksel PTRLOW
    ;; Increment the pointer.
    incf    PTRLOW,F           ; Low byte.
    btfsc   STATUS,Z
    incf    PTRHIGH,F          ; High byte, if there is a carry
                                ; from the low byte.

    ;; Process another character.
    goto    DBUS_TXStringKLoop

```

**DBUS\_GetStringKChar:**

```

    ;; Address of string is PTRHigh:PTRLow.
    ;; Use a computed GOTO to get the character to send.
    movf    PTRHIGH,W
    movwf   PCLATH             ; High byte of address.
    movf    PTRLOW,W
    movwf   PCL                ; Low Byte of address.
    ;; Execution should never past here. In a way,
    ;; this is a subroutine without a return statement.
    ;; The actual return is contained along with the
    ;; string 'table' data.

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    DBUS_TxStringKN
;;; Description:       Uses the DBUS to send out N bytes of a
;;;                   NULL-terminated string constant (a string
;;;                   that resides in the code space).
;;;                   This routine calls another (specialized)

```

```

;;;          subroutine , DBUS_GetStringKChar
;;;          in order to overcome the
;;;          PIC CPU limitation not allowing pointers
;;;          to constants.
;;;          To send a string in RAM, see DBUS_TxString
;;; Requires: PTRHigh — high byte of address of string
;;;          constant.
;;;          PTRLow — low byte of address of string
;;;          constant.
;;; Returns:  Nothing.
;;; Locations Affected: PTRHigh, PTRLow will point at the NULL.
;;;          W will contain the NULL.
;;; *****

```

DBUS\_TxStringKN:

```

    global DBUS_TxStringKN ; Make this subroutine callable
                          ; outside the module.

```

```

;; This routine uses a "trick" to allow specification of
;; and arbitrary string constant by PTRHigh:PTRLow.
;; The trick is to make a subroutine call to an
;; intermediate piece of code which then uses a "computed
;; goto" to jump to a string character.
;; When making a subroutine call, the return address
;; gets pushed onto the stack. The intermediate
;; subroutine itself does not pull the value off the
;; stack, but instead passes control to the table.
;; This is slightly different than the suggested method
;; by Microchip in AN556 (Implementing a Table Read)
;; wherein the table itself includes an instruction to
;; complete a computed goto statement.

```

```

    banksel NUMBYTESTOSEND
    movwf   NUMBYTESTOSEND

```

DBUS\_TXStringKNLoop:

```

    banksel PTRLOW
    ;; Get a character.
    call    DBUS_GetStringKChar

```

```

    ;; Return to this page if the string constant was
    ;; located in another page.
    pagesel DBUS_TXStringKNLoop

```

```

    ;; Send the character.
    call    DBUS_TxByte

```

```

    ;; Check if there are more bytes to send.
    banksel NUMBYTESTOSEND
    decfsz  NUMBYTESTOSEND, F
    goto    DBUS_TXStringKNIncPointer
    return

```

DBUS\_TXStringKNIncPointer

```

    banksel PTRLOW

```

```

        ;; Increment the pointer.
        incf    PTRLOW,F          ; Low byte.
        btfsc   STATUS,Z
        incf    PTRHIGH,F        ; High byte, if there is a carry
                                   ; from the low byte.
        ;; Process another character.
        goto    DBUS_TxStringKNLoop

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    DBUS_TxString
;;; Description:       Sends a NULL-terminated string in RAM
;;;                   through the DBUS.
;;;                   To send a string constant in ROM, see
;;;                   subroutine DBUS_TxStringK.
;;; Requires:         IRP (STATUS:7) and FSR point to the string
;;;                   in RAM. (See PIC16F87X data sheet section
;;;                   2.5 for more information on indirect
;;;                   addressing.)
;;; Returns:          Nothing.
;;; Locations Affected: W will contain 0 (NULL). IRP, FSR will
;;;                   point to the NULL of the string.
;;; *****
DBUS_TxString:
    global    DBUS_TxString      ; Make this subroutine callable
                                   ; outside the module.

    ;; This routine requires no RAM bank switching since
    ;; INDF, StATUS, and FSR all appear in every bank.

    movf       INDF,W            ; Get the character pointed to by
                                   ; indirect addressing.
    btfsc      STATUS,Z          ; Exit if the NULL is found.
    return

    call       DBUS_TxByte       ; Send the character out.

    incf       FSR,F             ; Increment the LSByte of pointer.
    btfsc      STATUS,C          ; Check if there was a carry.
    bsf        STATUS,IRP        ; If so, ensure that a wrap to an
                                   ; upper bank occurs.
    goto       DBUS_TxString

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    DBUS_TxStringN
;;; Description:       Sends N characters of a string out through
;;;                   the DBUS. This routine will transfer
;;;                   characters past any terminating NULL, if
;;;                   the number of specified characters is
;;;                   beyond the NULL. To send a NULL-terminated
;;;                   string in RAM, see subroutine
;;;                   DBUS_TxString. To send a string constant
;;;                   in ROM, see subroutine DBUS_TxStringK.
;;; Requires:         W contains the number of characters to

```

```

;;;                                transmit. IRP (STATUS:7) and FSR point to
;;;                                the string in RAM. (See PIC16F87X data
;;;                                sheet section 2.5 for more information on
;;;                                indirect addressing.)
;;; Returns:                        Nothing.
;;; Locations Affected: W will contain 0. IRP, FSR will point
;;;                                to the last transmitted byte.
;;; *****
DBUS_TxStringN:
    global DBUS_TxStringN ; Make this subroutine callable
                           ; outside the module.

    ;; Save the character count.
    banksel NUMBYTESTOSEND
    movwf NUMBYTESTOSEND

DBUS_TxStringNLoop:
    movf INDF,W ; Get the character pointed to by
                 ; indirect addressing.

    call DBUS_TxByte ; Send the character out.

    ;; Determine if all desired characters are sent out.
    banksel NUMBYTESTOSEND
    decf NUMBYTESTOSEND,F
    btfsc STATUS,Z ; If zero then the routine is done
    return

    incf FSR,F ; Increment LSByte of the pointer.
    btfsc STATUS,C ; Check if there has been a carry
    bsf STATUS,IRP ; If so, ensure that a wrap to an
                   ; upper bank occurs.
    goto DBUS_TxStringNLoop

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name: DBUS_RxString
;;; Description: Receives a string from the user,
;;;              terminated by a new-line character.
;;; Requires: IRP (STATUS:7) and FSR point to the start
;;;            of an initialized string structure in RAM.
;;;
;;; On call:
;;; Position: byte0 byte1 byte2 byte3 .... byte n
;;; Value: MaxChars
;;;
;;; MaxChars is the maximum number of
;;; characters that will be accepted by this
;;; routine, excluding the NULL. Thus, if the
;;; buffer has size (n+1), as shown, then it
;;; can hold (n-1) characters plus the NULL.
;;; The maximum value that can be placed in
;;; the MaxChars position for a buffer of this

```

```

;;; size is (n-1). A lower number of
;;; characters, of course, is permitted.
;;;
;;; From the perspective of buffersize, the
;;; memory allocated to this structure must be
;;; at least the maximum string length plus 3.
;;;
;;; This routine can handle strings of up to
;;; 125 characters. Any more will require a
;;; rewrite of some of the signed pointer
;;; arithmetic.
;;;
;;; Returns: The NULL-terminated string and the number
;;; of non-NULL characters in it as part of
;;; the structure.
;;;
;;; Position: byte0 byte1 byte2 byte3 .... byte n
;;; Value: MaxChars NumUsed String data.....NULL
;;;
;;; Where NumUsed is the number of characters
;;; that were received, excluding the appended
;;; NULL. The string data is NULL-terminated.
;;; The new-line character is stripped.
;;;
;;; W contains the number of characters
;;; received (a duplicate of the value in
;;; "byte1".
;;;
;;; Locations Affected: None. (IRP:FSR will still point to the
;;; start of the structure.)
;;; *****
DBUS_RxString:
    global DBUS_RxString ; Make this subroutine callable
                          ; outside the module.
    ; Move the max number of chars to variable MAXCHARS.
    banksel NUMCHARS
    movf INDF,W ; *IRP:FSR->W
    movwf MAXCHARS ; W->MAXCHARS.

    clrf NUMCHARS ; 0->NUMCHARS

    ; Save the IRP:FSR pointer.
    movf FSR,W ; Save the lower byte.
    movwf PTRSAVELOW
    movf STATUS,W ; Isolate and save the IRP bit.
    andlw 0x80
    movwf PTRSAVEHIGH

    ; Make IRP:FSR point to the string data by incrementing
    ; it by 2.
    incf FSR,F
    incf FSR,F

```

DBUS\_RxStringGetChar:

```

;; Get a character and save it.
call    DBUS_RxByte
banksel  RXDCHAR
movwf    RXDCHAR

;; Is the character a backspace?
sublw    '\b'                ; Compare with the backspace.
btfsc    STATUS,Z
goto     DBUS_RxStringIsBackspace

;; Restore the character.
movf     RXDCHAR,W

;; Is the character a newline?
sublw    '\r'
btfsc    STATUS,Z
goto     DBUS_RxStringIsNewline

;; Falling through to here means the character is neither
;; a backspace nor a return character.
;; Ensure that there is room for the character.
;; Get the maximum number of allowed characters into W.
movf     MAXCHARS,W

;; Compare this with the number already received.
subwf    NUMCHARS,W
btfsc    STATUS,Z            ; If they are equal, then
                             ; there is no room for the
                             ; character.
goto     DBUS_RxStringSendBell

;; There is room for the character.
;; Add one to the NUMCHARS variable to indicate that the
;; byte has been received.
incf     NUMCHARS,F

;; Place the character in the location pointed to.
movf     RXDCHAR,W
movwf    INDF

;; Echo the character back to the user.
call    DBUS_TxByte

;; Make the pointer point to where the next character is
;; to be inserted.
incf     FSR,F

;; Go get another character.
goto     DBUS_RxStringGetChar

```

```

DBUS_RxStringSendBell:
movlw    '\a'                ; Alarm character.
call    DBUS_TxByte
goto     DBUS_RxStringGetChar

```

```

DBUS_RxStringIsBackspace:
    ;; To get here, the backspace key has been pressed.
    ;; Determine if there is room to backspace.
    movf    NUMCHARS,W
    btfsc   STATUS,Z           ; If not, let the user know.
    goto    DBUS_RxStringSendBell

    ;; There is room to backspace. Decrement number of chars.
    decf    NUMCHARS,F

    ;; Send a backspace, a space, and a backspace to
    ;; remove the previous character and move back.
    ;; This destroys the pointer to the buffer.
    movlw   high DBUS_RxStringErase
    movwf   PTRHIGH
    movlw   low  DBUS_RxStringErase
    movwf   PTRLOW
    call    DBUS_TxStringK

    ;; Move to the now empty location by decrementing it.
    movlw   -1
    addwf   FSR, F

    ;; Go and get another character.
    goto    DBUS_RxStringGetChar

DBUS_RxStringIsNewline:
    ;; The only way that this subroutine terminates is
    ;; if the user presses the <enter> key.
    ;; Append a NULL.
    clrf    INDF

    ;; Restore the pointer.
    movf    STATUS,W           ; Restore the IRP bit.
    iorwf   PTRSAVEHIGH,W
    movwf   STATUS
    movf    PTRSAVELOW,W       ; Restore the lower byte.
    movwf   FSR

    ;; Move the pointer over to the byte that contains
    ;; the number of characters entered.
    incf    FSR,F

    ;; Set the number of entered characters.
    movf    NUMCHARS,W
    movwf   INDF

    ;; Reset the pointer (again).
    movlw   -1
    addwf   FSR,F

    return

```

```
;; Define the string constant that backs up the cursor,  
;; over-writes the last character, and then backs up to  
;; the empty spot.  
DBUS_RxStringErase:      dt      "\b_\b",0
```

```
;;; -----  
;;; Constant Data (if not placed along with the subroutines).  
;;; -----
```

**END**



```

;;; *****
;;; Library Name:          del_lib.asm
;;; Purpose:                Routines for (blocking) software delays.
;;; Revision:            0.2.1
;;; Date:                07 March 2011
;;; Author:             L. Wyard—Scott, M. Cumming, D. Smetaniuk
;;; Copyright:          Public Domain
;;; Device:             PIC16F873, PIC16F874, PIC16F876,
;;;                       PIC16F877, PIC16F873A, PIC16F874A,
;;;                       PIC16F876A, PIC16F877A.
;;; *****
;;; Special Directions:
;;;   To use these routines, include "del_lib.h" in the source
;;;   code calling the routines.
;;;   The crystal frequency needs to be specified on the command
;;;   line:
;;;       FXTAL=xx
;;;   Where valid choices of FXTAL are integer representations
;;;   of the crystal frequency.
;;;       3  —> 3.57945 MHz
;;;       4  —> 4.00 MHz
;;;       5  —> 5.0688 MHz
;;;       7  —> 7.15909 MHz
;;;       10 —> 10.00 MHz
;;;       12 —> 12.00 MHz
;;;       16 —> 16.384 MHz
;;;       20 —> 20.00 MHz
;;; *****
;;; Revision History:
;;;   0.2.1 — 07 March 2011 — DPS
;;;       — changed 16.00 MHz to 16.384 MHz
;;;   0.2 — 03 October 2005
;;;       — Added support for 16F87XA devices.
;;;   0.1 — 16 March 2004
;;;       — Added conditional assembly directives to remove
;;;       dependency on a particular frequency. Possible
;;;       frequencies are specified above.
;;;   0.0 — 13 October 2002
;;;       — Created from routines in debug873.asm (r3.1).
;;; *****

list                                ; Turn on list output. Note that
                                   ; device type needs to be
                                   ; specified to the assembler (on
                                   ; the command line, or through the
                                   ; MPLAB IDE).

;; Include register, bit, and other info specific to
;; the specified device.
ifdef    __16F873
#include <p16f873.inc>
messg "Assembling del_lib.asm for PIC16F873."
endif

```

```

ifdef    __16F874
#include <p16f874.inc>
messg "Assembling _del_lib.asm _for _PIC16F874."
endif
ifdef    __16F876
#include <p16f876.inc>
messg "Assembling _del_lib.asm _for _PIC16F876."
endif
ifdef    __16F877
#include <p16f877.inc>
messg "Assembling _del_lib.asm _for _PIC16F877."
endif
ifdef    __16F873A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f873a.inc>
messg "Assembling _del_lib.asm _for _PIC16F873A."
endif
ifdef    __16F874A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f874a.inc>
messg "Assembling _del_lib.asm _for _PIC16F874A."
endif
ifdef    __16F876A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f876a.inc>
messg "Assembling _del_lib.asm _for _PIC16F876A."
endif
ifdef    __16F877A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f877a.inc>
messg "Assembling _del_lib.asm _for _PIC16F877A."
endif

```

*;;; Ensure that the crystal frequency has been specified on the  
 ;;; assembler command line.*

```

ifndef FXTAL
error "Timing _element _frequency _not _specified _on _command _  

  line."  

error "Possible _values _for _FXTAL _are :"  

error "3____>_3.57945 _MHz"  

error "4____>_4.00 _MHz"  

error "5____>_5.0688 _MHz"  

error "7____>_7.15909 _MHz"  

error "10____>_10.00 _MHz"  

error "12____>_12.00 _MHz"  

error "16____>_16.384 _MHz"  

error "20____>_20.00 _MHz"  

endif

```

*;;; Establish the loop delay values based on the crystal  
 ;;; frequency. Both routines (\_Wx1ms and \_Wx10ms) use the same  
 ;;; code structure. The code is quite simple, but the counting of  
 ;;; cycles to get an accurate delay is not simple. This is what*

```

;;; I get:
;;;
;;; TOTALDELAY = W * (OUTER*(3*INNER+4)+4) + 6
;;;
;;; Since W is a parameter, the (OUTER*(3*INNER+4)+4) term should
;;; be the unit of the delay. The 6 cycles is overhead and there
;;; is no simple way of accommodating it without complicating
;;; matters further.
;;;
;;; Terms OUTER and INNER can be any value above zero and below
;;; 256 because they are byte values.
;;; The following values were created using a little program to
;;; search through all possible combinations and indicate the
;;; closest combinations.
;;;
;;; FOR A 1 ms DELAY
;;; fXTAL (MHz) tcyc (ns)          ncyc/ms INNERCOUNT OUTERCOUNT
;;; -----
;;; 3.57945      1117.49          894.86  58          5 (894~)
;;; 4.00         1000.00          1000    54          6
;;; 5.0688        789.14          1267.2  139         3
;;; 7.15909       558.73          1789.77  30         19
;;; 10.00         400.00          2500    68         12
;;; 12.00         333.33          3000    70         14
;;; 16.00         250.00          4000    11         108
;;; 16.384        244.14          4096    40         33
;;; 20.00         200.00          5000    11         135 (4999~)
;;;
;;; FOR A 10ms DELAY
;;; fXTAL (MHz) tcyc (ns)          ncyc/10ms INNERCOUNT OUTERCOUNT
;;; -----
;;; 3.57945      1117.49          8948.6  13          208 (8948~)
;;; 4.00         1000.00          10000   15          204
;;; 5.0688        789.14          12672   33          123 (12673~)
;;; 7.15909       558.73          17897.7  46          126 (17896~)
;;; 10.00         400.00          25000   46          176 (24996~)
;;; 12.00         333.33          30000   93          106 (30002~)
;;; 16.00         250.00          40000   66          198
;;; 16.384        244.14          40960   61          219 (40957~)
;;; 20.00         200.00          50000  167          99 (49999~)
;;;
    if (FXTAL == 3)
        messg "3.579545_MHz_timing_element_specified."
INNERCOUNT1ms EQU 58
OUTERCOUNT1ms EQU 5
INNERCOUNT10ms EQU 13
OUTERCOUNT10ms EQU 208
    endif

    if (FXTAL == 4)
        messg "4_MHz_timing_element_specified."
INNERCOUNT1ms EQU 54
OUTERCOUNT1ms EQU 6

```

```

INNERCOUNT10ms EQU 15
OUTERCOUNT10ms EQU 204
endif

if (FXTAL == 5)
    messg "5.0688_MHz_timing_element_specified."
INNERCOUNT1ms EQU 139
OUTERCOUNT1ms EQU 3
INNERCOUNT10ms EQU 33
OUTERCOUNT10ms EQU 123
endif

if (FXTAL == 7)
    messg "7.15909_MHz_timing_element_specified."
INNERCOUNT1ms EQU 30
OUTERCOUNT1ms EQU 19
INNERCOUNT10ms EQU 46
OUTERCOUNT10ms EQU 126
endif

if (FXTAL == 10)
    messg "10_MHz_timing_element_specified."
INNERCOUNT1ms EQU 68
OUTERCOUNT1ms EQU 12
INNERCOUNT10ms EQU 46
OUTERCOUNT10ms EQU 176
endif

if (FXTAL == 12)
    messg "12_MHz_timing_element_specified."
INNERCOUNT1ms EQU 70
OUTERCOUNT1ms EQU 14
INNERCOUNT10ms EQU 93
OUTERCOUNT10ms EQU 106
endif

if (FXTAL == 16)
    messg "16_MHz_timing_element_specified."
INNERCOUNT1ms EQU 40 ; 11
OUTERCOUNT1ms EQU 33 ; 108
INNERCOUNT10ms EQU 61 ; 66
OUTERCOUNT10ms EQU 219 ; 198
endif

if (FXTAL == 20)
    messg "20_MHz_timing_element_specified."
INNERCOUNT1ms EQU 11
OUTERCOUNT1ms EQU 135
INNERCOUNT10ms EQU 167
OUTERCOUNT10ms EQU 99
endif

;; Make sure that a *valid* crystal frequency was
;; specified.

```

```

        ifndef INNERCOUNT1ms
        error "Invalid frequency specified: must be 3,4,5,7,10,16,
             _or_20."
        endif

;;; -----
;;; Variable Address Assignments.
;;; -----
        UDATA                                ; Start of the uninitialized data
                                           ; section. The following
                                           ; statements reserve memory, the
                                           ; address of which is allocated by
                                           ; the linker.

DCOUNT1:      res 1                        ; Variables used to count the
DCOUNT2:      res 1                        ; number of instruction cycles.
DCOUNT3:      res 1
DCOUNT4:      res 1
        ;; None of these variables need to be declared as global.
        ;; None of them should be "overlay" (UDATA_OVR), as
        ;; several libraries make use of these routines and a
        ;; collision could occur.

;;; -----
;;; Assembler Equates Section. Define assembly-time constants here
;;; using the EQU assembler directive.
;;; -----
;;; -----
;;; -----
;;; Macros. (File-specific)
;;; -----
;;; -----
;;; -----
;;; Subroutines.
;;; -----
        CODE                                ; Start the code section.

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    DELAY_Wx1ms
;;; Description:        Delays (blocks) a multiple of 1ms
;;;                     increments. See above for development of
;;;                     the timing values.
;;; Requires:          The number of increments (ms) in W.
;;; Returns:           None.
;;; Locations Affected: Variables DCOUNT1,2,3,4
;;; *****
DELAY_Wx1ms:
        global DELAY_Wx1ms                ; Make this subroutine callable
                                           ; outside the module.

        banksel DCOUNT1                    ; [2~] ([1~] if using MPLAB and
                                           ; 16F873)
        movwf    DCOUNT4                    ; [1~] Save a copy of w.

        movwf    DCOUNT1                    ; [1~] DCOUNT1 = W

```

```

Outercount1ms:
    movlw    OUTERCOUNT1ms    ; [1~]
    movwf    DCOUNT2           ; [1~]
Innercount1ms:
    movlw    INNERCOUNT1ms    ; [1~]
    movwf    DCOUNT3           ; [1~]
    decfsz   DCOUNT3,F         ; [1~,2~ on skip]
    goto     $ - 1              ; [2~]
    decfsz   DCOUNT2,F         ; [1~,2~ on skip]
    goto     $ - 5              ; [2~]
    decfsz   DCOUNT1,F         ; [1~,2~ on skip]
    goto     $ - 9              ; [2~]

    movf     DCOUNT4,W         ; [1~] Restore w.

    return                                ; [2~]

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    DELAY_Wx10ms
;;; Description:       Delays (blocks) a multiple of 10ms
;;;                   increments.
;;; Requires:          The number of increments (10 milliseconds)
;;;                   in W.
;;; Returns:           None.
;;; Locations Affected: Variables DCOUNT1,2,3,4
;;; *****
DELAY_Wx10ms:
    global   DELAY_Wx10ms        ; Make this subroutine callable
                                   ; outside the module.

    banksel DCOUNT1
    movwf   DCOUNT4            ; Save a copy of w.

    movwf   DCOUNT1
    movlw   OUTERCOUNT10ms
    movwf   DCOUNT2
    movlw   INNERCOUNT10ms
    movwf   DCOUNT3
    decfsz  DCOUNT3,F
    goto    $ - 1
    decfsz  DCOUNT2,F
    goto    $ - 5
    decfsz  DCOUNT1,F
    goto    $ - 9

    movf    DCOUNT4,W          ; Restore w.
    return

END

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Library Name:          i2c_lib.asm
;;; Purpose:                Routines for reading and writing over the
;;;                        i2c bus. Modularized from code for AN732.
;;; Revision:            0.1
;;; Date:                16 February 2001
;;; Author:             See below. Modularized by L. Wyard—Scott.
;;;                        Adapted for I2C by D. Smetaniuk
;;; Copyright:          See below.
;;; Device:             PIC16F873, PIC16F874, PIC16F876,
;;;                        PIC16F877, PIC16F873A, PIC16F874A,
;;;                        PIC16F876A, PIC16F877A.
;;; *****

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;;; WHATSOEVER.
;;;
;;;=====
;;; Filename:            boot877.asm
;;;=====
;;; Author:             Mike Garbutt
;;; Company:            Microchip Technology Inc.
;;; Revision:           1.00
;;; Date:               26 June 2000
;;; Assembled using MPASM V2.40
;;;=====
;;; (end copyright)

;;; *****
;;; Special Directions:
;;; To use these routines, include "i2c_lib.h" in the source
;;; code calling the routines. This file contains information
;;; about the routines and other equates that the calling
;;; code requires.

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Revision History:
;;;     0.2 – 16 February 2011
;;;         – Adapted for I2C
;;;     0.1 – 03 October 2005
;;;         – Added support for 16F87XA devices.
;;;     0.0 – 13 November 2002
;;;         – Creation. Made modular.
;;; *****
;;; Ideas for future work:
;;;
;;; *****

```

```

list                ; Turn on list output. Note that
                    ; device type needs to be
                    ; specified to the assembler (on
                    ; the command line, or through the
                    ; MPLAB IDE).

```

```

;; Include register, bit, and other info specific to
;; the specified device.

```

```

ifdef    __16F873
#include <p16f873.inc>
messg "Assembling _flsh_lib.asm _for _PIC16F873."
endif
ifdef    __16F874
#include <p16f874.inc>
messg "Assembling _flsh_lib.asm _for _PIC16F874."
endif
ifdef    __16F876
#include <p16f876.inc>
messg "Assembling _flsh_lib.asm _for _PIC16F876."
endif
ifdef    __16F877
#include <p16f877.inc>
messg "Assembling _flsh_lib.asm _for _PIC16F877."
endif
ifdef    __16F873A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f873a.inc>
messg "Assembling _flsh_lib.asm _for _PIC16F873A."
endif
ifdef    __16F874A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f874a.inc>
messg "Assembling _flsh_lib.asm _for _PIC16F874A."
endif
ifdef    __16F876A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f876a.inc>
messg "Assembling _flsh_lib.asm _for _PIC16F876A."
endif
ifdef    __16F877A
#define A_Device

```



```

#include <p16f877a.inc>
messg "Assembling _flsh_lib.asm _for _PIC16F877A."
endif

```

```

;;; Ensure that the crystal frequency has been specified on the
;;; assembler command line.

```

```

ifndef FXTAL
error "Timing _element _frequency _not _specified _on _command _
line."
error "Possible _values _for _FXTAL _are:"
error "3 _—> _3.57945 _MHz"
error "4 _—> _4.00 _MHz"
error "5 _—> _5.0688 _MHz"
error "7 _—> _7.15909 _MHz"
error "10 _—> _10.00 _MHz"
error "12 _—> _12.00 _MHz"
error "16 _—> _16.00 _MHz"
error "20 _—> _20.00 _MHz"
endif

```

```

if (FXTAL == 3)
messg "3.579545 _MHz _timing _element _specified."
FOSC EQU D'3579545'
endif

```

```

if (FXTAL == 4)
messg "4 _MHz _timing _element _specified."
FOSC EQU D'4000000'
endif

```

```

if (FXTAL == 5)
messg "5.0688 _MHz _timing _element _specified."
FOSC EQU D'5068800'
endif

```

```

if (FXTAL == 7)
messg "7.15909 _MHz _timing _element _specified."
FOSC EQU D'7159090'
endif

```

```

if (FXTAL == 10)
messg "10 _MHz _timing _element _specified."
FOSC EQU D'10000000'
endif

```

```

if (FXTAL == 12)
messg "12 _MHz _timing _element _specified."
FOSC EQU D'12000000'
endif

```

```

if (FXTAL == 16)
messg "16 _MHz _timing _element _specified."
FOSC EQU D'16000000'

```

```

endif

if (FXTAL == 20)
    messg "20_MHz_timing_element_specified."
    FOSC EQU D'20000000'
endif

;; Make sure that a *valid* crystal frequency was
    specified.
ifndef FOSC
    error "Invalid_frequency_specified:_must_be_3,4,5,7,10,16,
        _or_20."
endif

;;; -----
;;; Assembler Equates Section. Define assembly-time constants here
;;; using the EQU assembler directive.
;;; -----

;;; -----
;;; Variable Address Assignments.
;;; -----

        UDATA                                ; Start of the uninitialized data
                                           ; section. The following
                                           ; statements reserve memory, the
                                           ; address of which is allocated by
                                           ; the linker.

I2C_ADDR:                res 1
I2C_REG:                 res 1
I2C_DAT:                 res 1

        global I2C_ADDR, I2C_REG, I2C_DAT

I2C_PTRHIGH:             res 1                ; High byte of the saved pointer.
        global I2C_PTRHIGH
I2C_PTRLOW:              res 1                ; Low byte of the saved pointer.
        global I2C_PTRLOW

TemporaryVars: UDATA_OVR
                ;; For DBUS_TxStringN
NUMBYTES:              res 1                ; Number of bytes left to send.

;;; -----
;;; Macros. (File-specific)
;;; -----
;;; -----
;;; Subroutines.
;;; -----

        CODE                                ; Start the code section.

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:      I2C_Init
;;; Description:         Initializes I2C peripheral
;;; Requires:            None
;;; Returns:             None
;;; Locations Affected:  W is destroyed
;;; *****
I2C_Init:
    global I2C_Init

    banksel PORTC                ; Select Bank 0
    bsf     PORTC,3              ; SCL = HIGH
    bsf     PORTC,4              ; SDA = HIGH
    banksel TRISC                ; Select Bank 1
    bsf     TRISC,3              ; SCL = Input
    bsf     TRISC,4              ; SDA = Input

    movlw   .49                  ; 100kHz I2C clock rate
                                ; at 20MHz
    movwf   SSPADD               ; SSPADD =
                                ; (20MHZ/100KHz)/4 - 1

    movlw   b'10000000'
    movwf   SSPSTAT              ; disable slew rate
                                ; control

    movlw   b'00000000'
    movwf   SSPCON2              ; Idle

    bcf     STATUS,RP0           ; Select Bank 0
    movlw   b'00111000'
    movwf   SSPCON                ; SSP enable, Master mode
                                ; Clock rate =
                                ; FOSC/(4*(SSPADD+1))

    return

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:      I2C_Write
;;; Description:         Writes to slave device via I2C bus.
;;; Requires:            I2C slave device address in I2C_ADDR.
;;;                     Register address in I2C_REG.
;;;                     Data to write to register in I2C_DATA.
;;;
;;;                     I2C Timing is as follows:
;;;                     Start + I2C_ADDR + Write + Ack + I2C_REG +
;;;                     + Ack + I2C_DATA + Ack + Stop
;;;
;;; Returns:             Nothing.
;;; Locations Affected:  W is destroyed.
;;; *****
I2C_Write:
    global I2C_Write

    call    StartI2C            ; Sets SSPCON2.SEN and waits for
                                ; SSPIF
    bcf     I2C_ADDR,0          ; Clear bit 0 for write

```

```

    movf    I2C_ADDR,W      ; Load slave device address
    call    Send_Byte       ; Writes to SSPBUF and waits for
                             ; SSPIF
    movf    I2C_REG,W       ;
    call    Send_Byte       ; Set register address

    movf    I2C_DAT,W       ;
    call    Send_Byte       ; Send register value

    call    StopI2C         ; Send STOP condition to bus

    return

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:      I2C_BlockWrite
;;; Description:         Writes a block to a slave device via I2C
;;;                      bus.
;;; Requires:            I2C slave device address in I2C_ADDR.
;;;                      Register address in I2C_REG.
;;;                      Data to write to register in I2C_DATA.
;;;
;;;                      I2C Timing is as follows:
;;;                      Start + I2C_ADDR + Write + Ack + I2C_REG +
;;;                      Ack + I2C_DATA + Ack + Stop
;;;
;;; Returns:             Nothing.
;;; Locations Affected:  W is destroyed.
;;; *****

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:      I2C_BlockWrite
;;; Description:         Uses the DBUS to send out a NULL-
;;;                      terminated string constant (a string that
;;;                      resides in the code space).
;;;                      This routine calls another (specialized)
;;;                      subroutine, DBUS_GetStringKChar
;;;                      in order to overcome the
;;;                      PIC CPU limitation not allowing pointers
;;;                      to constants.
;;;                      To send a string in RAM, see DBUS_TxString
;;; Requires:            PTRHigh – high byte of address of string
;;;                      constant.
;;;                      PTRLow – low byte of address of string
;;;                      constant.
;;;
;;; Returns:             Nothing.
;;; Locations Affected:  PTRHigh, PTRLow will point at the NULL.
;;;                      W will contain the NULL.
;;; *****
I2C_BlockWrite:
    global  I2C_BlockWrite ; Make this subroutine callable
                             ; outside the module.

    ;; This routine uses a "trick" to allow specification of

```

```

;; and arbitrary string constant by PTRHigh:PTRLow.
;; The trick is to make a subroutine call to an
;; intermediate piece of code which then uses a "computed
;; goto" to jump to a string character.
;; When making a subroutine call, the return address
;; gets pushed onto the stack. The intermediate
;; subroutine itself does not pull the value off the
;; stack, but instead passes control to the table.
;; This is slightly different than the suggested method
;; by Microchip in AN556 (Implementing a Table Read)
;; wherein the table itself includes an instruction to
;; complete a computed goto statement.

```

```

banksel I2C_PTRLOW
;; Get the first byte.
call    I2C_GetStringKByte

```

```

;; Return to this page if the string constant was
;; located in another page.
pagesel I2C_BlockWrite

```

```

;; First byte indicates the number of bytes to send
banksel NUMBYTES
movwf    NUMBYTES

```

```

call    StartI2C          ; Sets SSPCON2.SEN and waits for
                          ; SSPIF
bcf      I2C_ADDR,0       ; Clear bit 0 for write
movf     I2C_ADDR,W       ; Load slave device address
call    Send_Byte        ; Writes to SSPBUF and waits for
                          ; SSPIF
movlw    0xA0             ;
call    Send_Byte        ; Send the block write strobe

movf     NUMBYTES,W       ; Send the number of bytes to
call    Send_Byte        ; write

```

I2C\_BlockWriteLoop:

```

banksel I2C_PTRLOW
;; Increment the pointer.
incf     I2C_PTRLOW,F     ; Low byte.
btfsc    STATUS,Z
incf     I2C_PTRHIGH,F    ; High byte, if there is a carry
                          ; from the low byte.

```

```

;; Get a byte.
call    I2C_GetStringKByte
;; Return to this page if the string constant was
;; located in another page.
pagesel I2C_BlockWriteLoop
call    Send_Byte        ; Send the number of bytes to
                          ; write

```

```

    decfsz    NUMBYTES,F
    goto      I2C_BlockWriteLoop

    call      StopI2C          ; Send STOP condition to bus
    return

```

**I2C\_GetStringKByte:**

```

    ;; Address of string is PTRHigh:PTRLow.
    ;; Use a computed GOTO to get the character to send.
    movf      I2C_PTRHIGH,W
    movwf     PCLATH          ; High byte of address.
    movf      I2C_PTRLOW,W
    movwf     PCL             ; Low Byte of address.
    ;; Execution should never past here. In a way,
    ;; this is a subroutine without a return statement.
    ;; The actual return is contained along with the
    ;; string 'table' data.

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:      I2C_Read
;;; Description:         Read a slave device register via I2C bus.
;;; Requires:            I2C slave device address in I2C_ADDR.
;;;                      Register address in I2C_REG.
;;;
;;;                      I2C Timing is as follows:
;;;                      Start + I2C_ADDR + Write + Ack + I2C_REG +
;;;                      Ack + I2C_DATA + Ack + Stop
;;;
;;; Returns:              Register in I2C_DATA.
;;; Locations Affected:  W is destroyed.
;;; *****

```

**I2C\_Read:**

```

    global    I2C_Read

    call      StartI2C        ; Sets SSPCON2.SEN and waits for
                                ; SSPIF
    bsf       I2C_ADDR,0      ; Set bit 0 for read
    movf      I2C_ADDR,W      ; Load slave device address
    call      Send_Byte       ; Writes to SSPBUF and waits for
                                ; SSPIF
    call      RecI2C          ; Receive byte

    banksel   SSPBUF
    movf      SSPBUF,W        ; Save received byte
    movwf     I2C_DAT

    call      Non_Ack         ; Send NACK

    call      StopI2C         ; Send STOP condition to bus

    return

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:      I2C_BlockRead
;;; Description:         Read a slave device register via I2C bus.
;;; Requires:            I2C slave device address in I2C_ADDR.
;;;                      Number of bytes to be read in W.
;;;
;;;                      I2C Timing is as follows:
;;;                      Start + I2C_ADDR + Write + Ack + I2C_REG +
;;;                      Ack + I2C_DATA + Ack + Stop
;;;
;;; Returns:              Register in I2C_DATA.
;;; Locations Affected:  W is destroyed.
;;; *****
I2C_BlockRead:
    global    I2C_BlockRead

    movwf     NUMBYTES        ; The number of bytes to be read

    call      StartI2C        ; Sets SSPCON2.SEN and waits for
                                ; SSPIF

    bcf       I2C_ADDR,0      ; Clear bit 0 for write
    movf      I2C_ADDR,W      ; Load slave device address
    call      Send_Byte       ; Writes to SSPBUF and waits for
                                ; SSPIF

    movlw     0xA1
    call      Send_Byte       ; Send the block read strobe
    movf      NUMBYTES,W
    call      Send_Byte       ; Send the number of bytes to read

    call      RestartI2C      ; Sets SSPCON2.RSEN and waits for
                                ; SSPIF

    bsf       I2C_ADDR,0      ; Set bit 0 for read
    movf      I2C_ADDR,W      ; Load slave device address
    call      Send_Byte       ; Writes to SSPBUF and waits for
                                ; SSPIF

RxLoop:
    call      RecI2C          ; Receive byte

    banksel   SSPBUF
    movf      SSPBUF,W        ; Save received byte
    movwf     INDF            ; Use indirect addressing
    incf      FSR,F           ; Increment file select register

    decfsz    NUMBYTES,F
    goto      TxACK
    goto      TxNACK

TxACK:
    call      An_Ack
    goto      RxLoop

TxNACK:

```

```

        call    Non_Ack          ; Send NACK to signal end of read
        call    StopI2C         ; Send STOP condition to bus

    return

;;;***** Send START condition to bus *****
;;;
StartI2C:                                ; Initiate the I2C START condition
        banksel SSPCON2
        bsf     SSPCON2,SEN
        goto    I2C_Done

;;;
;;;***** Send STOP condition to bus *****
;;;
StopI2C:
        banksel SSPCON2
        bsf     SSPCON2,PEN
        goto    I2C_Done

;;;
;;;***** Send RESTART condition to bus *****
;;;
RestartI2C:
        banksel SSPCON2
        bsf     SSPCON2,RSEN
        goto    I2C_Done

;;;
;;;***** Send a Non-Acknowledge status to bus (ACK=1) *****
;;;
Non_Ack:
        banksel SSPCON2
        bsf     SSPCON2,ACKDT    ; Set the ACK bit
        bsf     SSPCON2,ACKEN    ; Initiate the NACK sequence.
        goto    I2C_Done

;;;
;;;***** Send an Acknowledge status to bus (ACK=0) *****
;;;
An_Ack:
        banksel SSPCON2
        bcf     SSPCON2,ACKDT    ; Clear the ACK bit
        bsf     SSPCON2,ACKEN    ; Initiate the NACK sequence.
        goto    I2C_Done

;;;
;;;***** Send data to I2C bus from Wreg. *****
;;;
Send_Byte:
        banksel SSPBUF
        movwf   SSPBUF
        goto    I2C_Done

;;;
;;;***** Enable I2C Receive for Master Mode *****
;;;
RecI2C:
        banksel SSPCON2

```



```

        bsf      SSPCON2,RCEN      ; Set the receive enable bit.
        goto     I2C_Done
;;;
;;;***** Check the I2C stage is completed *****
;;;
I2C_Done:
        banksel  PIR1
        btfss    PIR1,SSPIF        ; Poll for SSPIF
        goto     $-1
        bcf      PIR1,SSPIF

        return

;;; -----
;;; Constant Data (if not placed along with the subroutines).
;;; -----

END

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Library Name:          math_lib.asm
;;; Purpose:                Math routines
;;; Revision:            0.1
;;; Date:                03 February 2011
;;; Author:             D. Smetaniuk
;;; Copyright:          Public Domain
;;; *****
;;; Special Directions:
;;;   - To use these routines, include "math_lib.h" in the source
;;;     code calling the routines.
;;;
;;; *****
;;; Revision History:
;;;   0.1 - 3 February 2011 - DPS
;;;   - Creation.
;;; *****

```

```

;;; -----
;;; Assembler Equates Section. Define assembly-time constants here
;;;                               using the EQU assembler directive.
;;; -----

```

```

;;; -----
;;; Variable Address Assignments.
;;; -----

```

```

          UDATA                      ; Start of the uninitialized data
                                     ; section. The following
                                     ; statements reserve memory, the
                                     ; address of which is allocated by
                                     ; the linker.

```

```

ACCa:
ACCa4:      res    1      ; Three accumulators for
ACCa3:      res    1      ; intermediate results
ACCa2:      res    1
ACCa1:      res    1

```

```

ACCb:
ACCb4:      res    1
ACCb3:      res    1
ACCb2:      res    1
ACCb1:      res    1

```

```

ACCc:
ACCc4:      res    1
ACCc3:      res    1
ACCc2:      res    1
ACCc1:      res    1

```

```

bitcount    res 1

```

```

; ; Make these variables identifiable to calling code.

```

```

global ACCa, ACCa1, ACCa2, ACCa3, ACCa4
global ACCb, ACCb1, ACCb2, ACCb3, ACCb4
global ACCc, ACCc1, ACCc2, ACCc3, ACCc4

;;;
;;; Subroutines.
;;;
CODE ; Start the code section.

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name: ABS16
;;; Description: Computes the absolute value of a signed
;;; 16-bit value.
;;;
;;; |ACCa| —> ACCa
;;;
;;; Requires: Signed 16-bit value is in accumulator
;;; registers ACCa2 (high byte), and ACCa1
;;; (low byte)
;;; Returns: Result in ACCa2 and ACCa1 registers
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed
;;; *****
ABS16
    global ABS16

    btfss ACCa2,7 ; Test MSB (Sign) bit
    goto Positive
    ; 16 bit decrement
    movf ACCa1,F ; Test if zero
    skpnz
    decf ACCa2,F
    decf ACCa1,F

    btfss ACCa2,7 ; Test MSB (Sign) bit again
    ; This is for the 0x8000 (–32768)
    ; case, which will return 0x7FFF
    ; (+32767) which is the highest
    ; possible value

    goto Positive
    ; 16 bit 1's complement
    comf ACCa1,F
    comf ACCa2,F

Positive:
    return

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name: ADD32U
;;; Description: Adds two 32-bit unsigned values.
;;;
;;; ACCa + ACCb —> ACCb
;;;
;;; Note: Does not test for overflow.

```

```

;;;                               Subroutine by Regulus Berdin.
;;; Requires:                     Unsigned 32-bit values in accumulator
;;;                               registers ACCa[4:1] and ACCb[4:1]
;;; Returns:                      Result in ACCb[4:1] registers
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed
;;; *****
ADD32U:
    global    ADD32U

    movf      ACCa1,W
    addwf     ACCb1,F

    movf      ACCa2,W
    btfsc     STATUS,C
    incfsz    ACCa2,W
    addwf     ACCb2,F

    movf      ACCa3,W
    btfsc     STATUS,C
    incfsz    ACCa3,W
    addwf     ACCb3,F

    movf      ACCa4,W
    btfsc     STATUS,C
    incfsz    ACCa4,W
    addwf     ACCb4,F

    return

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    MUL16U
;;; Description:        Multiplies two 16-bit unsigned numbers and
;;;                     Stores the result as a 32-bit unsigned
;;;                     Number.
;;;
;;;                     ACCa * ACCb —> ACCc
;;;
;;;                     Note: Does not test for overflow.
;;;                     Subroutine by malin@onspec.co.uk
;;; Requires:           Unsigned 16-bit values in accumulator
;;;                     registers ACCa[2:1] and ACCb[2:1]
;;; Returns:            Result in ACCc[4:1] registers
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed
;;; *****
;;;                     malin@onspec.co.uk
;;;
;;; Program length 32 line
;;; time 129 to 228 cycles
;;;
;;; This program looks at the LSB of a1 to decide whether to
;;; add ACCb1 to ACCc2 and ACCb2 to ACCc3, with appropriate
;;; carries. It then looks at the LSB of ACCa2 to decide
;;; whether to add ACCb1 to ACCc3 and ACCb2 to ACCc4, again

```

```

;;;      with appropriate carries. The rotates then only have to be
;;;      done 8 times.
;;;
;;;      This is uses slightly more program but takes a little less
;;;      time than a routine that performs one 16 bit addition per
;;;      rotate and 16 rotates.
;;;
;;;      Multiple byte addition routine from Microchip AN617
;;;      Result registers used as loop counter from Bob Fehrenbach
;;;      and Scott Dattalo
;;;

```

MUL16U:

```

global  MUL16U

```

```

    clrf    ACCc4
    clrf    ACCc3
    clrf    ACCc2
    movlw   0x80
    movwf   ACCc1

```

nextbit:

```

    rrf     ACCa2,F
    rrf     ACCa1,F

    btfss   STATUS, C
    goto    nobit_l
    movf    ACCb1,W
    addwf   ACCc2,F

    movf    ACCb2, W
    btfsc   STATUS, C
    incfsz  ACCb2, W
    addwf   ACCc3, F
    btfsc   STATUS, C
    incf    ACCc4,F
    clrc

```

nobit\_l:

```

    btfss   ACCa1, 7
    goto    nobit_h
    movf    ACCb1,W
    addwf   ACCc3,F
    movf    ACCb2,W
    btfsc   STATUS, C
    incfsz  ACCb2,W
    addwf   ACCc4,F

```

nobit\_h:

```

    rrf     ACCc4,F
    rrf     ACCc3,F
    rrf     ACCc2,F
    rrf     ACCc1,F

```

```

    btfss    STATUS, C
    goto     nextbit

    return

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    DIV32U
;;; Description:       Divides two 32-bit unsigned numbers and
;;;                   Stores the result as a 32-bit unsigned
;;;                   Number.
;;;
;;;                   ACCa / ACCb —> ACCa; R —> ACCc
;;;
;;; Requires:          Unsigned 32-bit values in the following
;;;                   accumulator registers:
;;;                   Dividend:    ACCa[4:1]
;;;                   Divisor:     ACCb[4:1]
;;; Returns:            Unsigned 32-bit values in the following
;;;                   accumulator registers:
;;;                   Quotient:     ACCa[4:1]
;;;                   Remainder:    ACCc[4:1]
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed
;;; *****

```

DIV32U:

```

    global   DIV32U

    movlw    .32                ; 32-bit divide by 32-bit
    movwf    bitcount
    clrf     ACCc1              ; Clear remainder
    clrf     ACCc2
    clrf     ACCc3
    clrf     ACCc4

dvloop:
    clrc                     ; Set quotient bit to 0
    rlf      ACCa1,F           ; Shift left dividend and quotient
    rlf      ACCa2,F           ; LSB.
    rlf      ACCa3,F
    rlf      ACCa4,F           ; LSB into carry...
    rlf      ACCc1,F           ; ...and then into the partial
    rlf      ACCc2,F           ; remainder.
    rlf      ACCc3,F
    rlf      ACCc4,F

    skpnc                    ; Check for overflow.
    goto     subd
    movfw    ACCb4             ; Compare partial remainder and
    subwf    ACCc4,W           ; divisor.
    skpz
    goto     testgt            ; Not equal so test if remdrH is
                                ; greater.
    movfw    ACCb3             ; Compare partial remainder and

```

```

        subwf    ACCc3,W          ; divisor.
        skpz
        goto     testgt          ; Not equal so test if remdrH is
                                ; greater.
        movfw    ACCb2           ; Compare partial remainder and
        subwf    ACCc2,W          ; divisor.
        skpz
        goto     testgt          ; Not equal so test if remdrH is
                                ; greater.
        movfw    ACCb1           ; High bytes are equal, compare
        subwf    ACCc1,W          ; low bytes
testgt:
        skpc
        goto     remrlt          ; Carry set if remainder>=divisor

subd:
        movfw    ACCb1           ; Subtract divisor from partial
        subwf    ACCc1,F          ; remainder.
        skpc
                                ; Test for borrow

        decf     ACCc2,F          ; Subtract borrow
        movfw    ACCb2
        subwf    ACCc2,F
        skpc
                                ; Test for borrow

        decf     ACCc3,F          ; Subtract borrow
        movfw    ACCb3
        subwf    ACCc3,F
        skpc
                                ; Test for borrow

        decf     ACCc4,F          ; Subtract borrow
        movfw    ACCb4
        subwf    ACCc4,F
        bsf     ACCa1,0          ; Set quotient bit to 1.
                                ; Quotient replaces dividend which
                                ; is lost.
remrlt:
        decfsz   bitcount ,F
        goto     dvloop
        return

```

**END**

```

;;; *****
;;; Filename:      zanalyzer.asm
;;; Purpose:       Main program
;;; Revision:    0.0
;;; Date:        20 April, 2011
;;; Author:     D. Smetaniuk
;;; Copyright:  Public Domain
;;; *****
;;; Revision History:
;;;      0.0      20 April 2011 – DPS
;;;              Creation.
;;; *****

```

```

list                                ; Turn on list output.

```

```

; ; Include register, bit, and other info specific to
; ; the specified device.

```

```

ifdef    __16F873
#include <p16f873.inc>
messg "Assembling for PIC16F873."
endif
ifdef    __16F874
#include <p16f874.inc>
messg "Assembling for PIC16F874."
endif
ifdef    __16F876
#include <p16f876.inc>
messg "Assembling for PIC16F876."
endif
ifdef    __16F877
#include <p16f877.inc>
messg "Assembling for PIC16F877."
endif
ifdef    __16F873A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f873a.inc>
messg "Assembling for PIC16F873A."
endif
ifdef    __16F874A
#include <p16f874a.inc>
#define A_Device
messg "Assembling for PIC16F874A."
endif
ifdef    __16F876A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f876a.inc>
messg "Assembling for PIC16F876A."
endif
ifdef    __16F877A
#define A_Device
#include <p16f877a.inc>
messg "Assembling for PIC16F877A."
endif

```



```

;;; -----
;;; Included files (including library headers).
;;; -----

    #include "branches.h" ; Conditional branching macros
    #include "del_lib.h"  ; Delay routine headers.
    #include "dbus_lib.h" ; FIFO databus library headers
    #include "i2c_lib.h"  ; I2C library headers
    #include "ad5933.h"   ; AD5933 register definitions
    #include "math_lib.h"

;;; -----
;;; Assembler Equates Section. Define assembly-time constants here
;;; using the EQU assembler directive.
;;; -----
RESETVECTOR      EQU      0x000    ; Address of RESET vector.
INTERRUPTVECTOR  EQU      0x004    ; Address of peripheral interrupt
                                   ; vector.
CODESTART        EQU      0x008    ; Starting location of program
                                   ; code.

;; Port pin definitions

;; PORT A
PIN_A0           EQU      0
PIN_A1           EQU      1
PIN_A2           EQU      2
PIN_RA0          EQU      3
PIN_RA1          EQU      4
PIN_RA2          EQU      5
;; PORT B
PIN_RD           EQU      1
PIN_WR           EQU      2
PIN_RXF          EQU      4
;; PORT C
PIN_E_3V         EQU      0
PIN_E_LTRAN      EQU      1
PIN_MCLK         EQU      2
PIN_SCL          EQU      3
PIN_SDA          EQU      4
PIN_EN_B         EQU      5
PIN_EN_A         EQU      6
PIN_EN_R         EQU      7
;; PORT E
PIN_LED          EQU      0
PIN_TXE          EQU      2

;; FLAGS register bits
F_TIMER          EQU      0

```

*;; FREQ2 Register values for specific frequencies*

```
FREQLOW      EQU      0x01
FREQ1K       EQU      0x0A
FREQ10K      EQU      0x14
```

*;; For cycle time*

*;; 1500 counts = 2:30*

```
CHTIME_HI    EQU      0x05
CHTIME_LO    EQU      0xDC
```

*;; 3000 counts = 5:00*

```
SETLTIME_HI  EQU      0x0B
SETLTIME_LO  EQU      0xB8
```

*;;; -----*

*;;; Defines*

*;;; -----*

```
#define MAXTIME_MSB    0x10    ; ~5 Hz display cycle
```

*;; PORT A*

```
#define bitA0          PORTA, PIN_A0
#define bitA1          PORTA, PIN_A1
#define bitA2          PORTA, PIN_A2
#define bitRA0         PORTA, PIN_RA0
#define bitRA1         PORTA, PIN_RA1
#define bitRA2         PORTA, PIN_RA2
```

*;; PORT B*

```
#define bitRD          PORTB, PIN_RD
#define bitWR          PORTB, PIN_WR
#define bitRXF         PORTB, PIN_RXF
```

*;; PORT C*

```
#define bitE_3V        PORTC, PIN_E_3V
#define bitE_LTRAN     PORTC, PIN_E_LTRAN
#define bitMCLK         PORTC, PIN_MCLK
#define bitSCL          PORTC, PIN_SCL
#define bitSDA          PORTC, PIN_SDA
#define bitEN_B         PORTC, PIN_EN_B
#define bitEN_A         PORTC, PIN_EN_A
#define bitEN_R         PORTC, PIN_EN_R
```

*;; PORT D*

```
#define DBUS           PORTD
```

*;; PORT E*

```
#define bitLED         PORTE, PIN_LED
#define bitTXE         PORTE, PIN_TXE
```

```
#define __TIMER1_OFF   bcf      T1CON, TMR1ON
#define __TIMER1_ON    bsf      T1CON, TMR1ON
#define __LED_OFF      bsf      PORTE, PIN_LED
#define __LED_ON       bcf      PORTE, PIN_LED
```

```

#define __INT_ENABLE_CCP1      bsf    PIE1 ,CCP1IE
#define __INT_ENABLE_CCP2      bsf    PIE2 ,CCP2IE
#define __INT_ENABLE_TMR2      bsf    PIE1 ,TMR2IE
#define __INT_ENABLE_PERI      bsf INTCON,PEIE

#define __INT_DISABLE_CCP1     bcf    PIE1 ,CCP1IE
#define __INT_DISABLE_CCP2     bcf    PIE2 ,CCP2IE
#define __INT_DISABLE_TMR2     bcf    PIE1 ,TMR2IE
#define __INT_DISABLE_PERI     bcf INTCON,PEIE

; enable global interrupts
#define sei                     bsf    INTCON,GIE
; disable global interrupts
#define cli                     bcf    INTCON,GIE

;;; -----
;;; Macros
;;; -----

; This Macro Saves register contents
PUSH_MACRO macro
    movwf W_TEMP                ; Copy W to a Temporary Register
                                ; regardless of current bank
    swapf STATUS,W              ; Swap STATUS nibbles and place
                                ; into W register
    movwf STATUS_TEMP           ; Save STATUS to a Temporary
                                ; register in Bank0
    clrf STATUS
    endm                        ; End this Macro

; This Macro Restores register contents
POP_MACRO macro
    swapf STATUS_TEMP,W         ; Swap original STATUS register
                                ; value into W (restores original
                                ; bank)
    movwf STATUS                ; Restore STATUS register from
                                ; W register
    swapf W_TEMP,F              ; Swap W_Temp nibbles and return
                                ; value to W_Temp
    swapf W_TEMP,W              ; Swap W_Temp to W to restore
                                ; original W value without
                                ; affecting STATUS
    ENDM                        ; End this Macro

mov32 macro src , dest
    movf    src ,W
    movwf   dest
    movf    src+1,W
    movwf   dest+1
    movf    src+2,W
    movwf   dest+2
    movf    src+3,W
    movwf   dest+3

```

```

    endm

movl6 macro src , dest
    movf    src ,W
    movwf   dest
    movf    src+1,W
    movwf   dest+1

    endm

;; Sets the PWM output to 819.2 Hz
;; Can't do 819.2 Hz with PWM. Need to use TMR2 and a counter
;; register
__PWM_800 macro
    banksel PR2
    movlw   0x7C
    movwf   PR2
    banksel CCP1CON
    movlw   b'00100101'
    movwf   T2CON
    movlw   b'00000000'
    movwf   CCP1CON
    endm
    ; Set up TMR2 with 1:4
    ; prescale, 1:5 postscale,
    ; turn on.
    ; CCP1 disabled

;; Sets the PWM output to 8.192 kHz
__PWM_8K macro
    banksel PR2
    movlw   0x7C      ;0x7D
    movwf   PR2
    banksel CCP1CON
    movlw   0x3E
    movwf   CCPR1L
    movlw   b'00000101'
    movwf   T2CON
    movlw   b'00101100'
    movwf   CCP1CON
    endm
    ; Set up TMR2 with 1:4
    ; prescale, turn on.
    ; Set up CCP1 for PWM

;; Sets the PWM output to 81.92 kHz
__PWM_80K macro
    banksel PR2
    movlw   0x31
    movwf   PR2
    banksel CCP1CON
    movlw   0x19
    movwf   CCPR1L
    movlw   b'00000100'
    movwf   T2CON
    movlw   b'00001100'
    movwf   CCP1CON
    endm
    ; Set up TMR2 with 1:1
    ; prescale, turn on
    ; Set up CCP1 for PWM

;; Sets the PWM output to 819.2 kHz
__PWM_800K macro

```

```

        banksel PR2
        movlw 0x04
        movwf PR2
        banksel CCP1CON
        movlw 0x02
        movwf CCPR1L
        movlw b'00000100'      ; Set up TMR2 with 1:1
        movwf T2CON            ; prescale, turn on
        movlw b'00101100'
        movwf CCP1CON          ; Set up CCP1 for PWM
    endm

;; Sets the PWM output to 4.096 MHz
__PWM_4M macro
    banksel PR2
    clrf PR2
    banksel CCP1CON
    clrf CCPR1L
    movlw b'00000100'      ; Set up TMR2 with 1:1
    movwf T2CON            ; prescale, turn on
    movlw b'00101100'
    movwf CCP1CON          ; Set up CCP1 for PWM
endm

;;; -----
;;; Variable Address Assignments.
;;; -----

        UDATA                ; Start of uninitialized data
                                ; section. Reserve memory for
                                ; variables using the "RES"
                                ; directive here. Note that the
                                ; linker will assign addresses.

W_TEMP      RES      1      ; Temp storage for W register
STATUS_TEMP RES      1      ; Temp storage for STATUS register
FLAGS       RES      1
TICKCNT     RES      1
CHANNELS    RES      1
COUNTER     RES      1
HIGH_CHAR   RES      1
LOW_CHAR    RES      1
TIME_HI     RES      1
TIME_LO     RES      1
TIMEB_HI    RES      1
TIMEB_LO    RES      1
RRANGE      RES      1
FREQVAL     RES      1
FREQINC     RES      1
FREQCNT     RES      1
TEMPA       RES      4
TEMPB       RES      4
ZDATA_A     RES      2
REAL_A      RES      2

```

```

IMAG_A      RES      2
ZDATA_B
REAL_B      RES      2
IMAG_B      RES      2

```

```

;;; -----
;;; Establish the OPTION register bit values.
;;; -----
;;; The '__CONFIG' directive is used to embed PIC configuration
;;; data within an assembly file. The labels following the
;;; directive are located in the .inc file. See the device data
;;; sheet for additional information on the configuration word.
ifndef A_Device
    __CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _BODEN_OFF & _PWRTE_ON &
        _HS_OSC & _WRT_ENABLE_ON & _LVP_ON & _CPD_OFF
endif
;;; _CP_OFF:      turn off code protection. Don't change this
;;;              unless you want a device that can never be
;;;              programmed again. This is a "bug" in some PIC
;;;              devices.
;;; _WDT_OFF:      turn off the watchdog timer.
;;; _BODEN_ON:      turn on power brown-out reset.
;;; _PWRTE_ON:      turn on power-up timer.
;;; _XT_OSC:        specify that the device is using an XT oscillator.
;;; _WRT_ENABLE_ON: enable writing to data EEPROM.
;;; _LVP_OFF:        disable low-voltage in-circuit programming.
;;; _CPD_OFF:        disable data EEPROM write protection.

ifndef A_Device
    messg "A_revision_device."
    __CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _BODEN_OFF & _PWRTE_ON &
        _HS_OSC & _WRT_OFF & _LVP_ON & _CPD_OFF
endif

;;; _CP_OFF:      turn off code protection. Don't change this
;;;              unless you want a device that can never be
;;;              programmed again. This is a "bug" in some PIC
;;;              devices.
;;; _WDT_OFF:      turn off the watchdog timer.
;;; _BODEN_ON:      turn on power brown-out reset.
;;; _PWRTE_ON:      turn on power-up timer.
;;; _XT_OSC:        specify that the device is using an XT oscillator.
;;; _WRT_OFF:        disable write-protection of program FLASH.
;;; _LVP_OFF:        disable low-voltage in-circuit programming.
;;; _CPD_OFF:        disable data EEPROM write protection.

;;; -----
;;; Main Program.
;;; -----

CODE                                ; Start of code section.

Main:
Init:

```

```

        bcf      STATUS, RP0                ; Select Bank 0.
        clrf     PORTA
        clrf     PORTB
        bsf      bitRD                      ; RD = HIGH
        movlw    b'00011110'
        movwf    PORTC
        clrf     PORTD
        clrf     PORTE
        clrf     FLAGS

Inputs :
        bsf      STATUS, RP0                ; Select Bank 1.
        movlw    b'00000110'                ; Configure PORTA as
        movwf    ADCON1                     ; digital I/O.
        clrf     TRISA
        clrf     TRISB
        bsf      TRISB, PIN_RXF              ; RXF = Input.
        clrf     TRISC
        movlw    0xFF
        movwf    TRISD                      ; DBUS Port = Input.
        clrf     TRISE                      ; RE PORT output.
        bsf      TRISE, PIN_TXE              ; TXE = Input.

Interrupts :
        __INT_ENABLE CCP2
        bcf      STATUS, RP0                ; Select Bank 0.
        __INT_ENABLE PERI                  ; Enable peripheral ints.

Peripherals :
        call     I2C_Init
        __LED_OFF
        __TIMER1_OFF
        clrf     TIME_HI                    ; Setup CCP2 for an
        clrf     TIME_LO                    ; interrupt every 100 ms.
        clrf     TMR1H                      ; This is used to time the
        clrf     TMR1L                      ; settle and measurement
        movlw    0xC8                      ; cycle.
        movwf    CCPR2H
        movlw    0x00
        movwf    CCPR2L
        movlw    b'00001011'
        movwf    CCP2CON
        movlw    b'00110000'                ; Set 1:8 prescale value
        movwf    T1CON                     ; for Timer 1.
        call     DBUS_Init

        call     DBUS_RxByte                ; Wait until a key is
                                           ; pressed.

        banksel PTRLOW                    ; Establish a pointer to
        movlw    low Sline1                ; the NULL-terminated
        movwf    PTRLOW                    ; string.
        movlw    high Sline1
        movwf    PTRHIGH
        call     DBUS_TxStringK

```

```

call    InitChannels

clrf    RRANGE
clrf    COUNTER

banksel PTRLOW                    ; Prompt user to press
movlw    low Sline4              ; a key.
movwf    PTRLOW
movlw    high Sline4
movwf    PTRHIGH
call     DBUS_TxStringK
call     DBUS_RxByte              ; Wait until a key is
                                   ; pressed.

__TIMER1_ON
sei
__LED_ON

MainLoop:
    movlw    SETLTIME_HI            ; Load settle time.
    movwf    TIME_HI
    movlw    SETLTIME_LO
    movwf    TIME_LO

Wait1:
                                   ; Wait for RH settle time
                                   ; (5 mins).
    btfss    FLAGS,F_TIMER
    goto     Wait1
    bcf     FLAGS,F_TIMER

    movl6    TIMEB_HI, TIME_HI      ; Load known delay time to
                                   ; allow measurements for
                                   ; each channel.

MeasureNext:
    btfss    CHANNELS,0            ; Test if channel present.
    goto     IncChannel

    banksel PTRLOW                    ; Establish a pointer to
    movlw    low Sline3              ; the NULL-terminated
    movwf    PTRLOW                  ; string.
    movlw    high Sline3
    movwf    PTRHIGH
    call     DBUS_TxStringK
    movlw    0x31                    ; Convert channel # to
    addwf    COUNTER,W                ; ASCII (and add 1).
    call     DBUS_TxByte              ; Print ASCII char.
    movlw    ", "
    call     DBUS_TxByte

    movlw    0xF8                    ; Mask for channel address
    andwf    PORTA,W                  ; bits on PORTA.
    iorwf    COUNTER,W
    movwf    PORTA

```



```

cli
__PWM_800                                ; Set clock to 819.2 Hz
                                           ; for 0.1–0.9 Hz sweep.
bsf    STATUS, RP0                       ; Select Bank 1
__INT_ENABLE_TMR2
bcf    STATUS, RP0                       ; Select Bank 0
sei

movlw   SFREQ2                            ; Start freq register 2
movwf   I2C_REG
movlw   FREQLOW
movwf   I2C_DAT
call    I2C_Write                        ; Change start frequency

call    Measure

cli
bsf    STATUS, RP0                       ; Select Bank 1
__INT_DISABLE_TMR2
bcf    STATUS, RP0                       ; Select Bank 0
sei

__PWM_8K                                  ; Set clock to 8.192 kHz
movlw   FREQLOW                           ; for 1–9 Hz sweep.
movwf   FREQVAL
movwf   FREQINC
movlw   .9
movwf   FREQCNT
call    FSweep

__PWM_80K                                 ; Set clock to 81.92 kHz
movlw   FREQLOW                           ; for 10–90 Hz sweep.
movwf   FREQVAL
movwf   FREQINC
movlw   .9
movwf   FREQCNT
call    FSweep

__PWM_800K                               ; Set clock to 819.2 kHz
movlw   FREQLOW                           ; for 100–900 Hz sweep.
movwf   FREQVAL
movwf   FREQINC
movlw   .9
movwf   FREQCNT
call    FSweep

movlw   FREQ1K                            ; And now 1–9 kHz sweep.
movwf   FREQVAL
movwf   FREQINC
movlw   .9
movwf   FREQCNT
call    FSweep

__PWM_4M                                  ; Set clock to 4.096 MHz

```

```

        movlw    FREQ10K                ; for 10–100 kHz sweep.
        movwf    FREQVAL
        movwf    FREQINC
        movlw    .10
        movwf    FREQCNT
        call     FSweep

        movlw    "\r"
        call     DBUS_TxByte
        movlw    "\n"
        call     DBUS_TxByte

IncChannel :
        clrc
        rrf      CHANNELS, F
        skpnc
        bsf      CHANNELS, 7            ; Rotate carry into bit 7
        incf     COUNTER, F
        movlw    0x08
        subwf    COUNTER, W
        skpnz
        goto     MeasureDone
        goto     MeasureNext

MeasureDone :
        clrf     COUNTER

Wait2 :
        btfss    FLAGS, F_TIMER
        goto     Wait2
        bcf      FLAGS, F_TIMER

        goto     MainLoop
;;; Note that execution of the main program never gets past here!

;;; -----
;;; Application-specific Subroutines.
;;; -----

PrintHex :
        movwf    LOW_CHAR                ; Mask off lower and upper
        movwf    HIGH_CHAR               ; nibbles and put in
        swapf    HIGH_CHAR, F            ; registers.
        movlw    0x0F
        andwf    LOW_CHAR, F
        andwf    HIGH_CHAR, F

        movf     LOW_CHAR, W              ; Check to see if the
        lower
        bcf      STATUS, C                ; character is a number or
        sublw    0x09                     ; alpha and convert.
        movlw    0x30
        btfss    STATUS, C

```

```

        movlw    0x37

        addwf    LOW_CHAR,F

        movf     HIGH_CHAR,W           ; Check to see if the high
        bcf      STATUS,C              ; character is a number or
        sublw    0x09                  ; alpha and convert.
        movlw    0x30
        btfss    STATUS,C
        movlw    0x37

        addwf    HIGH_CHAR,F

        movf     HIGH_CHAR,W           ; Print ASCII chars
        call     DBUS_TxByte
        movf     LOW_CHAR,W
        call     DBUS_TxByte

        return

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    InitChannels
;;; Description:        This subroutine scans through all 8
;;;                     channels , identifying which ones are
;;;                     present and initializes the register
;;;                     values on the AD5933's
;;; Requires:           None
;;; Returns:            NULL
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed
;;; *****
InitChannels:
        clrf     CHANNELS
        clrf     COUNTER
        clrf     TIMEB_HI
        clrf     TIMEB_LO

        movlw    (ADDR5933<<1)       ; AD5933 serial bus
                                         ; address. The LSB is the
        movwf    I2C_ADDR              ; W/R bit , hence the shift

ThisChannel:
        banksel  I2C_PTRLOW
        movlw    low Init5933
        movwf    I2C_PTRLOW
        movlw    high Init5933
        movwf    I2C_PTRHIGH

        movlw    ADRPTR                ; Address pointer code.
        movwf    I2C_REG
        movlw    CTRLH                 ; Control register HIGH.
        movwf    I2C_DAT
        call     I2C_Write              ; Write to address pointer
        call     I2C_BlockWrite         ; Initialize all R/W
                                         ; registers (via table).

```

```

movlw    ADRPTR                ; Address pointer code
movwf    I2C_REG
movlw    CTRL                  ; Status register
movwf    I2C_DAT
call    I2C_Write              ; Write to address pointer
call    I2C_Read              ; Read register value back
movf     I2C_DAT,W             ; to see if there is a
sublw    0x08                  ; device on the channel.
skpz
    goto  Next
bsf     CHANNELS,0            ; If found, set bit to
                                ; indicate channel present

banksel  PTRLOW                ; Establish a pointer to
movlw    low Sline2           ; the NULL-terminated
movwf    PTRLOW                ; string.
movlw    high Sline2
movwf    PTRHIGH
call    DBUS_TxStringK        ; Write line
movlw    0x31                  ; Convert channel # to
addwf    COUNTER,W             ; ASCII (and add 1).
call    DBUS_TxByte           ; Print ASCII character.
movlw    "\r"                  ; Print Newline.
call    DBUS_TxByte
movlw    "\n"
call    DBUS_TxByte

movlw    CHTIME_LO             ; Increase delay time
addwf    TIMEB_LO,F            ; (TIMEB) by another
skpnc                                         ; channel (CHTIME).
    incf    TIMEB_HI,F         ; Note: does not check for
movlw    CHTIME_HI            ; overflow.
addwf    TIMEB_HI,F

Next:
    clrc
    rrf     CHANNELS,F
    skpnc
    bsf     CHANNELS,7         ; Rotate carry into bit 7
    incf    COUNTER,F
    movlw    0x08
    subwf    COUNTER,W
    skpnz
    goto     ChannelsDone
    movlw    0xF8               ; Mask for channel address
    andwf    PORTA,W           ; bits on PORTA.
    iorwf    COUNTER,W         ; Set channel address bits
    movwf    PORTA             ; on PORTA.
    goto     ThisChannel
ChannelsDone:
    clrf     COUNTER
    clrf     PORTA

return

```

```

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:      SetRange
;;; Description:         Sets the proper range resistor based on a
;;;                     measured impedance value
;;; Requires:            Measured values in REAL_A, REAL_B, IMAG_A,
;;;                     IMAG_B
;;; Returns:             NULL
;;; Locations Affected:  W is destroyed, uses I2C_REG, I2C_DAT
;;; *****

```

SetRange:

```

                                ; Uu
                                ; Square Real.
    mov16    REAL_B, ACCa2
    call     ABS16
    mov16    ACCa2, ACCb2
    call     MUL16U
    mov32    ACCc4, TEMPB
    mov16    IMAG_B, ACCa2                ; Square Imag.
    call     ABS16
    mov16    ACCa2, ACCb2
    call     MUL16U
    mov32    TEMPB, ACCa4                ; Add both squares.
    mov32    ACCc4, ACCb4
    call     ADD32U
    mov32    ACCb4, TEMPB

                                ; Ui
                                ; Square Real.
    mov16    REAL_A, ACCa2
    call     ABS16
    mov16    ACCa2, ACCb2
    call     MUL16U
    mov32    ACCc4, TEMPB
    mov16    IMAG_A, ACCa2                ; Square Imag.
    call     ABS16
    mov16    ACCa2, ACCb2
    call     MUL16U
    mov32    TEMPB, ACCa4                ; Add both squares.
    mov32    ACCc4, ACCb4
    call     ADD32U
    mov32    TEMPB, ACCa4
    call     DIV32U

```

ChkByte4:

```

    movf     ACCa4, W                ; Test if zero
    skpnz
    goto     ChkByte3
    sublw    0x06
    skpc
    goto     FoundR4
    goto     FoundR3

```

ChkByte3:

```

    movf     ACCa3, W                ; Test if zero
    skpnz
    goto     ChkByte2

```

```

        sublw    0x0F
        skpc
        goto    FoundR3
        skpz
        goto    FoundR2
        movf    ACCa2,W
        sublw    0x42
        skpc
        goto    FoundR3
        skpz
        goto    FoundR2
        movf    ACCa1,W
        sublw    0x39
        skpc
        goto    FoundR3
        goto    FoundR2
ChkByte2:
        movf    ACCa2,W                ; Test if zero
        skpnz
        goto    ChkByte1
        sublw    0x27
        skpc
        goto    FoundR2
        skpz
        goto    FoundR1
        movf    ACCa1,W
        sublw    0x09
        skpc
        goto    FoundR2
        goto    FoundR1
ChkByte1:
        movf    ACCa1,W
        sublw    0x63
        skpc
        goto    FoundR1
FoundR0:
        movlw    0x00
        goto    Found
FoundR1:
        movlw    0x08
        goto    Found
FoundR2:
        movlw    0x10
        goto    Found
FoundR3:
        movlw    0x18
        goto    Found
FoundR4:
        movlw    0x20
Found:
        movwf    RRANGE

        movlw    0xC7                ; Mask for range resistor
        andwf    PORTA,W            ; bits on PORTA.

```

```

iorwf    RRANGE,W
movwf    PORTA                                ; Set range resistor bits
                                              ; on PORTA

return

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    ReadImpedance
;;; Description:       Reads values stored in the AD5933 memory
;;;                   via I2C bus
;;; Requires:
;;; Returns:           NULL
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed, uses I2C_REG, I2C_DAT
;;; *****
ReadImpedance:
    bsf    bitEN_B                            ; disable I2C for module B
WaitA:
    movlw  ADRPTR                            ; Address pointer code
    movwf  I2C_REG
    movlw  STAT                             ; Status register
    movwf  I2C_DAT
    cli
    call   I2C_Write                         ; Write to address pointer
    call   I2C_Read
    sei
    btfss  I2C_DAT,1
    goto   WaitA

    movlw  REALH
    movwf  I2C_DAT
    call   I2C_Write                         ; Change address pointer
    movlw  low ZDATA_A
    movwf  FSR
    movlw  .4

    cli
    call   I2C_BlockRead
    sei

    bcf    bitEN_B                            ; enable I2C for module B
    bsf    bitEN_A                            ; disable I2C for module A

WaitB:
    movlw  ADRPTR                            ; Address pointer code
    movwf  I2C_REG
    movlw  STAT                             ; Status register
    movwf  I2C_DAT
    cli
    call   I2C_Write                         ; Write to address pointer
    call   I2C_Read
    sei
    btfss  I2C_DAT,1
    goto   WaitB

```

```

    movlw    REALH
    movwf    I2C_DAT
    call     I2C_Write                ; Change address pointer
    movlw    low ZDATA_B
    movwf    FSR
    movlw    .4

    cli
    call     I2C_BlockRead
    sei

    bcf      bitEN_A                  ; enable I2C for module A

    return

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    Measure
;;; Description:        Performs an impedance measurement
;;; Requires:
;;; Returns:            NULL
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed, modifies ZDATA_A, ZDATA_B,
;;;                     uses I2C_REG, I2C_DAT
;;; *****
Measure:

                                ; Reset to make sure both
                                ; AD5933's are sync'd
                                ; Low control register.
    movlw    CTRLH
    movwf    I2C_REG
    movlw    0x18
    movwf    I2C_DAT                ; Reset.
    call     I2C_Write
    movlw    CTRLH                  ; High control register.
    movwf    I2C_REG
    movlw    0x17                    ; Initialize with start
    movwf    I2C_DAT                ; frequency.
    call     I2C_Write

    movlw    .50                    ; Delay 100 ms to let
    call     DELAY_Wx10ms            ; things settle.

    movlw    0x27                    ; Start frequency sweep.
    movwf    I2C_DAT
    call     I2C_Write

    movlw    .1                      ; Delay 10 ms
    call     DELAY_Wx10ms

    call     ReadImpedance
    call     SetRange                ; Set range resistor.

                                ; Reset to make sure both
                                ; AD5933's are sync'd

```



```

movlw    CTRLH                ; Low control register.
movwf    I2C_REG
movlw    0x18
movwf    I2C_DAT              ; Reset.
call    I2C_Write
movlw    CTRLH                ; High control register.
movwf    I2C_REG
movlw    0x17                ; Initialize with start
movwf    I2C_DAT              ; frequency.
call    I2C_Write

movlw    .100                 ; Delay 2s to let things
call    DELAY_Wx10ms         ; settle.

movlw    0x27                 ; Start frequency sweep.
movwf    I2C_DAT
call    I2C_Write

movlw    .1
call    DELAY_Wx10ms         ; Delay 10 ms.

call    ReadImpedance

movlw    CTRLH                ; Low control register.
movwf    I2C_REG
movlw    0x18
movwf    I2C_DAT              ; Reset.
call    I2C_Write

movlw    0xC7                 ; Mask for range resistor
andwf    PORTA,W              ; bits on PORTA.
movwf    PORTA                ; Set range resistor to 0.

movf     ZDATA_A,W
call    PrintHex
movf     ZDATA_A + 1,W
call    PrintHex
movlw    ", "
call    DBUS_TxByte
movf     ZDATA_A + 2,W
call    PrintHex
movf     ZDATA_A + 3,W
call    PrintHex
movlw    ", "
call    DBUS_TxByte
movf     ZDATA_B,W
call    PrintHex
movf     ZDATA_B + 1,W
call    PrintHex
movlw    ", "
call    DBUS_TxByte
movf     ZDATA_B + 2,W
call    PrintHex
movf     ZDATA_B + 3,W

```

```

    call    PrintHex
    movlw   ", "
    call    DBUS_TxByte

    rrf     RRANGE, F
    rrf     RRANGE, F
    rrf     RRANGE, F
    movlw   0x30                      ; Convert range to ASCII
    addwfb  RRANGE, W
    call    DBUS_TxByte                ; Print ASCII char
    movlw   ", "
    call    DBUS_TxByte

    return

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    FSweep
;;; Description:       Sweeps through a series of frequencies on
;;;                   the AD5933, calling Measure to perform an
;;;                   impedance measurement at each.
;;; Requires:          - Starting frequency register value in
;;;                   FREQVAL.
;;;                   - Frequency value increment in FREQINC
;;;                   - Number of frequencies to sweep in FREQCNT
;;; Returns:           NULL
;;; Locations Affected: W is destroyed, uses I2C_REG, I2C_DAT
;;; *****
FSweep:
    movlw   SFREQ2                      ; Start freq register 2
    movwfb  I2C_REG
    movf    FREQVAL, W
    movwfb  I2C_DAT
    cli                                           ; Change start frequency
    call    I2C_Write                         ; on AD5933.
    sei

    call    Measure

    movf    FREQINC, W                      ; Increment FREQVAL
    addwfb  FREQVAL, F                      ; by FREQVAL.
    decfsz  FREQCNT, F
    goto    FSweep

    return

;;; -----
;;; Interrupt Service Routines
;;; -----
;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    IntISR
;;; Description:       General interrupt ISR. The interrupt
;;;                   vector jumps to this subroutine. It polls

```

```

;;;                                     the interrupt flag bits and calls the
;;;                                     appropriate subroutine.
;;; Requires:                          Nothing
;;; Returns:                           RETFIE — restores program counter
;;; Locations Affected: W_TEMP, STATUS_TEMP
;;; *****
IntISR:
    PUSH.MACRO                                ; Saves W and STATUS
                                           ; registers.
    btfsc   PIR1, TMR2IF
        call   Timer2ISR                    ; Service Timer2.
    btfsc   PIR2, CCP2IF
        call   CompareISR                  ; Service CCP2 compare
                                           ; match on TMR1.
    POP.MACRO                                ; Restores W and STATUS
                                           ; registers.
    retfie

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    Timer2ISR
;;; Description:        Handles TMR2 match with PR2.
;;;                     PIN_MCLK is toggled on PORTC to generate
;;;                     a squarewave output.
;;; Requires:
;;; Returns:            NULL
;;; Locations Affected: PORTC, PIN_MCLK, clears TMR2IF
;;; *****
Timer2ISR:
    banksel PORTC
    movlw   (1<<PIN_MCLK)                  ; Toggle PIN_MCLK
    xorwf   PORTC,F                        ; (flip bit).
    bcf     PIR1, TMR2IF                    ; Clear TMR2IF interrupt
                                           ; flag.
    return

;;; *****
;;; Subroutine Name:    CompareISR
;;; Description:        Handles CCP compare match on TMR1.
;;;                     [TIME_HI:TIME_LO] is decremented. F_TIMER
;;;                     bit in FLAGS register is asserted if zero.
;;; Requires:
;;; Returns:            NULL
;;; Locations Affected: TIME_HI, TIME_LO, FLAGS, clears CCP2IF
;;; *****
CompareISR:
    bcf     STATUS, RP0                    ; Select Bank 0.
    movf    TIME_LO,F                      ; Test if zero.
    skpnz
        decf   TIME_HI,F
        decfsz TIME_LO,F
        goto   ClearInt
    movf    TIME_HI,F
    skpnz

```

```

        bsf      FLAGS,F.TIMER          ; Assert flag if zero
ClearInt:
        bcf      PIR2, CCP2IF           ; clear CCP2IF interrupt
                                           ; flag
        return

;;; -----
;;; Code-section Constant Data.
;;; This data will appear in the PIC's code space.
;;; -----
Sline1: dt      "\fZ-Analyzer\v0.1\r\n",0
Sline2: dt      "Found_Channel_",0
Sline3: dt      "Channel_",0
Sline4: dt      "\r\nPress_any_key_to_start\r\n",0

Init5933:                                           ; Table of initialization
                                           ; values for AD5933
                                           ; registers.

        dt      .12
        dt      0xB3                        ; CTRLH: Standby mode,
                                           ; 1.0 Vp-p.
        dt      0x18                        ; CTRL: use external
                                           ; clock, reset.
        dt      0x00,0x00,0x00              ; Start frequency.
        dt      0x00,0x00,0x00              ; Frequency increment.
        dt      0x00,0x00                  ; Number of increments.
        dt      0x00,0x00                  ; Number of settling
                                           ; cycles.

;;; -----
;;; Vectors Section.
;;; -----
Reset:  CODE    0x000                        ; Establish the reset
                                           ; vector.
        pagesel Main                        ; Selects proper page in
                                           ; memory for main program.
        goto    Main                        ; Goes to the actual
                                           ; program.

IntServeRoutine: CODE    0x004              ; Establish the ISR
        goto    IntISR                      ; Jump to the general
                                           ; interrupt ISR.

END                                           ; End of file.

```