Maximum Peak Power Tracker:

A Solar Application

A Major Qualifying Project Report

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By

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Abstract

The design and implementation of a Maximum Peak Power Tracking system for a photovoltaic array using boost DC-DC converter topology is proposed. Using a closed-loop microprocessor control system, voltage and current are continuously monitored to determine the instantaneous power. Based on the power level calculated, an output pulse width modulation signal is used to continuously adjust the duty cycle of the converter to extract maximum power. Using a Thevenin power source as well as a solar panel simulator, system design testing confirms simulation of expected results and theoretical operation is obtained.

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1.0 Introduction

The development of renewable energy has been an increasingly critical

topic in the 21st century with the growing problem of global warming and

other environmental issues. With greater research, alternative renewable

sources such as wind, water, geothermal and solar energy have become increasingly important for electric power generation. Although photovoltaic cells are certainly nothing new, their use has become more common, practical, and useful for people worldwide.

The most important aspect of a solar cell is that it generates solar energy directly to electrical energy through the solar photovoltaic module, made up of silicon cells. Although each cell outputs a relatively low voltage (approx. 0.7V under open circuit condition), if many are connected in series, a solar photovoltaic module is formed. In a typical module, there can be up to 36 solar cells, producing an open circuit voltage of about 20V[1]. Although the price for such cells is decreasing, making use of a solar cell module still requires substantial financial investment. Thus, to make a PV module useful, it is necessary to extract as much energy as possible from such a system.

A PV module is used efficiently only when it operates at its optimum operating point. Unfortunately, the performance of any given solar cell depends on several variables. At any moment the operating point of a PV module depends on varying insolation levels, sun direction, irradiance, temperature, as well as the load of the system. The amount of power that can be extracted from a PV array also depends on the operating voltage of that array. As we will observe, a PV's maximum power point (MPP) will be specified by its voltage-current (V-I) and voltage-power (V-P) characteristic curves. Solar cells have relatively low efficiency ratings; thus, operating at the MPP is desired because it is at this point that the array will operate at the

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[1] Bogus, Klaus and Markvart, Tomas. Solar Electricity. Chichester, New York.Wiley Press, 1994.

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highest efficiency. With constantly changing atmospheric conditions and load variables, it is very difficult to utilize all of the solar energy available without a controlled system. For the best performance, it becomes necessary to force the system to operate at its optimum power point. The solution for such a problem is a Maximum Peak Power Tracking system (MPPT).

A MPPT is normally operated with the use of a dc-dc converter (step up or step down). The DC/DC converter is responsible for transferring maximum power from the solar PV module to the load. The simplest way of implementing an MPPT is to operate a PV array under constant voltage and power reference to modify the duty cycle of the dc-dc converter. This will keep operation constant at or around the maximum peak power point.

There have been many different solutions presented for methods of peak power tracking. Our goal is to develop such a system with the purpose of obtaining as much energy from a solar cell as possible. Our secondary goal will be to create such a system that operates with optimum efficiency as well. Implementing such a design will be useful in the future because solar cell use is limited greatly by efficiency limitations and cost factors. If manufacturers took advantage of MPPT systems, it is without a doubt that solar cells will become more commonly used.

We will focus on a specific solution to the problem of peak power tracking and present it in full in this report. It will be important to first learn as much as possible about the operation of solar cells. From there, we will discuss the methodology of the design, the selection of what components to implement, system design and testing, and finally, the results of our project.

There are a variety of different options and applications available for our goal. The challenge lies in designing a system with maximum efficiency that will quickly and constantly monitor and change the operation of the system to obtain the optimum performance from a solar cell.

2.0 Background

Most solar cells are made of semiconducting multicrystalline silicon cells, which currently have efficiencies of 10 to 15%[2]. Even at these ratings, according to the Encyclopedia of Energy, it would take solar modules covering an area equivalent to just 0.25% of the global area under crops and permanent pasture to meet all the world's primary energy requirements, when most or all of such area would otherwise be unused land[3]. It is numbers like these that demonstrate the importance and potential that solar cells have in becoming one of the most important sources of energy used around the world. This also demonstrates the problem with the use and production of solar cells, limited by low efficiency and high costs.

Despite the limitations, market surveys show that solar cell production is growing rapidly. With the turn of the century, some companies such as Sharp, BP Solar, and Kyocera have nearly doubled their production values[4].

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[2] LGBG Technology "Towards 20% Efficient Silicon Solar Cells." 02 Oct 2005.
[3] Aldous, Scott. "How Silicon in Solar Cells Works." How Stuff Works. 02 Oct 2005.
[4] Neville, Richard C. Solar Energy Conversion. The Netherlands: Elsevier Science, 1995.
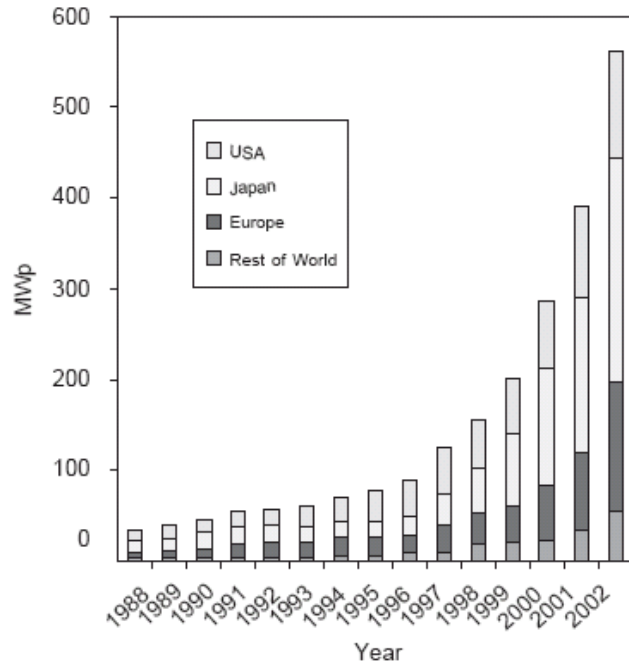
Figure 1: World Solar Cell production from 1988-2002 for the three leading production regions and the rest of the world
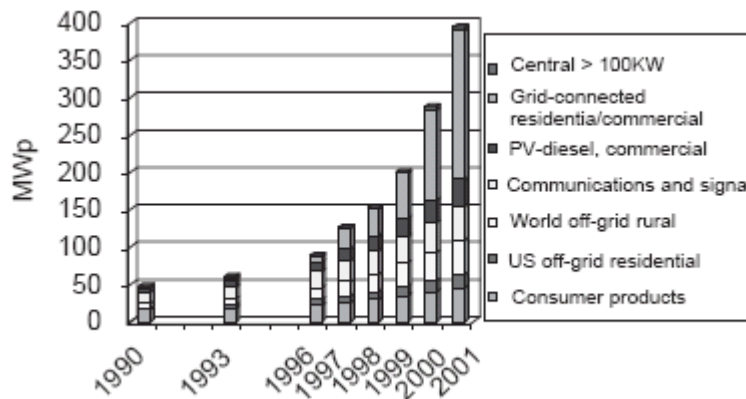
Figure 2: World PV market by application from 1990-2001

PV modules are also being applied for a greater variety of different purposes. Although they have not yet broken into the consumer market, as we can see from figure, the use of PV modules is clearly becoming more successful. Solar cell array efficiency has always been an important factor for product selection. However, for most potential users, the capital cost, and the

cost of the resultant electricity are much more useful measures on which to base decisions about buying a solar cell. Thus, solar cells that are less efficient, but cheaper per unit area are able to compete in the market.

Solar cells are being valued as a source of energy, but they are also favored for their beneficial effect on the environment. To put this aspect into perspective, consider the carbon dioxide emissions during the operation of other methods of energy production. For example, assuming that U.S. energy generation causes 160 g carbon equivalent of CO_2 per kilowatt-hour of electricity, then a 1-kW PV array in an average U.S. location would produce approximately 1600kWh each year and 48,000kWh in 30 years. This array would avoid approximately (48,000 x 0.95) x 160g/kWh, or approximately 7 metric tons of carbon equivalent during its useful life[5]. A global implementation of solar cell arrays could very well be the solution to many environmental problems. The value of PV arrays is irrefutable, and clearly on the rise. The use of efficiency boosting systems like MPPTs provide a very promising future for solar cell use and the key to success is in understanding how solar cells work.

2.1 How Solar Cells Work

Solar cells produce energy by performing two basic tasks: (1) absorption of light energy to create free charge carriers within a material and (2) the separation of the negative and positive charge carriers in order to produce electric current that flows in one direction across terminals that have a voltage difference. Solar cells perform these tasks with their

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[5] Sayigh, A.A.M., ed. Solar Energy Engineering. New York, USA: Academic Press, 1977.

semiconducting materials. The separation function is typically achieved through a p-n junction. Solar cell regions are made up of materials that have been "doped" with different impurities. This creates an excess of free electrons (n-type) on one side of the junction, and a lack of free electrons (p-type) on the other. This behavior creates an electrostatic field with moving electrons and a solar cell is essentially, a large-area diode[6].

Figure 3 describes the overall process of solar energy conversion. First, photons enter the cell throughout the surface of the array. The photon is absorbed and its energy is transferred to an electron in the semiconductor. This frees the electron from its parent atom, and leaves behind a positively charged vacancy, otherwise known as a "hole." The movement of electrons and holes with the cell responds to the electric field or by diffusion to areas where electrons are less concentrated. Due to a strong electric field, electron-hole pairs generated near the junction are split apart. Minority carriers (electrons in p-type material and holes in n-type), are swept across the junction and become majority carriers. It is this crossing that occurs by the individual carriers that contributes to the cell's output current. Finally, metal contacts on the cell allow connection of the generated current to a load.

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[6] Richard Corkish, Solar Cells (Encyclopedia of Energy, 2004)
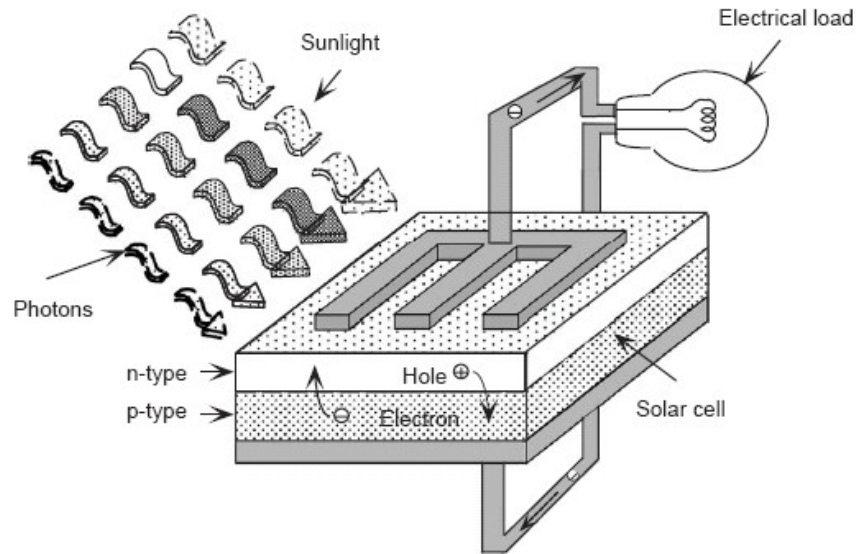
Figure 3: Solar cell operation

2.2 Solar Cell V-I Characteristic

Each solar cell has its own voltage-current (V-I) characteristic. Figure 4 shows the V-I characteristic of a typical photovoltaic cell. The problem with extracting the most possible power from a solar panel is due to nonlinearity of the characteristic curve. The characteristic shows two curves, one shows the behavior of the current with respect to increasing voltage. The other curve is the power-voltage curve and is obtained by the equation (P=I*V).
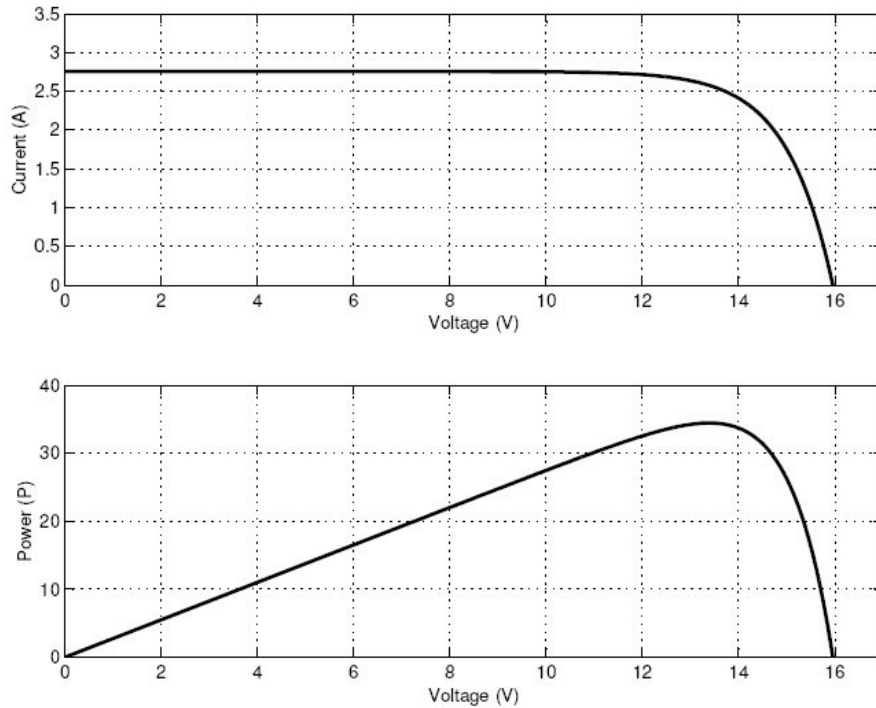
Figure 4: Solar panel V-I characteristic and Power curve

When the P-V curve of the module is observed, one can locate a single maxima of power where the solar panel operates at its optimum. In other words, there is a peak power that corresponds to a particular voltage and current. Obtaining this peak power requires that the solar panel operate at or very near the point where the P-V curve is at the maximum. However, the point where the panel will operate will change and deviate from the maxima constantly due to changing ambient conditions such as insolation or temperature levels, which we will discuss further. The result is a need for a system to constantly track the P-V curve to keep the operating point as close to the maxima as much as possible while energy is extracted from the PV array.

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2.2.1 Effect of Irradiance

Solar panels are only as effective as the amount of energy they can produce. Because solar panels rely on conditions that are never constant, the amount of power extracted from a PV module can be very inconsistent. Irradiance is an important changing factor for a solar array performance. It is a characteristic that describes the density of radiation incident on a given surface. In terms of PV modules, irradiance describes the amount of solar energy that is absorbed by the array over its area. Irradiance is expressed typically in watts per square meter (W/m$^{2)}$). Given ideal conditions, a solar panel should obtain an irradiance of 100mW/cm^2, or 1000W/ m$^{2)}$[7]. Unfortunately, this value that is obtained from a solar panel will vary greatly depending on geographic location, angle of the sun, or the amount of sun that is blocked from the panel because of any present clouds or haze. Although artificial lighting can be used to power a solar panel, PV modules derive most of their energy solely from the energy emitted from the sun. Therefore, changes of irradiance will greatly affect a PV module's performance.

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[7] Richard Corkish, Solar Cells (Encyclopedia of Energy, 2004)
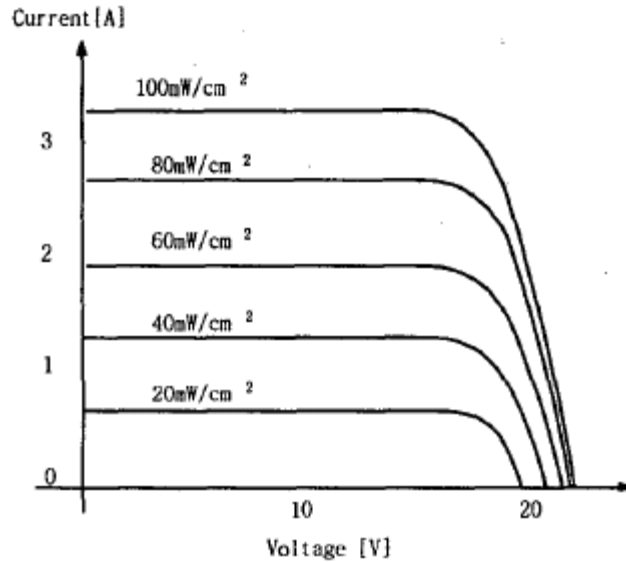
Figure 5: Different irradiance levels on a solar panel

Figure 5 shows the effect of irradiance on the output of solar panels. Clearly, a smaller level of irradiance will result in a reduced output. The change in output current is due to the reduced flux of the photons that move within a cell, as we have discussed when observing the operation of a solar cell. We can see that the voltage and open circuit voltage is not substantially affected due to changing levels of irradiance. In fact, the changes made to voltage due to irradiance are often seen as trivial and independent of the changing flux of photons.

2.2.2 Effect of Insolation Levels

Insolation is closely related to irradiance and refers to the flux of radiant energy from the sun. Taken as power per unit area, whose intensity and spectral content varies at the earth's surface due to time of day (position of the sun), season cloud cover, and moisture content of the air among other factors much like irradiance, insolation measures how much sunlight energy is delivered to a specific surface area over a single day[8]. Insolation is typically

[8] Aldous, Scott. "How Silicon in Solar Cells Works." How Stuff Works. 02 Oct 2005.

measured as kilowatt-hours per square meter per day (kWh/(m^2*day)) or in the case of photovoltaics, as kilowatt hours per year per kilowatt peak rating (kWh/kWp*y). In order to obtain the maximum amount of energy from a PV module, it should be set up perpendicular with the sun straight overhead, with no clouds or shade.
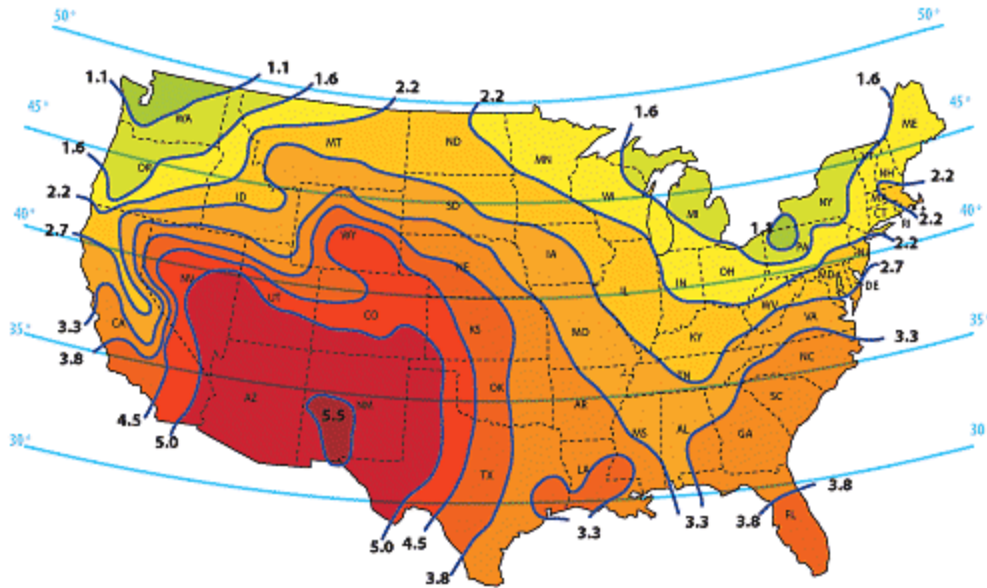
Figure 6: Insolation Levels across the United States

Figure 6_shows the typical insolation levels across the continental United States during winter peak sun hours. Some solar panel manufacturers use this scale rather than the average annual peak sun hour rating because it ensures that their product will deliver reliable and continuous power in worst-case conditions. Observing this map, we see values varying from 1.1 to 5.5. This encompasses the average values that can be considered low and high for insolation levels, respectively.

Average Insolation (10 year average) kWh/m^2/day

State	City	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Avg
AZ	Phoenix	3.25	4.41	5.17	6.76	7.42	7.7	6.99	6.11	6.02	4.44	3.52	2.75	5.38
MA	Boston	1.66	2.5	3.51	4.13	5.11	5.47	5.44	5.05	4.12	2.84	1.74	1.4	3.58
AK	Anchorage	0.21	0.76	1.68	3.12	3.98	4.58	4.25	3.16	1.98	0.98	0.37	0.12	2.09

Table 1: Insolation Levels (North America)

This table describes the average insolation levels across North America over 10 years. Unlike the worst-case values, these vary from well below 1 to up to 8. The table reflects the difference in levels between areas of very high sunlight, to very low sunlight. The yearly average for Massachusetts is at about the average across the entire nation with a relatively good average of 3.58. Alaska is expected to receive much lower insolation levels due to its geographical location and the shortened length of daytime light received especially during the winter months. Arizona receives better insolation levels because it is located farther south, making it closer to the equator and ideal operating equations. The same can be observed for countries throughout the world. Regions close to the equator will commonly achieve much higher insolation levels than those farther away from the equator.

2.2.3 Effect of Temperature

A PV module's temperature has a great effect on its performance. Although the temperature is not as an important factor as the duration and intensity of sunlight it is very important to observe that at high temperatures, a PV module's power output is reduced. The temperature of a PV module also affects its efficiency. In general, a crystalline silicon PV module's efficiency will be reduced about 0.5 percent for every degree C increase in temperature. PV modules are usually rated at module temperatures of 25°C (77°F) and seem to run about 20°C over the air temperature[9]. This means that on a hot day of 100°F, the module will operate at 120°F, or 50°C, and so will have its power reduced by approximately 12.5%[10]. Figure demonstrates the effect of varying temperature on the output of a solar panel. One can easily see a voltage drop with increasing heat. The effect of varying temperature does not have a very large effect on the current developed.

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[9] PV Technology "Photovoltaic: Sustainable Power for the World." 08 Oct 2005.
[10] LGBG Technology "Towards 20% Efficient Silicon Solar Cells." 02 Oct 2005.
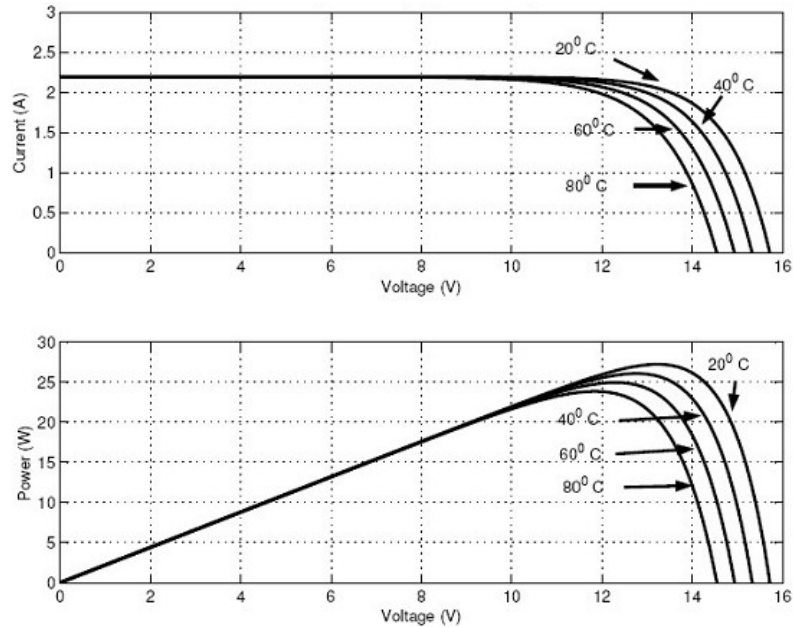
Figure 7:Temperature effect on solar panel power and I-V curves

2.2.3 Efficiency

Efficiency is most definitely one of the biggest issues when observing PV module performance. Different types of solar cells have varying efficiencies that vary depending on several factors. When we discussed the operation of a solar cell, we observed cell operation after photons have already entered into the semiconductor volume. In order to ensure efficient absorption, the reflection from the surface of a solar cell must first be reduced. A semiconductor surface that has already been polished will still reflect a significant fraction of incident photons from the sun. Silicon, for example, will reflect 30% of such photons[11]. Texturing the surface of such cells helps mitigate reflection problems, but the solar panel's efficiency is defined by other factors as well.

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[11] Nation Center for Photovoltaics. "Turning Sunlight into Electricity." 20 Oct. 2002.

A solar panel's efficiency is limited by the bandgap energy of the semiconductor from which a cell is made. Low bandgap materials will allow the threshold energy to be exceeded by a large fraction of the photons in sunlight, allowing a potentially high current. On the other hand, a solar cell will extract from each photon only an amount of energy slightly smaller than the bandgap energy, with the rest being lost as heat. This is because the excess energy from the photon results in the electron energy being higher than the bandgap. This leads to the electron settling in the conduction band and releasing energy as heat. Unfortunately, a semiconductor is transparent to photons with energy less than that of its bandgap and thus cannot capture their energy. In other words, the photons do not contain enough energy to create an electron-hole pair, so the photon simply passes right through the semiconductor. These two factors, thermalization, and transparency, are two of the largest loss mechanisms in conventional cells[12].

As useful as solar panels can be, it is clear that there are still many problems that affect the overall performance of such an array. This is what contributes to the practicality of the design. If there was a way to ensure the maximum power is constantly taken from a solar panel array, a solar panel's efficiency would increase and the overall usefulness of solar power as a renewable energy source will be invaluable.

2.3 The DC-DC Boost Converter

The boost converter will represent one of the most significant portions to the overall design of the Maximum Peak Power Tracker. Ideally, the maximum power will be taken from the solar panels. In order to do so, the

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[12] Nation Center for Photovoltaics. "Turning Sunlight into Electricity." 20 Oct. 2002.

panels must operate at their optimum power point. The output of the solar panel will be either shorted or open circuited through the opening or closing of a switch. In the design, the switch will actually be a MOSFET, which will be controlled by our digital controller. For better understanding of the converter, we will model the overall design, with the MOSFET as a simple, ideal switch. The switch will open and close to control the voltage across the inductor, essentially operating the panels at their optimum power level.
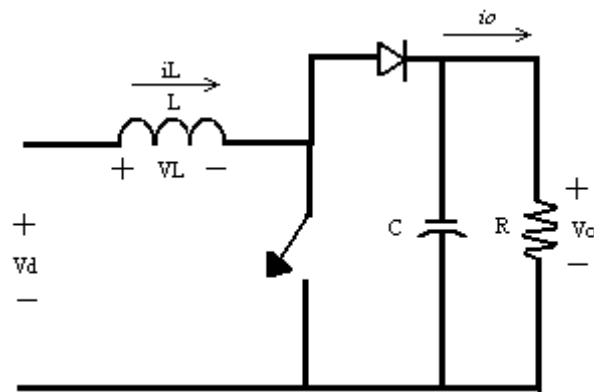
Figure 8: Step-up (Boost) dc-dc converter

Figure 8 shows the basic design of a step-up converter. As the name implies, the output voltage is always greater than the input voltage. The operation of the converter depends on the state of the switch. To better understand the operation of the converter, we will examine the operation of the circuit when the switch is opened or closed while in continuous conduction mode, discontinuous conduction mode, as well as the boundary between the two modes.

2.3.1 Continuous Conduction Mode
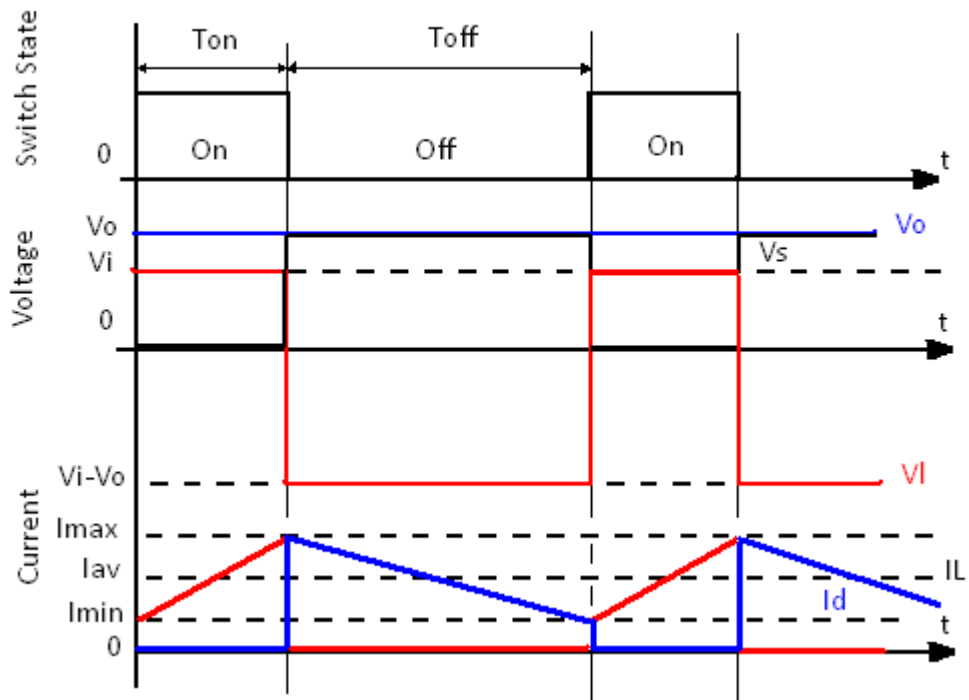
Figure 8: Boost DC-DC converter switch state, and voltage and current waveforms

Figure 8 shows the switch state, voltage, and current waveforms. When the dc-dc converter operates in continuous conduction mode, the inductor current flows continuously when $[i_L(t) > 0]$. When the switch is on as shown in Figure 9, the diode becomes reversed biased and the output stage is isolated. At this point, the input is supplying energy to the inductor. When the switch is off as shown in Figure 9, the output stage receives energy from the inductor as well as from the input. In the steady-state analysis we present, the output filter capacitor is assumed to be very large to ensure a constant output voltage $v_o(t) = V_o$

(a)   (b)
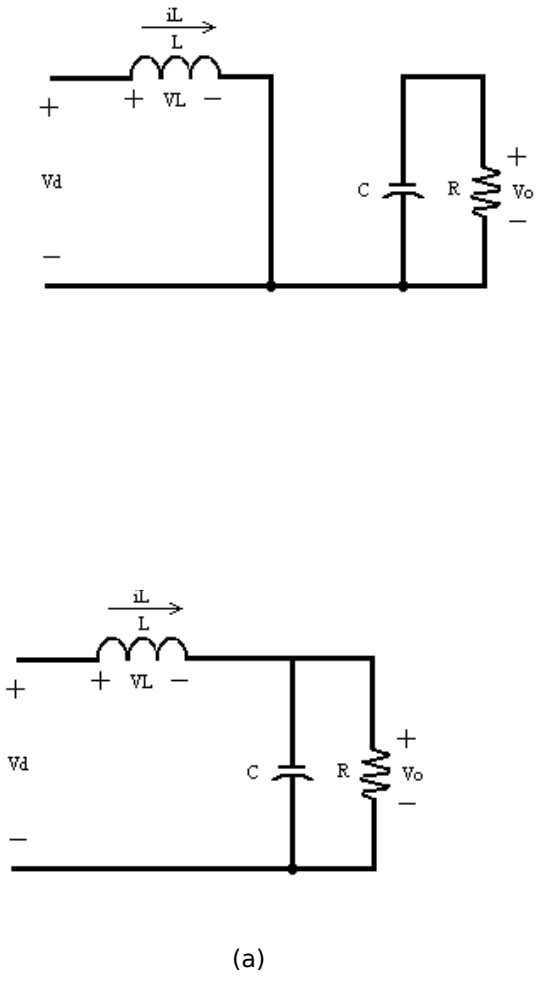
Figure 9: Boost converter switch on (a), and switch off, (b)

In steady state, the time integral of the inductor voltage over one time period must be zero. Thus:

$$V_d t_{on} + (V_d - V_o)t_{off} = 0$$

Dividing both sides by the switching time, T_s, and rearranging terms, we obtain the equation that describes the relationship between the input and output voltages, switching time, and duty cycle.

$$\frac{Vo}{Vd} = \frac{Ts}{Toff} = \frac{1}{(1-D)}$$

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This equation confirms that the output voltage is always higher than the input voltage. Assuming a lossless circuit, $P_d = P_o$, we also have

$$\frac{I_o}{I_d} = (1 - D)$$

2.3.2 Boundary between Continuous and Discontinuous Conduction

At the boundary between continuous and discontinuous conduction, i_L goes to zero at the end of the off interval by definition. At this boundary, the average value of the inductor current is

$$I_{LB} = \frac{1}{2} i_{L,peak} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{V_d}{L} t_{on} = \frac{T_s V_o}{2L} D(1 - D)$$

In a step-up converter, it is important to recognize that the inductor current and the input current are the same ($i_d = i_L$) and using the equation we can find that the average output current at the boundary of continuous conduction is

$$I_{oB} = \frac{T_s V_o}{2L} D(1 - D)^2$$

The output current reaches its maximum when the duty ratio D = 1/3 = 0.333:

$$I_{oB,max} = \frac{2}{27} \frac{T_s V_o}{L}$$

When operating, the average output current at the edge of continuous conduction is important because for a given D, with constant V_o, if the average load current drops below I_{OB}, the current conduction would become discontinuous.

2.3.3 Discontinuous Conduction Mode

Operation at discontinuous conduction mode cannot be fully understood without making several assumptions. In practice, the duty cycle, D, would vary with time in order to keep V_O constant. It is this common practice that allows the tracking of the peak power point. In discontinuous conduction mode, on the other hand, we must assume that as the output load power decreases, V_d and D remain constant.

Discontinuous conduction mode is unwanted because it occurs due to a decrease in power and results in a lower inductor current I_L since V_d is constant. We will not focus on this operation mode for the dc-dc converter because hopefully it will be completely avoided. Nevertheless, it is important to understand the relationship between the input voltage V_d, the output voltage V_o, and the duty cycle, D. Since in practice V_o is held constant and D varies in response to the variation in V_d, it is more useful to obtain the required duty ratio as a function of load current for various values of the ratio V_o/V_d.

$$D = [\frac{4}{27}\frac{Vo}{Vd}(\frac{Vo}{Vd} - 1)\frac{I_o}{I_{oB,max}}]^{1/2}$$

3.0 Methodology

3.1 System Block Diagram

Figure 10: System Block Diagram

Our peak power tracker is a microprocessor controlled DC-DC step up converter used by a solar power system to power some mechanical load. The system will step up the lower solar panel voltage for an application that would require more power. The microprocessor will attempt to maximize the power input from the solar panel by controlling the step up duty cycle to keep the solar panel operating at its maximum power point. This will be accomplished by continuously taking voltage and current samples from the panel and using the microprocessor to either increase or decrease the duty

cycle of the converter depending on the wattage from the solar panel. The microprocessor will perform the wattage calculations and when the system reaches its steady state operation, the output from the solar panel will oscillate at its highest output value.

3.2 Solar Panel Simulator

In order to provide power to the design, we will be harnessing a solar panel array. The design will take this power, and operate at the maximum power defined by the panel's P-V and I-V characteristics. Rather than using an actual solar panel array to test the design of our PPT, we will implement a simple solar panel simulator. A solar panel is basically a current source. In designing a solar panel simulator, our goal was to recreate a solar panel as a current source to power our circuit. The advantage of using a solar panel simulator is that we can directly control the output of the solar array, rather than having to deal with the variances that may occur due to changing operating conditions when testing outdoors. This design also rules out the limitation of power from artificial lighting sources directed on a solar panel that would have been used with indoor testing. The following figure is the schematic of the solar panel simulator that will be used in the testing and design of our PPT.
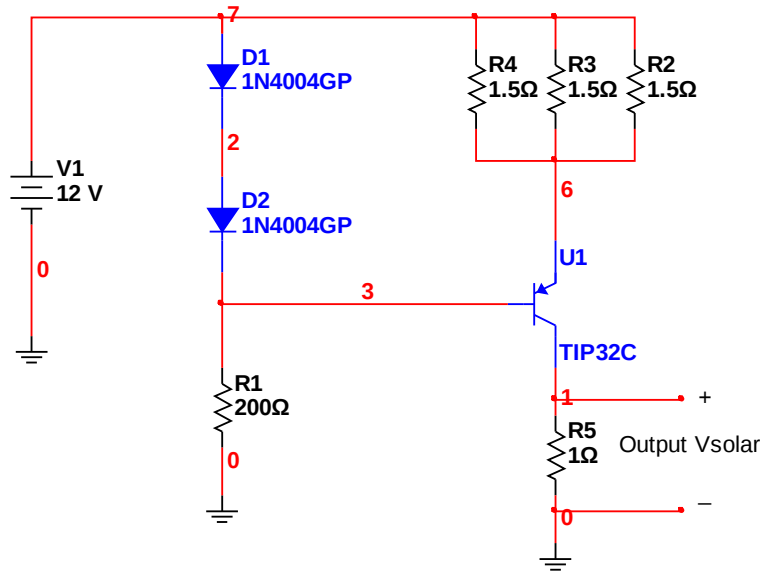
Figure 11:Solar Panel Simulator schematic

Changing the resistance of the load will simulate the input changes of power that may occur with the varying envinronmental characteristics that a typical solar panel may have to deal with when providing some output power. In other words, varying the ouptut load will effect the voltage being extracted from the panel simulator. Changing the configuration of the resistors R2, R3, and R4 will effect the maximum amount of current from the solar panel simulator. The resistors R2, R3, and R4 are all connected in parallel. The more resistors in parallel, the less resistance is seen by the emitter of the PNP bipolar junction transistor, U1. The smaller the equivalent resistance at the emitter, the higher the current at the collector. The different parallel configurations of the resistances will simulate closely the effect of irradiance —the amont of radiaton density on a given surface—on a typical solar panel.
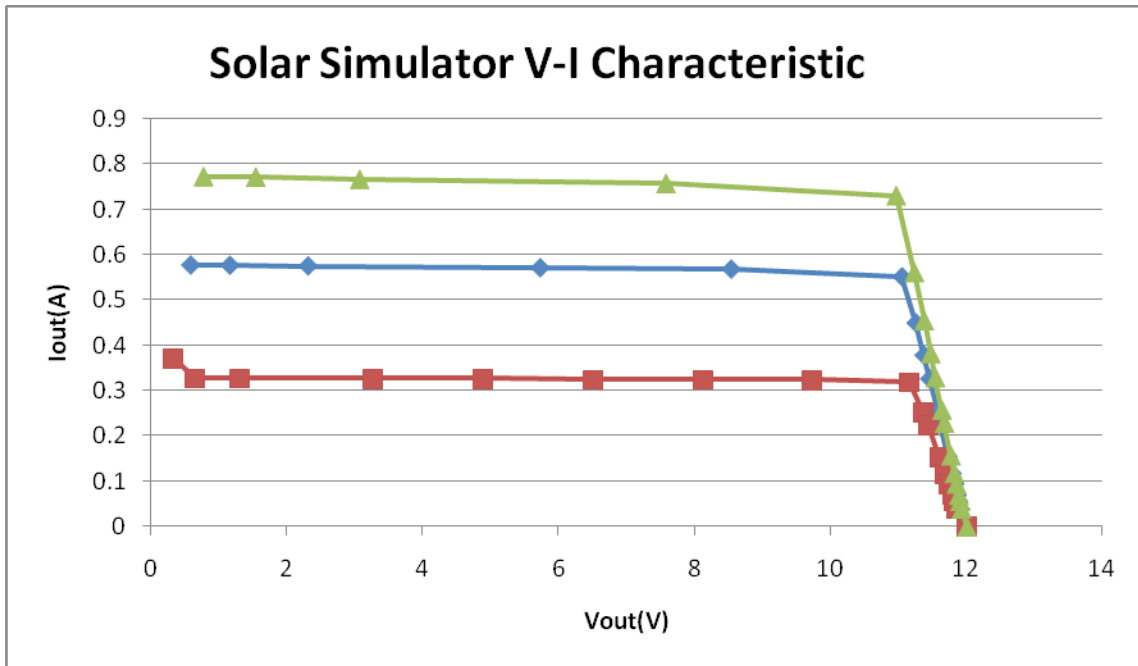
Figure 12:Solar Simulator V-I characteristic

Load(Ω)	Vout1(V)	Iout1(A)	Vout2(V)	Iout2(A)	Vout3(V)	Iout3(A)
1	0.578	0.578	0.327	0.372	0.772	0.772
2	1.155	0.5775	0.654	0.327	1.541	0.771
4	2.305	0.576	1.309	0.327	3.069	0.766
10	5.721	0.572	3.265	0.326	7.572	0.757
15	8.53	0.569	4.888	0.326	10.958	0.73
20	11.044	0.552	6.505	0.325	11.226	0.561
25	11.249	0.45	8.115	0.325	11.37	0.455
30	11.367	0.379	9.718	0.324	11.467	0.382
35	11.449	0.327	11.151	0.319	11.536	0.329
45	11.56	0.257	11.36	0.252	11.63	0.258

51	11.606	0.227	11.429	0.224	11.669	0.229
75	11.718	0.156	11.59	0.154	11.764	0.157
100	11.779	0.118	11.676	0.117	11.815	0.118
125	11.815	0.0945	11.728	0.0938	11.846	0.0947
169	11.854	0.0701	11.782	0.0697	11.879	0.0703
210	11.875	0.056	11.812	0.0562	11.897	0.0566
300	11.902	0.0397	11.85	0.0395	11.92	0.0397

The figure and respective table shows the V-I characteristic of the solar panel simulator. These results were experimental, involving the change of load and variable resistors to determine the outcome. Varying the load resistance resulted in varying levels of output voltage. Varying the resistance configuration resulted in varying levels of output current. The maximum output of about 770 mA corresponds to the configuration of all resistances in parallel, while the output of about 372 mA corresponds to the configuration of just one resistor in series with the PNP BJT. Vout1 corresponds to two 1.5Ω resistors in parallel, Vout2 corresponds to 3 1.5Ωresistors in parallel, while Vout3 corresponds to one 1.5Ω resistor in series with the transistor. Observing the V-I characteristic, the solar panel simulator's operation as a typical solar panel is confirmed, with an open circuit voltage of approximately 11.5V and short circuit current from 372mA to 770mA depending on the resistance configuration.

3.3 Input Filter

Adding an input filter to the design will help increase overall system efficiency and help reduce input noise. The input capacitor applied in our boost design will reduce the current peaks drawn from the input supply and reduce noise injection. The capacitor's value is largely determined by the source impedance of the input supply. High source impedance would require high input capacitance, particularly as the input voltage falls. Since step-up DC-DC converters act as constant-power loads to their input supply, the input current rises as the input voltage falls. In low input voltage designs, increasing the input capacitance or lowering its equivalent series resistance can add as many as five percentage points to conversion efficiency.
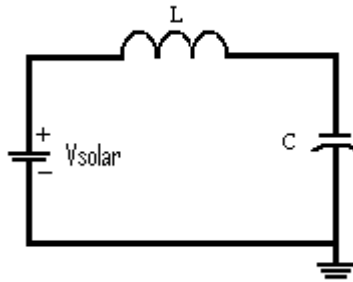
Figure 13: Input LC filter

The DC-DC converter in the design will create a switching circuit. Taking a series circuit with a capacitor, inductor and the MOSFET of the converter as a switch, when the switch is closed, the capacitor of the input filter will start to discharge and the current increases. At this stage, energy is transferred from the capacitor to the inductor. When the capacitor is completely discharged, the current peaks and the capacitor begins to charge the opposite way. Energy is then transferred back from the inductor to the

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capacitor. The current alternates between the inductor and capacitor with an angular frequency in radians/second of

$$\omega = \sqrt{1/LC}$$

where L is the inductance in henries, and C is the value of capacitance in farads. The LC filter will be used to decrease the input ripple and improve input efficiency.

3.4 DC-DC Boost Converter Analysis
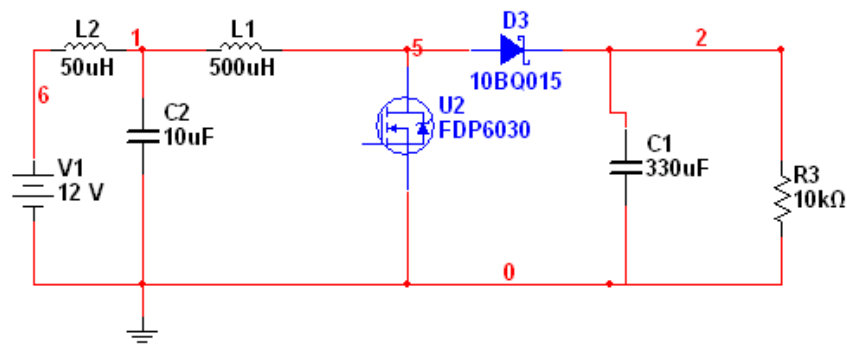
Figure 14: DC-DC converter simulation circuit

In order to understand and obtain the expected results of the DC-DC converter in the design, it is important to first simulate operation with the given parameters. The DC-DC converter is designed with an input voltage of 12V, a boost converter is designed with a 500µH inductor, 330µF capacitor, an ideal switch and diode, output load of 20Ω. The input pulse signal to the ideal switch is a 2V pulse with a switching frequency of 100kHz. At a 50% duty cycle, the converter boosts the input voltage from 12V to the input to 20V at the output. With a simulated DC-DC boost converter, it was useful to modify the values of the different components of the circuit as well as the duty cycle in order to obtain the desired results. An input LC filter with a

50μH inductor and 10μF capacitor is also included to observe the effect on the input from adding a filter to the converter.
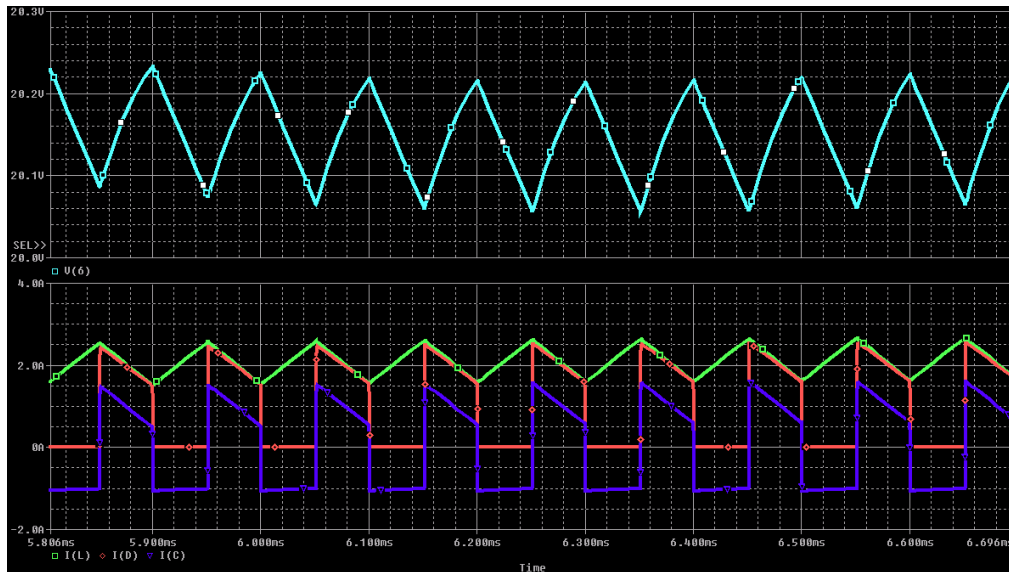
Figure 15: Output load voltage and current across inductor, diode, and capacitor

Here we observe the output voltage at the load, and current through the inductor, diode and capacitor. The average voltage is close to the desired 20V for a duty cycle of 40%. When the inductor is charging, the switch is on, and there is no current across the capacitor or diode because the output stage is isolated. When the switch is off, the inductor discharges energy and there is current through the diode and capacitor.
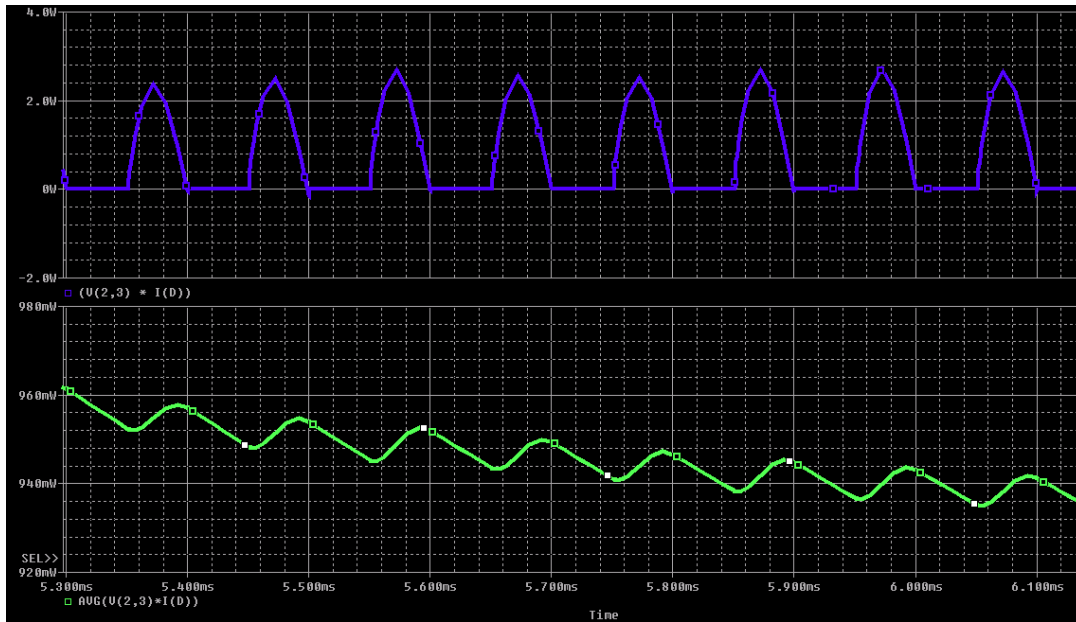
Figure 16: Switching power losses and average power loss

These two plots describe the losses due to switching. When the switch goes to its off state, there are power losses due to a loss in energy. The first plot describes a power loss of a little over 2 watts at each switch. The average power loss is small, less than 1 watt of overall loss for the system.

3.5 Operating Frequency

The operating frequency of the system will depend on the inductor used and MOSFET selected. An important factor to consider will be the switching losses associated with the switching of the circuit. At higher frequencies, the losses due to switching will increase. In addition, with higher frequencies it is important to keep some resolution in the duty cycle. A switching frequency of 100kHz was chosen. This switching frequency is appropriate to both the inductor and the MOSFET chosen. The MOSFET chosen will easily take this as a switching frequency and resolution is maintained without adding too much in power losses.

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3.6 Voltage Sensing

In order for the microprocessor to control the duty cycle of the converter, it needs to obtain voltage samples from the solar panel input. This will be done through a very simple method of voltage sensing. Normally, the microprocessor would be able to take voltage directly from a source to sense the voltage. However, the voltage coming from the solar panel will be much too large for the microprocessor to handle. The maximum amount of voltage that the microprocessor will take will be 5V. Any voltage larger than this amount to the microprocessor would risk destroying it, and the system would fail to monitor and maintain the peak power operating point all together. Knowing this, it is with great care that we implement the voltage divider in such a way that it will always output a voltage that is much less than the threshold voltage of what the microprocessor can handle.
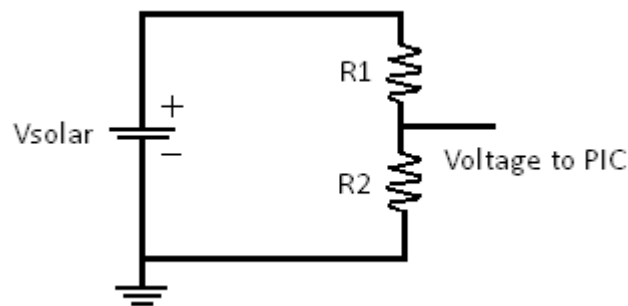
Figure 17: Voltage divider

3.7 Current Sensing

To calculate the power coming from the solar panel simulator, the microprocessor needs to be able to take current samples from the solar panel simulator in addition to the voltage. In theory, there are several different methods of current sensing. These different methods vary in their placement within the circuit design and the method of obtaining a current reading.

Because the microprocessor will not be able to take the current from the solar panel simulator directly, an indirect method of current sensing must be used.

3.7.1 Series Sense Resistor

Using a series sense resistor is the conventional way of sensing a current. Resistive current sensing is done by inserting a resistance into the circuit. The resistance is typically small, but it used to measure the voltage across the resistor. The voltage seen across the resistor is proportional to the current, making current sensing possible.
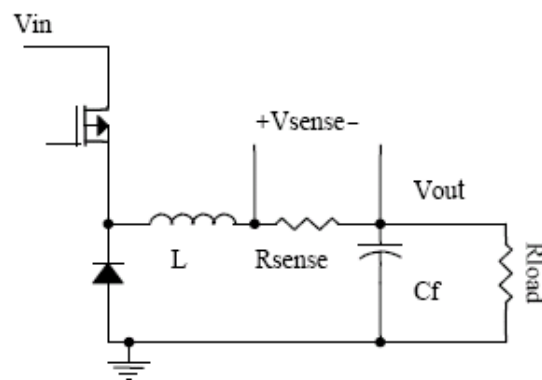
Figure 18: Current resistor sensing

Figure 18 demonstrates the typical use of a current sense resistor with resistive current sensing. This is not the configuration we will be using in the designed circuit, however it demonstrates the simple placement of an added sense resistor. One disadvantage for this method is that it incurs a power loss in R_{SENSE}, and therefore reduces the efficiency of the DC-DC converter. In order to keep measurements accurate, the voltage across the sense resistor should be roughly 100mV at full load due to practical limitations. For example, if the full-load current is 1A, 0.1W is dissipated in the sense resistor.

For an output voltage of 3.3V, the output power is 3.3W at full-load. This means that the sense resistor reduces the system efficiency by 3.3%. This reduction of efficiency will be detrimental to the overall circuit and power losses should be avoided.

3.7.2 R_{DS} Sensing

Current can be sensed through the drain-source resistance of a MOSFET because MOSFETs act as resistors when they are "on" and they are biased on the non-saturated region. Assuming that the voltage across the drain-source, V_{DS} is relatively small as is the case for MOSFETs used as switches, the equivalent resistance of the device is:

$$R_{DS} = \frac{L}{W\mu C_{OX}(V_{GS} - V_T)}$$

where μ is the mobility, C_{OX} is the oxide capacitance, and V_T is the threshold voltage. Provided that R_{DS} is known, the switch current can be determined by sensing the voltage across the drain-source of the MOSFET.
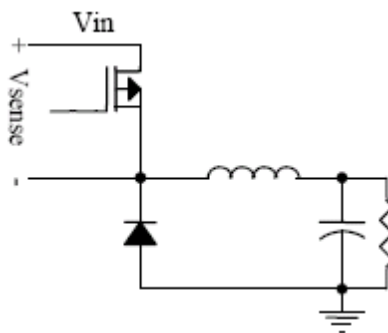
Figure 19: MOSFET R_{DS} Sensing

The disadvantage to this technique is low accuracy. This is due to the fact that the R_{DS} of the MOSFET is inherently nonlinear and usually has

significant variation because of the mobility, capacitance and threshold voltage. The R_{DS} is also dependent on the temperature exponentially which can greatly increase the variation of its actual value. Despite low accuracy, R_{DS} sensing is useful because it does not add an additional resistance which would result in greater power losses.

3.7.3 Filter Sensing the Inductor

Instantaneous changes in the input voltage are immediately reflected in the inductor current, so it is often useful to observe the current across the inductor for current-mode control in a DC-DC converter. Regardless of the type of feedback control, typically all DC-DC converters sense the inductor current for over-current protection. Filter sensing the inductor uses a simple low-pass RC network to filter the voltage across the inductor and sense the current through the equivalent series resistance (ESR) of the inductor.
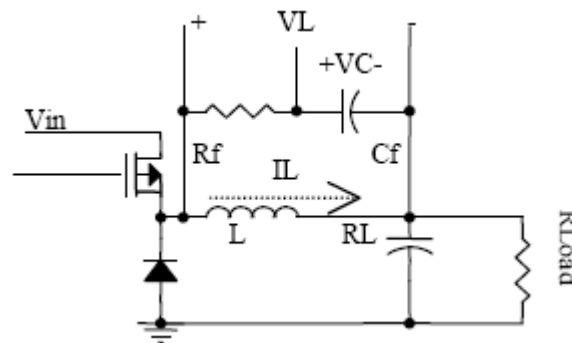
Figure 20: Filter Sensing the inductor

The voltage across the inductor is given by

$$V_L = (R_L + sL)I_L$$

where L is the inductor value and R_L is the ESR of the inductor. The voltage across the capacitor of the filter is

$$V_C = \frac{V_L}{1 + sR_fC_f} = \frac{(R_L + sL)I_L}{1 + sR_fC_f} = R_L\left(\frac{1 + s(\frac{L}{R_L})}{1 + sR_fC_f}\right)I_L = R_L\frac{1 + sT}{1 + sT_1}I_L$$

where $T = L/R_L$ and $T_1 = R_FC_F$. Forcing $T = T_1$ yields $V_C = R_LI_L$. Because of this relationship, V_C is directly proportional to the current I_L. In order to use this technique, L and R_L must be known, and then R and C are chosen accordingly. Because of the tolerance of the components required, this technique is not appropriate for integrated circuits. The technique is useful for proper design for a discrete, custom solution where the type and value of the inductor is known.

3.7.4 Magnetic Sensing-Hall Effect Sensors

Hall effect sensors sense current by taking advantage of the Hall Effect. According to the Hall effect, a magnetic field passing through a semiconductor resistor will generate a differential voltage proportional to the field. Concentric magnetic field lines are generated around a current carrying conductor. Assuming that the primary current conductor is infinitely long, the magnetic field strength may be defined as $B = \mu_o I/2pr$, where μ_o is the permeability of free space, I is the current and r is the distance from the center of the current conductor.

To induce a larger signal out of the Hall element the current conductor is wrapped around slotted ferrous toroid N number of times. This yields the equation for the magnetic field, $B = \mu_o I/2pr$. In an open loop topology, the hall element output is taken, amplified, and then outputted as a voltage that represents the measured current through a scaling factor.
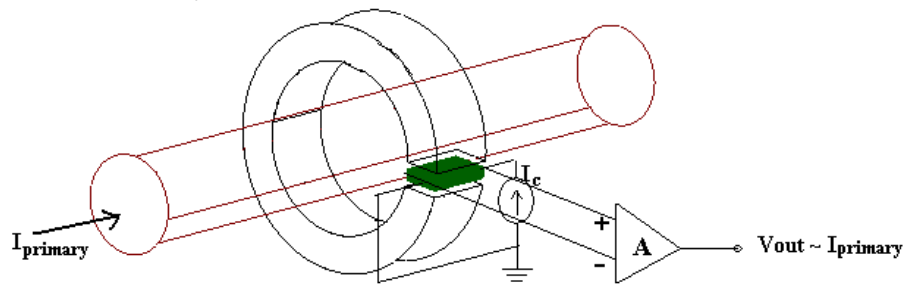
Figure 21: Open-Loop hall effect current sensing

Using a closed loop topology combines Hall effect sensing, resistive sensing, and transformer current behavior. When using closed loop topology, the output of the Hall element drives a secondary coil. This generates a magnetic field to cancel the primary current field. The secondary current, scaled proportionally to the primary current by the secondary coil ratio can then be measured as a voltage across a sense resistor. The advantage to a closed loop topology is fast response time. However, power consumption is increased with the need for a secondary coil to drive up to several milli-amps of current.
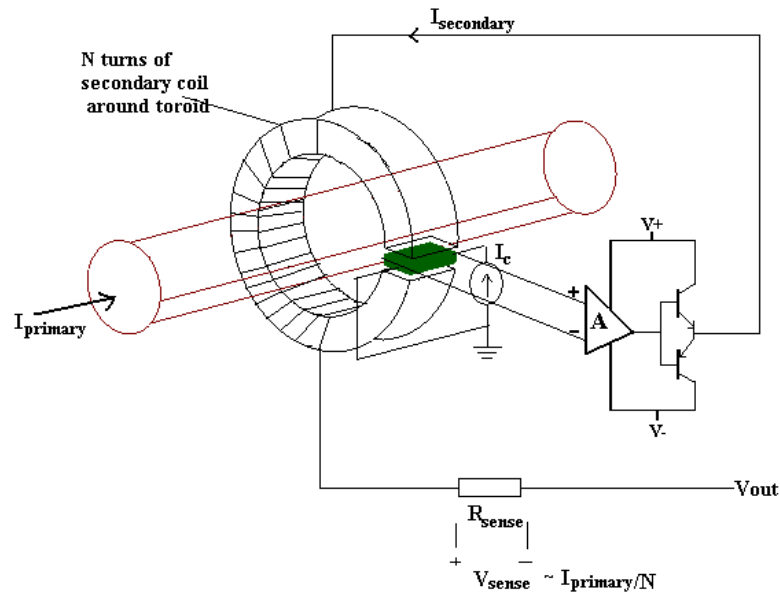
Figure 22:Closed-Loop hall effect current sensing

3.7.5 Current Sensing Conclusion

There are many different methods possible for current sensing. However it is clear that some are not necessarily appropriate for our application. R_{DS} sensing will not be appropriate because the high switching frequency and operation of our MOSFET as a switch. The current across R_{DS} can only be measured when the FET is on, and with a switching frequency of 100kHz, it will be difficult to pinpoint current samples when the switch constantly oscillates between off and on states. Inductor sensing offers proportional current measurement with relatively insignificant power loss, however, the method of inductor current sensing is typically inaccurate. Hall effect sensing is out of the question because of cost considerations, power consumption for operation, and because of the characteristics of the current that we will actually measure. Hall effect sensors are typically applied for AC current, and high current sensing, neither of which apply to our circuit. In

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fact, typical Hall effect sensors need to sense at least 5A of current before they output a differential voltage.

Current Sensing Method	Value	Accuracy	Power Dissipation	Relative Cost
Open loop Hall effect sensor	-	90-95%	Low	Medium
Closed loop Hall Effect sensor	-	>95%	Moderate-high	High
High Precision Current Sensing Resistor	.020 Ω	>95%	Moderate	Low
Inductor Filter Sensing	-	50%	Low	Low
R_{DS} Sensing	.024 Ω	Not applicable	Low	Low

The method we chose to implement in our circuit is with a high precision current sensing resistor. This method is the most typically used and the easiest to implement in the circuit. The method is highly accurate, relatively inexpensive, and has tolerable power dissipation. The reason why it is defined to have 'moderate' power dissipation is because the power dissipation is relatively insignificant. Inductor filter sensing, for example, relies greatly on just the equivalent resistance of the inductor, which is typically very small. R_{DS} also has very small resistance, but the power dissipation is relatively low because no additional resistance is added to the circuit. The addition of a very small resistance and minimal power loss is the

only disadvantage of using a current sense resistor, and its ease of application more than makes up for it.
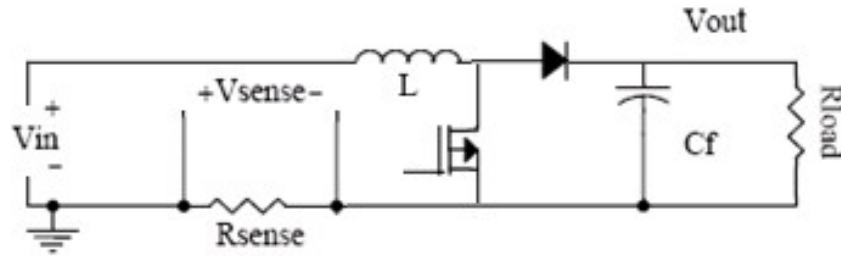
Figure 23: Resistive sensing in the boost dc-dc converter

3.8 Determining Inductance Value

In all switching regulator applications, and in our own, the inductor is used as an energy storage device. When the semiconductor switch is on, the current across the inductor ramps up and energy is stored within it. When the switch turns off, the energy stored is released into the load. The inductor's storage and release of energy in conjunction with the output capacitor is what accounts for the average output current and voltages resulting in a steady dc output. The amount of energy stored in an inductor is given by

$$\frac{1}{2}LI^2$$

where L is the inductance in Henrys, and I is the peak value of the inductor current. When selecting an inductor for a buck converter, as with all switching regulators, the most important parameters to calculate will be

- Maximum input voltage

- Output voltage

- Switching Frequency

- Maximum ripple current

- Duty Cycle.

For our dc-dc boost converter, if we assume a switching frequency of 100kHz, an input voltage of 12V, and an output of 20V with a minimum load of 500mA. For an input of 12V, the duty cycle will be determined by:

$$D = 1 - \frac{V_{IN}}{V_O}$$

This will give us a duty cycle of 0.4 V_{IN} and V_O are the input and output voltages respectively. The voltage across the inductor when on is equal to the input voltage of 12V. When off, the voltage across the inductor is the difference between V_O and V_{IN}, or -8V. The current ripple is given by the equation:

$$\Delta I = \frac{V_{IN}}{L} DT_S = \frac{V_O - V_{IN}}{L}(1 - D)T_S$$

Choosing a current ripple that is twice that of I_{IN} will allow us to calculate the minimum value of the inductor what will insure continuous current for a given D, R and switching frequency F. The current ripple to find the minimum inductance is determined by:

$$\Delta I = 2 \times I_{IN} = \frac{V_{IN}}{L_{MIN}} DT_S$$

From this simple equation we obtain the minimum inductance:

$$L_{MIN} = \frac{V_{IN}}{I_{IN}} \frac{D}{2F_S} = \frac{(1-D)DV_O}{\frac{1}{(1-D)}I_O f_s} = \frac{(1-D)^2 DR}{2f_s}$$

With V_{IN} = 12V, I_{IN}=0.5A, D=0.4, and f_s =100kHz, we obtain the minimum inductance needed for continuous conduction to be 48µH. With this value obtained, we now know that the inductance chosen needs to be greater than 48µH otherwise, the dc-dc converter may enter discontinuous conduction mode and will not operate correctly.

Due to the typically high switching frequencies of the controller, inductors with a ferrite core or equivalent have been recommended, while powdered iron cores are not recommended due to their high losses at frequencies larger than 50kHz. Once we obtain the peak inductor current, I_{LPEAK}, we must take care to make sure that the inductor's saturation rating meets or exceeds the calculated value for I_{LPEAK} even though most coil types can operate up to 20% over their saturation rating without experiencing difficulty. In addition, the inductor should have as low a series resistance as possible. While in continuous operation mode, the power loss in the inductor resistance, P_{LR}, is approximated by:

$$P_{LR} \cong (I_{OUT} \times V_{OUT}/V_{IN})^2 \times R_L$$

where R_L is the inductor series resistance.

3.9 Confirming Peak Power Obtained – Thevenin Equivalence

When we design the controller system for the maximum peak power tracker, it is important to have a full understanding of the boost converter circuit operation. Obtaining the average current—I_{AVG}, the average voltage, V_{AVG}, the equivalent resistance of the circuit, R_{EQ}, the ripple current, I, and the

output power, P—we can predict the outcome of the circuit. To confirm peak power operation, a Thevenin power source can be used.

The solar panel will be modeled as a linear thevenin voltage and resistance. The goal is to operate the circuit near the maximum power point of the non-linear I-V characteristic of the solar panel. Modeling the thevenin power source to have a linear I-V characteristic similar to the solar panel will allow us to monitor the outcome of the circuit to see if peak power is
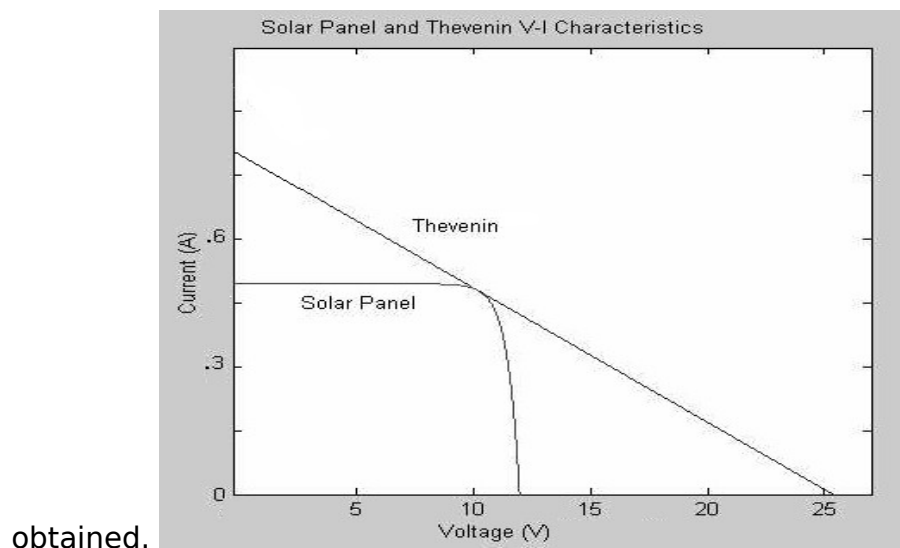
obtained.

Figure 24: Solar panel and thevenin power characteristic comparison

If the maximum power point of the two curves are basically in line, then it will be beneficial to model the thevenin source. To obtain the correct thevenin voltage and resistance, simply double the voltage at the maximum power point of the non linear model. This is because the maximum power point for the linear model will occur at the midpoint and the the thevenin resistance will simply be the voltage over the current at the maximum power point.
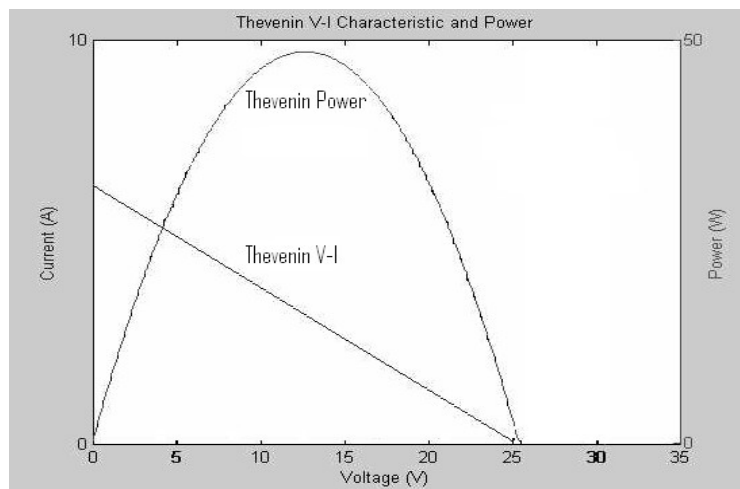
Figure 25: Thevenin power and V-I characteristic

3.9.1 Average Current and Ripple

Implementing a thevenin source and resistance, the maximum current that will flow into the circuit, I_{MAX} is obtained from:

$$I_{MAX} = \frac{V_{TH}}{R_{TH}}$$

where V_{TH} and R_{TH} represent the thevenin voltage and resistance.
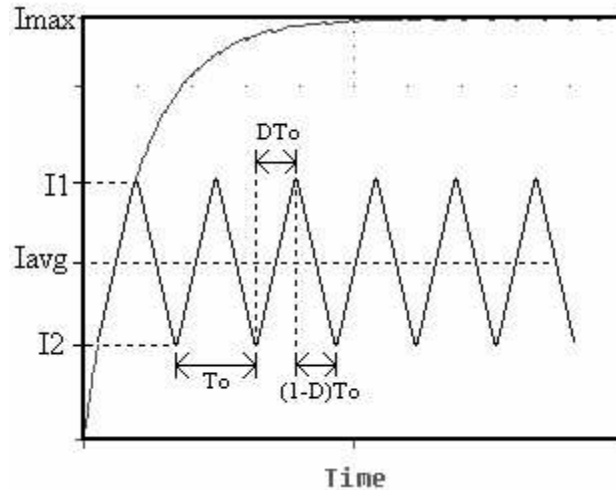
Figure 26: Average current vs. Time

When the duty cycle of the circuit is high, the current will try to reach the maximum current. When the duty cycle is low, the current will try to reach the maximum negative current. Since there is only one source of power in our circuit, there will be no negative power source, and there will be no negative current; the most negative the current can be is zero. The ripple will vary between zero amps and the maximum current and the location and ripple size of the current will be determined by the duty cycle and frequency. The expression for the changing current is given by:

$$I(t) = I_{MAX} - (I_{MAX} - I_2)e^{-t/\tau}$$

When the duty cycle is high, the initial current, I_2 will increase until the duty cycle goes low. This occurs as I_1. The final current will be I_{MAX}, when the duty cycle is high. The time constant L/R is represented by τ. The time, t, is equivalent to the amount of time in which the duty cycle is high, DT_0, where D is the duty cycle, and T_0 is the time period. With T_0 much less than the time constant τ, the equation for I_1 is given by

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$$I_1 = I_{MAX}\left(\frac{DT_0}{\tau}\right) + I_2\left(1 - \frac{DT_0}{\tau}\right)$$

There are now two unknowns, I_1 and I_2. When the duty cycle is low, the initial current will be at I_1 and will drop to I_2 while the duty cycle goes high. With no negative current, the relationship between I_2 and I_1 is given by

$$I_2 = I_1\left|1 - \frac{(1-D)T_0}{\tau}\right|$$

With two equations and two unknowns, we can now solve for the maximum and minimum ripple values, I_1 and I_2 as a function of known values: duty cycle, time period, saturation currents, and τ. To obtain the ripple current, it is necessary to obtain expressions for the ripple currents that are independent of each other. Using already obtained equations, I_1 can be obtained as

$$I_1 = I_{MAX}\frac{DT_0}{\tau} + \left[I_1\left(1 - \frac{(1-D)T_0}{\tau}\right)\right]\left(1 - \frac{DT_0}{\tau}\right)$$

Solving for I_1 and simplifying, we obtain

$$I_1 = \frac{I_{MAX}\frac{DT_0}{\tau}}{1 - \left[\left(1 - \frac{DT_0}{\tau}\right)\left(1 - \frac{(1-D)T_0}{\tau}\right)\right]}$$

To obtain I_2, we use the equation

$$I_2 = \left[I_{MAX}\frac{DT_0}{\tau} + \left[I_2\left(1 - \frac{(1-D)T_0}{\tau}\right)\right]\right]\left(1 - \frac{DT_0}{\tau}\right)$$

Simplifying, and solving for I_2,

$$I_2 = \frac{I_{MAX} \frac{DT_0}{\tau} \left(1 - \frac{(1-D)T_0}{\tau}\right)}{1 - \left[\left(1 - \frac{DT_0}{\tau}\right)\left(1 - \frac{(1-D)T_0}{\tau}\right)\right]}$$

Now that we have obtained expressions for I_1 and I_2, we can now obtain the important value for I_{AVG}. The average between the two points is simply half of their sum. The average current will be determined as half the sum of the maximum and minimum ripple values,

$$I_{AVG} = \frac{I_1 + I_2}{2}$$

Using the previous equations for the ripple values, I_{AVG} can be seen as

$$I_{AVG} = \frac{I_{MAX} \frac{DT_0}{\tau} \left(2 - \frac{(1-D)T_0}{\tau}\right)}{2 \frac{T_0}{\tau} \left[1 - D(1-D)\frac{T_0}{\tau}\right]}$$

With T_0 much less than the time constant, τ, any term that depends on either will be approximately zero, if they affect the result significantly. Keeping this in mind, the simple way of obtaining the average current is

$$I_{AVG} = I_{MAX}D$$

Using this equation, we can observe the effect of the duty cycle on the average current. When the duty cycle is high, at 100 percent, the average current will go to the maximum positive saturation value, I_{MAX}. When the duty cycle is low, going to 0, the average current will also go to 0. This makes sense because if the main switch of the MOSFET is always closed, then the current will try to reach the maximum current, and with the switch constantly closed, the current will drop to the minimum amount of current, in our case,

0. The current ripple, ΔI, is simply the final value of the current, I_1, minus the initial value I_2:

$$\Delta I = I_1 - I_2$$

3.9.2 Average Voltage and Ripple

It is now useful to obtain values for the average voltage and the ripple that can be seen in the voltage. When the main switch is closed for a long period of time, the current will gradually build through the inductor, and the voltage will drop exponentially at the same rate of the current increase.
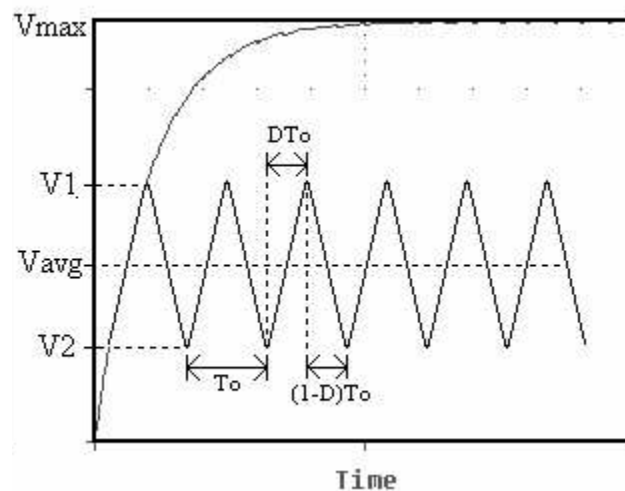
Figure 27: Average voltage vs. time

The maximum negative value that the average voltage can be is zero. This is true because when the current builds to its maximum value, it only depends on the thevenin voltage and resistance, so the voltage at this point must be zero. When the current is at its minimum, the average voltage will simply be equivalent to whatever voltage is obtained from the solar panel. Noting that when the voltage reaches its max, the current reaches its minimum and

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when the voltage reaches its maximum, the current goes to its minimum, it will be easy to obtain the expression for average voltage. This is because the voltage will decrease at the same rate as the current, but to different points. Thus, the equation for average voltage is very similar to that of the average current:

$$V_{AVG} = V_{MAX}(1-D)$$

With respect to the duty cycle, thevenin voltage and resistance, the inductor, and frequency, voltage ripple is obtained as

$$\Delta V = \frac{DR_{TH}V_{MAX}(1-D)}{Lf}$$

3.9.3 Equivalent Resistance and Power
The average current and voltage have now been obtained. It is now very simple to derive an expression for the equivalent resistance of the circuit. The equivalent resistance is obtained simply as the relationship of the average current and average voltage:

$$R_{EQ} = \frac{V_{AVG}}{I_{AVG}}$$

The expected average power will also be simple to obtain and also depends on the relationship between the average voltage and current:

$$P_{AVG} = V_{AVG}I_{AVG}$$

When the equivalent resistance of the total circuit equals the Thevenin resistance, maximum peak power can be observed. This is because the

maximum load current is obtained when the equivalent resistance is twice
the total resistance (or when $R_{EQ} = R_{TH}$):

$$I_{MAX} = \frac{V_O}{2R_O}$$

This will be the main method of determining that peak power is obtained.
Although we will observe duty cycle oscillation when peak power is obtained,
the method of comparing the equivalent resistance and thevenin resistance
is a dependable way to check to see if the circuit is acting properly.

4.0 Implementation

4.1 Parts Selection

4.1.1 MOSFET Gate Driver Selection

The MOSFET in our circuit will serve its purpose as a switch. The
switching of the FET according to the defined switching frequency and duty
cycle will define the output of the circuit. After taking voltage and current
samples, the microprocessor will output a pulse width modulated (PWM)
signal to modify the duty cycle of the converter. The PWM signal cannot be
connected directly to the MOSFET; instead, we will use a MOSFET driver to
pass the signal to the gate of the MOSFET.

The advantages of using a MOSFET gate driver made it clear that it
was the best choice for implementation. The microprocessor in the circuit can
supply only a certain output current. This limits the ability to charge the FET
before it can turn on because the gate of the MOSFET is capacitive. The gate
driver itself will source the current that our MOSFET will draw, and results

with a higher current to the FET. With the higher current, the gate driver decreases propagation delay and allows for a cleaner wave preventing lag in the rise and fall of the FET wave. Another benefit of using a gate driver is that the it has a higher switching speed than the microprocessor can achieve, adding to the overall efficiency of the circuit.

The MOSFET gate driver selected for the circuit is the TC4427 from Microchip Technologies. This driver was chosen for its high switching speed, low current consumption, single supply operation, and low impedance during both 'on' and 'off' states. The low output impedance of 7Ω is important to have so that expected state of the switch is not affected by operation, even by large transients. Its high output peak current of 1.5A is more than enough needed to power our FET and provides 4mA with logic '1' input and 400μA with logic '0' input. The wide input supply voltage operating range is from 4.5V to 18V and will always operate given the 5V input from a voltage regulator that will be implemented in the circuit design. The delay times for rise and fall are typically 40nsec and are very short. In addition to the short delay times, the rise and fall times are matched and symmetrical.
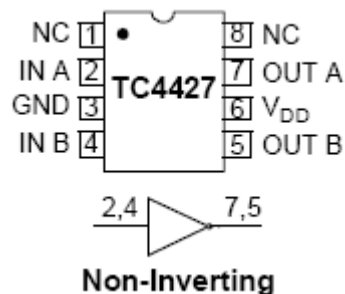
Figure 28: TC4427 MOSFET gate driver

Figure shows the pin layout of the TC4427, with two non-inverting drivers. The inverting input of the TC4427 is connected to ground and the non-inverting input is connected to the PWM signal taken from the microprocessor. The output is connected to the gate of the switching MOSFET of the DC-DC converter.

4.1.2 Power MOSFET Selection

The MOSFET selection is a key factor of the design. The MOSFET in our circuit will act as the switch that varies the duty cycle of the dc-dc converter, making it possible to step up the input voltage. A low threshold NFET that specify on-resistance with a gate-source voltage (V_{GS}) of 2.7V or less is preferred. There are many parameters that must carefully be examined when choosing a FET. These important constraints include:

1.) Total gate charge (Qg) $\rightarrow$ Predicts switching loss

2.) Reverse transfer capacitance or charge (C_{RSS}) $\rightarrow$ Predicts switching loss

3.) On-resistance ($R_{DS(ON)}$) $\rightarrow$ Predicts DC losses

4.) Maximum drain-to-source voltage ($V_{DS(MAX)}$)

5.) Minimum threshold voltage ($V_{TH(MIN)}$).

The most important characteristic to examine will be the FET's expected power dissipation. The amount of power that a FET dissipates relies on many constraints. The MOSFET will have both DC losses and losses due to its constant switching. In order to optimize the efficiency of the design, it is important to minimize these losses as much as possible. It is also important

to understand that these losses depend on the switching frequency, current, duty cycle, and the switching rise and fall times. Our goal is to minimize conduction and switching and to choose a device with sufficient thermal properties. The breakdown voltage, current-carrying capability, R_{ON}, and the R_{ON} temperature coefficient will be important parameters to consider.

Before a MOSFET begins to switch, the power dissipation derives from conduction losses. The conduction loss is proportional to the on-state channel resistance, R_{ON} of the MOS device (Q1):

$$P_C = I_D{}^2 R_{ON}$$

where I_D is the drain current, and R_{ON} is the channel resistance at the manufacturer's specified nominal ambient temperature. The switching losses are contributed by the charging and discharging of the gate capacitance. To close the FET, a charge from the gate to the source builds up to allow current to flow. Once the MOSFET's capacitor achieves a charge equal to its Q_G value, the MOSFET switch closes and current flows. When the switch is opened again, the capacitor discharges all of Q_G. This loss of charge results in some power loss which increases with higher switching frequencies:

$$P_G = V_G{}^2 C_{GS} f$$

where V_G is the gate-drive voltage, C_{GS} is the gate-source capacitance, and f is the switching frequency. We can split up the switching losses due to capacitance and switching. The power loss due to the charging of the capacitor is:

$$P_Q = Q_G V_G f$$

While the power lost due to switching is given by:

$$P_S = \frac{1}{2}(t_r + t_f) I_{RMS} V_S f$$

Where I_{RMS} is the drain current; t_r and t_f are the switching rise and fall times, respectively; and V_S is the input source voltage. The total power dissipation in Q_1 is given by:

$$P(Q_1) = I_{RMS}^2 R_{ON} + f[Q_G V_G + \frac{1}{2}(t_r + t_f) I_{RMS} V_S]$$

.

In this Equation, the first term reflects the conduction loss, while the second term accounts for the dynamic and gate losses. The dynamic and gate losses are given by the capacitor of the FET and the losses that occur during switching.

Having calculated the power dissipation, it is also important to calculate the temperature rise from the thermal resistances of the package. This will be important for the design once we decide on what heatsink to use (if necessary at all). The temperature rise is as follows:

$$\Delta_T = R_\theta P$$

Where Δ_T is the temperature rise over ambient degrees Celsius, P is the device's total power dissipation, and R_θ is the total thermal resistance taken as the sum of junction-to-case resistance of the FET's package and the heat-sink thermal resistance. There is also a small case-to-sink term, however this term is very small and often negligible especially when more modern thermal interface materials are used.

The MOSFET's power dissipation is complicated due to its reliance on R_{ON}. For example, a temperature rise of about 80°C causes a 40% increase in the value of R_{ON}. To find the actual temperature rise, we need to include this behavior in the analysis of conduction losses. Including R_{ON}'s temperature coefficient to the power loss equation yields:

$$P(Q_1) = I_{RMS}^2 R_{ON}(1 + \delta\Delta_T)D + f[Q_G V_G + \frac{1}{2}(t_r + t_f)I_{RMS}V_S]$$

where δ is the temperature coefficient of R_{ON} in $°C^{-1}$. Substituting these variables into the equation for temperature rise, and solving for the device's Δ_T, the temperature rise at the MOSFET Q_1 is given by:

$$\Delta_T(Q_1) = \frac{R_\Theta[I_{RMS}^2 R_{ON}D + f[Q_G V_G + \frac{1}{2}(t_r + t_f)I_{RMS}V_S]}{1 - R_\Theta I_{RMS}^2 \delta R_{ON}D}$$

MOSFET	Gate Charge Q_G(nC)	Drain-Source Resistance, R_{DS} (mΩ)	Rise Time, t_r (ns)	Fall Time, t_f (ns)
FDP6030	17	24	20	16
IRL7833	32	3.8	50	6.9
IRFU014	11	200	50	19
IRF7401	48	22	72	92
FDS6880	27	15	18	23

This table lists several comparable power n-channel MOSFETs that would be ideal for implementation into the circuit. From the data sheets, the most pertinent parameters have been chosen for power loss analysis,

including gate charge, drain-source resistance, and the rise and fall times typical of switching operation.

With switching frequency, f = 100kHz, V_S=5V, I_D=500mA

MOSFET	P_C(mW)	P_Q(mW)	P_S(mW)	Total Loss (mW)
FDP6030	6	8.5	4.5	19.0
IRL7833	0.95	16	7.1125	24.0625
IRFU014	50	5.5	8.625	64.125
IRF7401	5.5	24	20.5	50
FDS6880	3.75	13.5	5.125	22.375

After using the parameters of each FET to calculate the losses due to R_{DS}, the gate charge, and switching rise and fall times, it is clear that the FDP6030 from Fairchild Semiconductors is the best choice. The losses taken from each FET increases as frequency increases, but at our switching frequency of 100kHz, the losses found in the FDP6030 are still relatively insignificant and is definitely the least among comparable MOSFETs.

4.1.3 Inductor Selection

In an effort to save both money and time, an inductor was tested and designed in the lab. The advantage was that we were able to make an

inductor using readily available material that did not have to be purchased from a manufacturer. Also, with given design constraints, we were able to successfully make an inductor with the desired amount of inductance for the circuit. To create the inductor, an experiment was used that would generate highly consistent results with those obtained from theoretical predictions employing formulas derived from Faraday's law, the Biot-Savart law and Ampere's law.

An inductor serves its most common purpose in circuits to store energy. Inductance occurs due to a magnetic field that forms around a current-carrying conductor. When an electric current flows through the conductor, magnetic flux proportional to the current is created. A change in the current results in a change in the magnetic flux that generates an electromotive force that acts against the change. Inductance is a measure of the amount of this force (EMF) generated for each unit change in current. There are many parameters that govern the inductance of a given inductor—such as the material wrapped around the inductance, the type of conductor, number of windings or turns, as well as the size of each turn.

An inductor is basically a coil of conducting material, typically copper wire that is wrapped around some sort of core. Inductors come in many different shapes and sizes; a circular wire loop, coaxial cable, air-cored solenoid, and ferromagnetic cored toroids are just some examples. For our purposes, we chose to create a ferromagnetic toroid using a toroid obtained from the Atwater Kent ECE shop and a length of copper wire. The core chosen was of ferromagnetic material with a radius, a (from center to the middle of

the core) of 20mm, outer radius, *b* of 38mm, and height, *c* of 29mm. The inductance is given by

$$L = \frac{\mu N^2 c}{2\pi} \ln \frac{a}{b}$$

where μ is the permeability of the core, and N is the number of turns of the wire around the toroid. However μ is not known initially. A different method of obtaining the inductance is necessary.

Having created the basic structure of a toroidal inductor, with wire wrapped around a toroidal core, there were several ways to measure the actual inductance of the toroid. The inductance of a toroidal core with a circular cross section is given by:

$$L = \mu_0 \mu_r \frac{N^2 r^2}{D}$$

where L is the inductance in Henries, μ_0 is the permeability of free space = $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ H/m, μ_r is the relative permeability of core material, N is the number of turns of the wire, r is the radius of coil winding in meters, and D is the overall diameter of the toroid in meters. In order to find the inductance of the experimental inductor, we used a method that would compare the voltages across R and Z in an L R circuit.
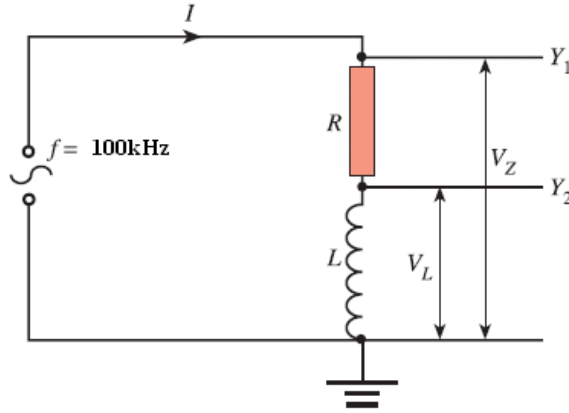
Figure 29: Circuit setup for measuring the inductance of the toroid

First we measured the resistance r of the inductor using a multimeter, noting that it was very small, 45mΩ. We then connected the toroid, L, in series with a resistor, R, and a signal generator with sinusoidal output set at a convenient frequency f. For the experiment, it is desired that the relationship between the frequency and inductance, ωL (where ω is 2πf), is much larger than the resistance, R, which is also much larger than the resistance of the inductor, r. Given this, we chose f=50kHz, and R=20kΩ. In theory, knowing the voltage across the inductor, V_L and the voltage across the resistor, V_Z, we can calculate the inductance based on the relationship of the voltages, the resistance R, and the angular frequency, ω. From $V_L = IX_L$,

$$V_L = \frac{V_Z}{Z}\omega L = \frac{V_Z \omega L}{\sqrt{R^2 + (\omega L)^2}} \approx \frac{V_Z}{R}\omega L$$

Using a multimeter, we measure V_L =2.2mV, and V_Z=0.717mV and $\omega = 2\pi f = 2\pi \times 50\text{kHz} = 314159$ rad/s. With the relationship of the voltages, resistance and frequency, the inductance is given as

$$L = \frac{V_L R}{V_Z \omega}$$

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Substituting the found values, we obtain L = 498µH, which is very close to the desired results from simulation of 500µH. Obtaining this value took several attempts as the amount of turns N of the wire around the toroid had to be changed with each experiment. With a toroidal core inductor with inductance of 498µH, we were able to use it directly with our circuit by inserting it as any other type of inductor.

4.1.4 Diode Selection

One of the main goals of the circuit design is to minimize power losses and maximize efficiency. This goes for basically every part that is implemented in our circuit, including the diode in our boost DC-DC converter. When boosting the voltage, the diode allows current to flow to the load while eliminating the possibility of any significant reverse current flowing in the opposite direction. A reverse current would indicate an unnecessary loss of charge back through the converter. This is undesirable as it reduces the efficiency of the overall design.

The International Rectifier Schottky Diode was chosen as it was optimized for a very low forward voltage drop, with moderate leakage. It is typically used with converters and also allows for reverse battery protection. The diode has a maximum reverse voltage of 60V with a current rating of 3.3A. The maximum amount of both voltage and current from the solar panel will always be within this range, and so the diode will perfectly match the constraints of our design. The diode is also labeled to have high frequency operation and high temperature epoxy encapsulation for enhanced mechanical strength and added safety. With a very low voltage drop of 0.6V (typ.), the power losses due to the diode are relatively insignificant.
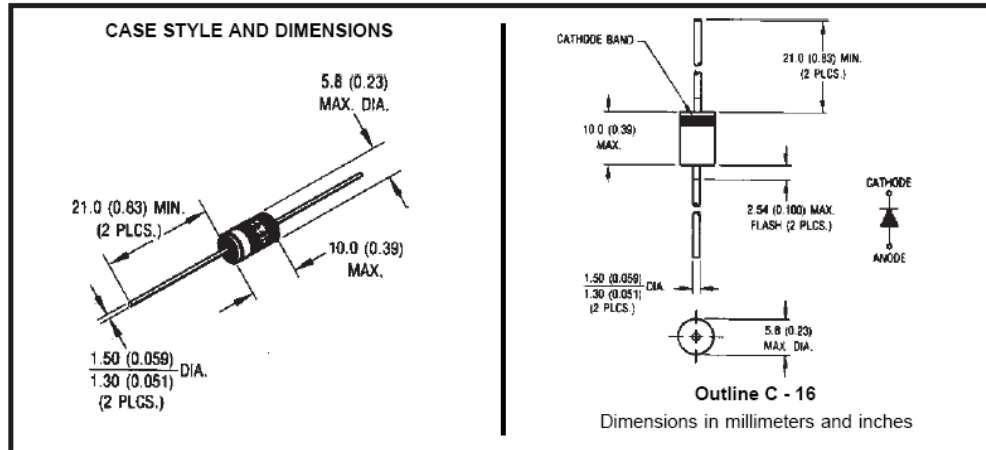
Figure 30: Schottky Diode physical specifications

4.1.5 Voltage Regulator

In order to provide a supply rail of 5 volts to supply the amplifier with a reference voltage, and to provide power for both the MOSFET driver and PIC microprocessor, a typical voltage regulator is implemented. The LT1121 voltage regulator was chosen to take the voltage from the solar panel power supply, and drop it down to a 5-volt supply. The FET driver, microprocessor and the reference pin of the amplifier will draw much less than the maximum 150mA output of the LT1121. The regulator offers a wide range of input from +/-30V for a regulated output of 3.3V or 5V. The LT1121 offers adjustable output, however the regulated 5V will be sufficient for our application. An important feature of the regulator is its ripple rejection. The circuit that we are designing will have ripple due to constant switching when in operation. The LT1121 can stabilize any ripple with the addition of external capacitors. The LT1121 specifies stability with only 0.33μF at its input and output. Bypassing either at 1μF will ensure that stability is always maintained.
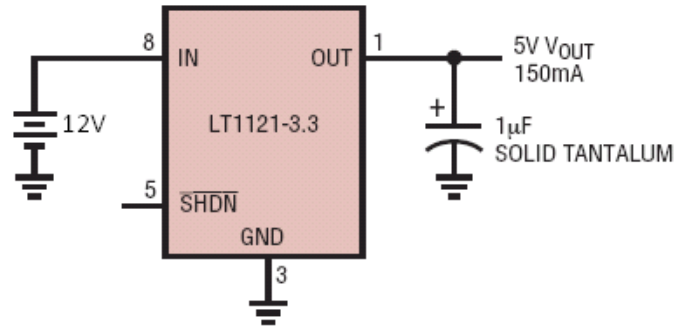
Figure 31: LT1121 pin configuration and typical setup

4.1.6 Voltage Sensor

To sense the voltage from the solar panel, we will take the voltage directly from the power source. The challenge lies in stepping the voltage down from the solar panel, so that the microprocessor can handle and monitor these values. The microprocessor can handle up to only 5V; anything more will destroy the microprocessor. To be safe, we will allow no more than 3V to the microprocessor. This can be done simply by implementing a voltage divider. In order to obtain values for either resistor in the divider, the equation used is:

$$\frac{V_{SOLAR}}{V_{PIC}} = \frac{R_1}{(R_1 + R_2)}$$

With the maximum V_{SOLAR} as 12V, and the maximum value for V_{PIC} as 3V, we obtain the relation: $R_1 = 3R_2$. This relation will maintain an input to the microprocessor that will range from zero to 3 volts. We simply chose $R_2 = 3k\Omega$ and $R_1 = 1k\Omega$. These values for the resistors will ensure that no more than 3V will ever go microprocessor

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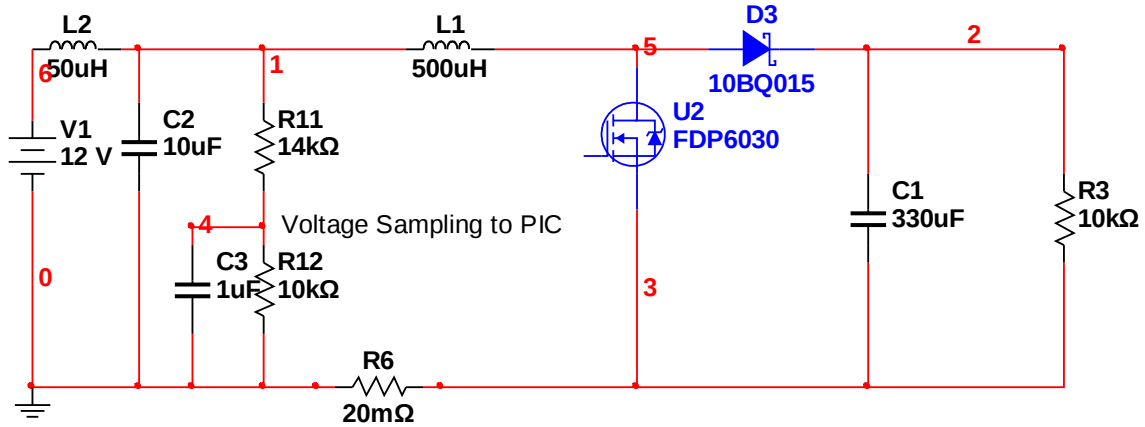
Figure 32: DC-DC converter with voltage sampling voltage divider

4.1.7 Differential Operational Amplifier

An amplifier is needed in the circuit in order to amplify the voltage signal associated with the current sample coming from the solar cell. We have seen that the maximum amount of voltage that the current sense resistor will see will be along the lines of 30mV, although typical values will be much less—the voltage across the resistor does not reach the order of 30mV until about 74% duty cycle. To be more accurate when we track and maintain the peak power point, it is essential that this signal be modified. The current range between 0-30mV will be too small for the microprocessor to distinguish any viable change in current to output a resulting pwm signal. The signal must be amplified to at least 1V maximum. The microprocessor will not be able to take any more than 5V sampling, as we have observed with the voltage divider. In order to be safe and accurate, it is important that we set the gain of the amplifier accordingly.
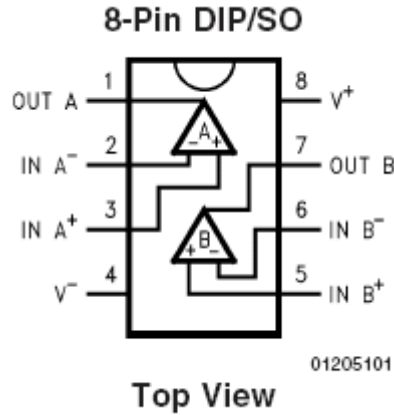
Figure 33: LMC6462 Operational Amplifier pin setup

The LMC6462 rail-to-rail input and output CMOS operational amplifier is an appropriate choice for our design specifications. One of the amplifier's most important qualities is that it features very low power consumption. The rail-to-rail performance of the amplifier, combined with its high voltage gain makes it unique among rail-to-rail amps. The system can operate with a single power source for reference, and does not need a negative power supply, which is not available in our circuit design.
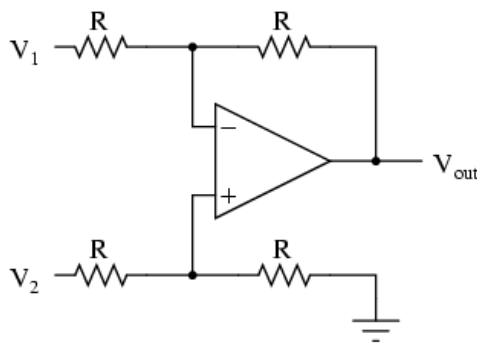
Figure 34: Operational amplifier gain setting

Like most operational amplifiers, it is relatively simple to set the output gain by configuring external resistors. To simplify matters, we set the

gain for the voltage into the microprocessor to never exceed 1.2V. Using external resistors and the input voltage, we can set the output voltage to determine the gain necessary. The output from the amplifier is given by the relation:

$$V_{OUT} = \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right) * V_{IN}$$

The gain, then, is set by the relation between R_2 and R_1:

$$G = \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)$$

With a set gain, we will be able to amplify the current samples to a desired range for the input of the microprocessor.

4.1.8 Current Sensor

The current sensor of our circuit will consist of the current sense resistor, and the differential operational amplifier. The current sense resistor will be connected to the solar panel negative voltage terminal and will connect to the source of the switching MOSFET, connecting it to ground. The inverting input will be connected to the side of the resistor connected to ground, while the non-inverting input will be connected to the side that goes to the source of the FET. A 20mΩ current sense resistor is chosen for sensing the current. This resistance was set low enough to be accurate. If the resistance is too low, then the gain would be forced too high. With the maximum voltage across the resistor as 30mV, the current through the resistor is :

$$I = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{30mV}{0.02\Omega} = 1.5A$$

In order to make sure that there are no over-voltages, it is safe to presume that the maximum voltage to be sent to the microprocessor is 1.2V. We can obtain the gain needed by dividing the voltage that will go into the microprocessor by the maximum voltage across the current sense resistor.

$$Gain = \frac{1.2V}{30mV} = 40$$

If we choose 1kΩ for R_1, it is appropriate to use a 43kΩ resistor for a gain of 40. This will result in a voltage slightly over 1.2V, but this is not a problem because the microprocessor will still be able to take the results because it will always be less than 5V.
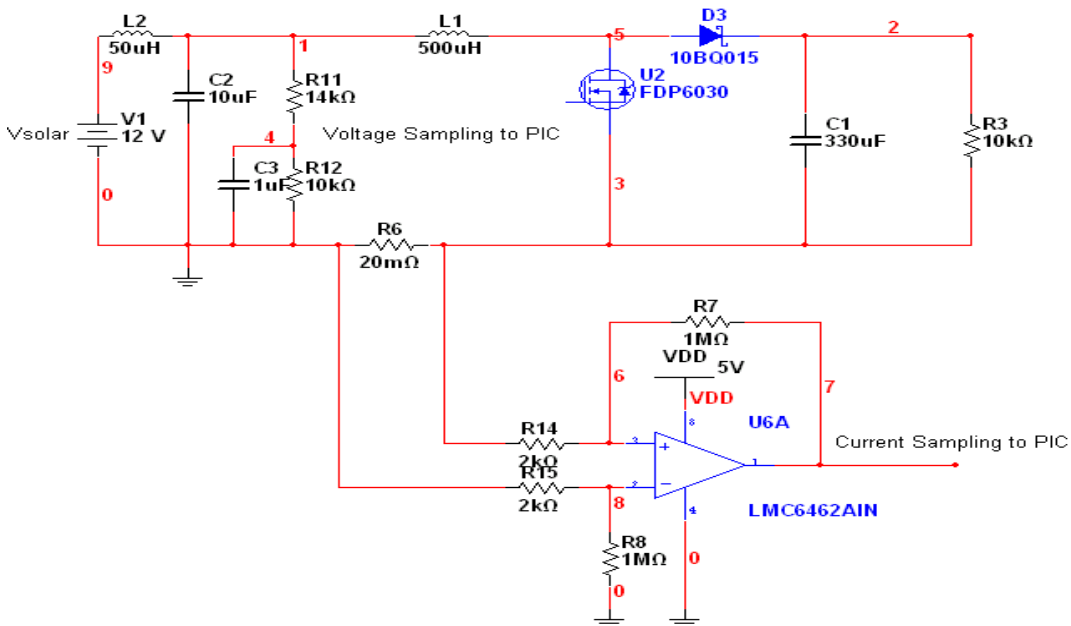
Figure 35: Current Sensing schematic

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4.1.9 Microprocessor Selection

The design of the system requires a function generator which can vary the pulse width on a square wave and control the duty cycle. This signal will go to the power MOSFET of the DC/DC converter, which will allow the system to run at the maximum power point. A microprocessor was added in order to achieve these requirements. A microprocessor will allow for samples of the voltage and current to be taken, averaged, and then based on their values, an appropriate signal could be sent out in the form of a PWM signal. The PIC12F683 from microchip was chosen to accomplish these requirements. It was chosen because of the small size of the chip, its ability to take in multiple signals and convert them to digital, and its ability to output a PWM signal with a variable duty cycle.

This is a high performance PIC processor, which only has 8 pins. Five pins are I/O and one is input only. This allows for a small microprocessor which will not take up much room in the design


```
                VDD ──►│ 1        8 │◄── VSS
GP5/T1CKI/P1A*/OSC1/CLKIN ◄─►│ 2  PIC12F615/  7 │◄─► GP0/AN0/CIN+/P1B/ICSPDAT
GP4/AN3/CIN1-/T1G/P1B*/OSC2/CLKOUT ◄─►│ 3   HV615   6 │◄─► GP1/AN1/CIN0-/VREF/ICSPCLK
      GP3/T1G*/MCLR/VPP ──►│ 4        5 │◄─► GP2/AN2/T0CKI/INT/COUT/CCP1/P1A
```
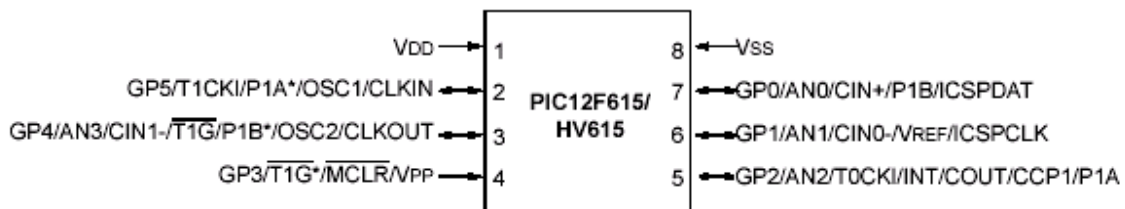
* Alternate pin function.

The microprocessor used needs to be able to work with analog signals that are created from the system, because of this coexistence it is important to look at the electrical specifications of the PIC. The maximum voltage from the photovoltaic array will be close to 12V. The voltage range on pin 1 (V_{DD}) with respect to Vss is -0.3V to 6.5V. Therefore the V_{DD} value must be reduced before entering the PIC. This is accomplished by the use of a voltage regulator, explained earlier in the report. The voltage regulator will keep the signal from the Photovoltaic array at 5V which is in the desired range for the PIC. There is also a maximum current value of 95mA allowed for current into the V_{DD} pin and out of the Vss. These specifications must be met for the PIC to run successfully. In order to write the code for the PIC12F683 we used MPLAB IDE which is a free software found on the microchip website, www.microchip.com. To program the PIC the PICSTARTplus was used, which was made available to us in the laboratories at WPI. Assembly language was chosen because of the low number of instructions needed and with our familiarity with the language. Analog to Digital Converter

The ADC on the PIC12F683 is internally integrated into the chip. It is a sample and hold ADC, which will sample the analog signal at a certain sampling frequency and store the digital representation in two separate registers, one register will hold bits of the value and the other register will hold a byte of the value. The order that the ten-bit digital representation of the analog signal is stored can either be right justified or left justified depending on the user's preference.
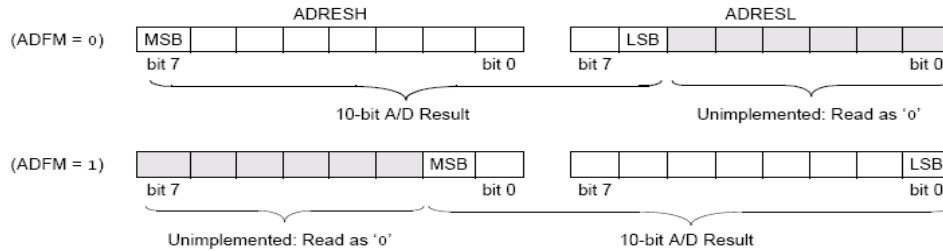
Figure 37: Right and Left Justification of ADC Result

There are a total of four analog input pins; each pin is called a channel. The PIC can only perform one conversion at a time and the user must specify which channel is to be used before beginning the conversion process. The conversion takes about 4.67uS to perform, and then the result can be stored and manipulated by the user. The figure below shows the block diagram of the ADC.
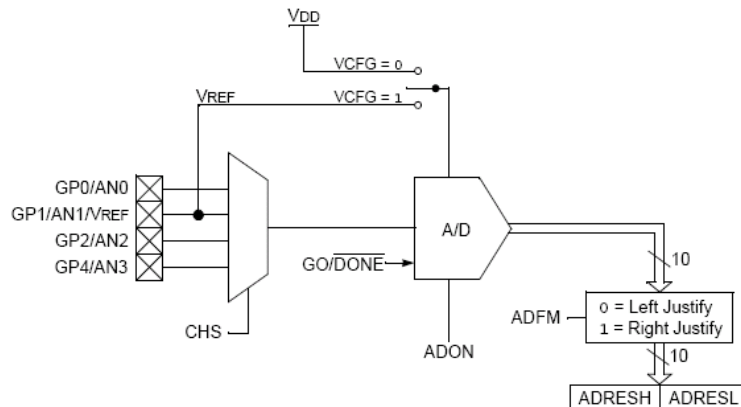
Figure 38:.Block Diagram of ADC

As you can see from the block diagram the reference voltage can either be taken from Vdd or from another voltage coming into the ADC. In this project the 5V from the Photovoltaic array going into the Vdd pin of the chip is used

as the reference voltage. This means that there are up to 2^{10} different

values which can be found each in the interval of 0.00488V.

$$5V/ 2^{10} \text{ bits} = 0.0488 \text{ V/bit}$$

Pulse Width Modulation (PWM)

The PWM signal created by the PIC can be controlled by internal

registers. The following figure shows what the signal will look like when it is

sourced from the PIC to the MOSFET driver.
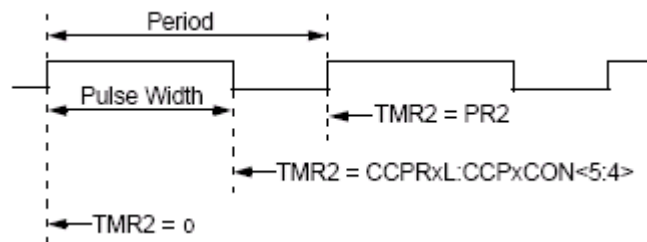
Figure 39:PWM signal from PIC12F683

Both the period and the pulse width of the signal are determined by

initializing specific registers. Also it is necessary to find the value for the time

it takes to make one oscillation, this is called Tosc. Tosc is set by an internal

oscillator control register which also controls prescalar and postscalar values

for the various timers on the PIC, as well as determines whether the oscillator

is set by internal circuitry or external circuitry.

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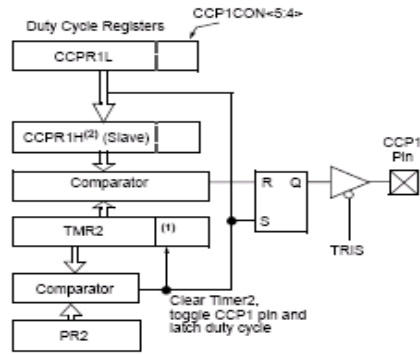
Figure 40. PWM Block Diagram

The block diagram shows the PR2 register and the CCPR1L:CCPR1H registers and how they will flow into one another, the duty cycle is set by writing to these registers. The signal outputs from pin CCP1 which is pin 5 on the chip.

Tosc is found from the oscillating frequency (Fosc). It is simply 1/Fosc. The TMR2 Prescale value is set by the TMR2CON register which turns on timer 2 as well as sets a prescale value which will tell timer 2 what frequency to oscillate at. Register PR2 simply sets a value between 0-255 which helps determine the period of the PWM signal. The default Fosc is 4MHz, the prescale value will be set to 1:1, and the register PR2 will be set to 9 making the period [10*4*(1/4MHz)*1] = 10ms.

$$PWM\ Period\ =\ [(PR2)+1] \bullet 4 \bullet TOSC \bullet (TMR2\ Prescale\ Value)$$

The pulse width of the PWM is determined both by the Tosc, and the TMR2 prescale value but is also determined without the PR2 register. Instead two other registers are used, CCPR1L and CCP1CON. Both are used for the capture and compare module of the PIC. Together the two CCP registers can

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store up to 10 bits, which when compared to the PR2 register multiplied by four amount to the same number.

$$Pulse\ Width\ =\ (CCPR1L{:}CCP1CON{<}5{:}4{>})\ \bullet\ TOSC\ \bullet\ (TMR2\ Prescale\ Value)$$

When the pulse width of the PWM is divided by the period it results in the duty

cycle which is given by the equation below.

$$Duty\ Cycle\ Ratio\ =\ \frac{(CCPR1L{:}CCP1CON{<}5{:}4{>})}{4(PR2+1)}$$

This allows for the duty cycle to be anywhere between 0% and 100%.

4.2 Controls

Algorithm

- The algorithm begins by initializing the PWM signal to have a 50% duty cycle.
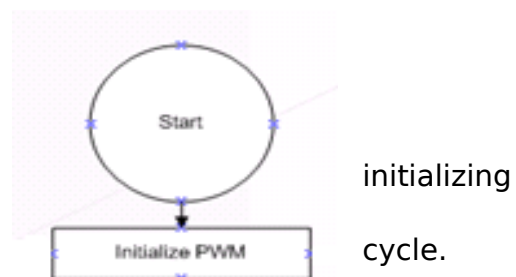
- The next two steps of the algorithm are to take samples of the voltage and current, average them, then multiply them together. This takes many steps, and took up a large part of the code writing.
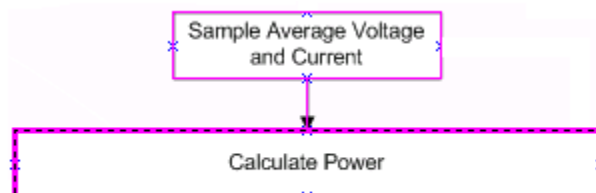
- First The ADC must be initialized to get Current.

- Then that value taken must be stored in registers RESHI:RESLI

- Three more current samples are taken

- Four current samples are averaged

- ADC is initialized to get Voltage

- Value is stored in registers RESHV:RESLV

- Three more voltage samples are taken

- Four voltage samples are averaged

- Last the two values are multiplied together to get power

This will be stored in registers PowerHI:PowerLO.

- The next step in the algorithm is to
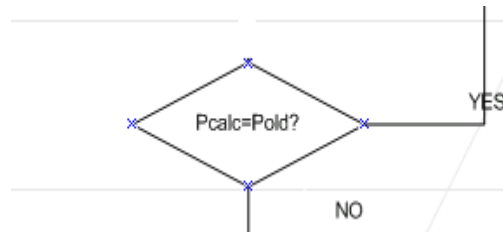
compare the calculated power value to

the last stored power value. In the first cycle the last stored power value will

equal zero so the calculated power should be more than the last stored

power value. If the two values are equal then the PIC will get new samples of

voltage and current. If they are not equal then the PIC will move on to the

next step.

- The next step is to find a positive or
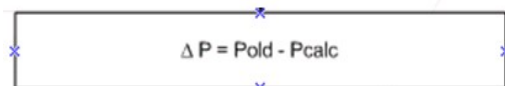
negative value based on the results from the last step. If the new power

value if greater than the old value then it will give a positive value. Or if the

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new power value is less than the old power value then it gives a negative value.

- The next step is to check if the duty cycle was increased or decreased in the

$$\Delta DC = DC\_old - DC\_new$$

last cycle. If it was increased then the duty cycle gets a positive value, and if it was decreased it gets a negative value.

- The next step is to find the slope of

$$Slope = \Delta P/\Delta DC$$

the ratio of the Power/Duty Cycle. In the last two steps either a positive or a negative value was found for the power and the duty cycle. This step finds whether or not the slope of the ratio is positive or negative. If the power was increased and the duty cycle was increased then the slope will be positive. If the power was increased, but the duty cycle was decreased then the slope will be negative. If the power was decreased, but the duty cycle was increased then the slope will be negative. If the power was decreased and the duty cycle was decreased then the slope will turn out positive. This is very important to know for the next step.

- This step will determine whether the duty cycle should be increased or decreased. If

NO   Slope >= 0 ?   YES

Decrease DC   Increase DC

the slope is positive then the duty cycle will be increased. If the slope is negative then the duty cycle will be decreased. The slope should never be
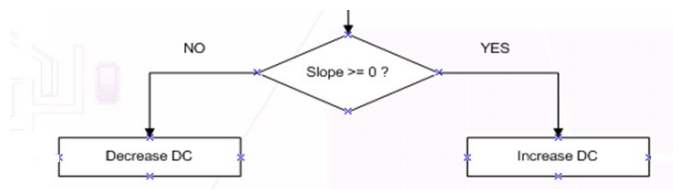
zero because of the previous step where if the power values were equal then the PIC would resample.

5.0 Results

Within the given time period of 14 weeks, the design portion of the major qualifying project was successfully completed. A design for a maximum peak power tracker has been successfully obtained, however, a functional working prototype was not reached. This was due to several factors. The largest factor for unsuccessful completion of assembly was time constraints. There were many inconveniences with chip selection and acquiring parts. Faulty MOSFETs could also be blamed for poor circuit operation. The following are open-loop results obtained by manipulating a function generate pulse-width modulated signal in conjunction with the DC-DC converter in the designed circuit.

Duty Cycle	Voltage	Current	Power	Vload
0	12	0.01	0.12	12.68
10	12	0.03	0.36	13.7
20	12	0.03	0.36	15.4
30	12	0.03	0.36	17.5
40	12	0.04	0.48	20.4
50	12	0.05	0.6	24.5
60	12	0.07	0.84	30.75
65	12	0.09	1.08	35.2
68	12	0.1	1.2	38.4
70	12	0.22	2.64	40.8
72	11.4	0.45	5.13	43
74	10.6	0.45	4.77	43

75	10	0.45	4.5	43
76	9.7	0.45	4.36	43
78	8.8	0.45	3.96	43
80	8	0.45	3.6	40.5
90	3.9	0.45	1.755	40
100	0	0.45	0	40
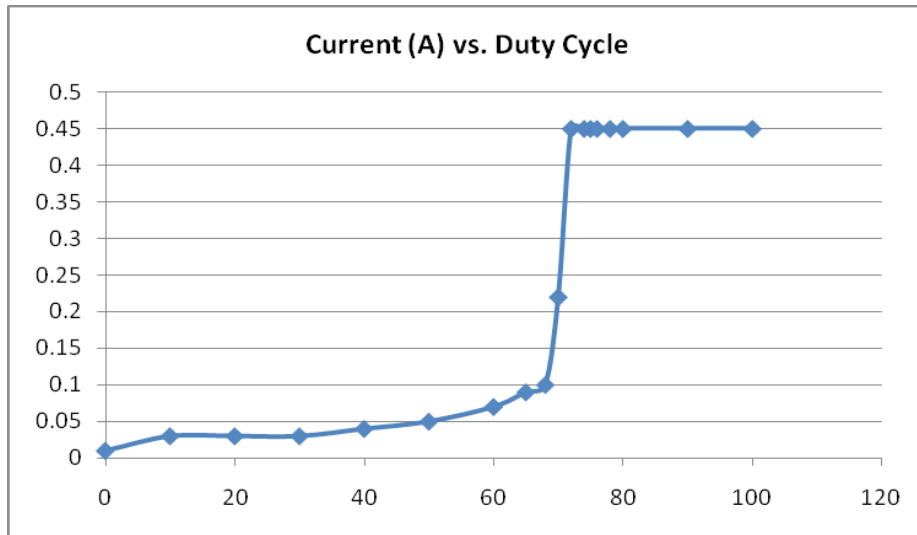
Figure 41: Current vs. Duty Cycle thevenin equivalent source

Observing the current, there is a great increase at around 70% duty cycle. This is a rather abrupt increase, but follows overall the trend of the current from a source with increasing duty cycle. As the duty cycle increases, the current is supposed to increase, and as the current increases the voltage decreases. With increasing duty cycle, the voltage goes to zero, and the current nearly reaches its maximum of about 500mA.
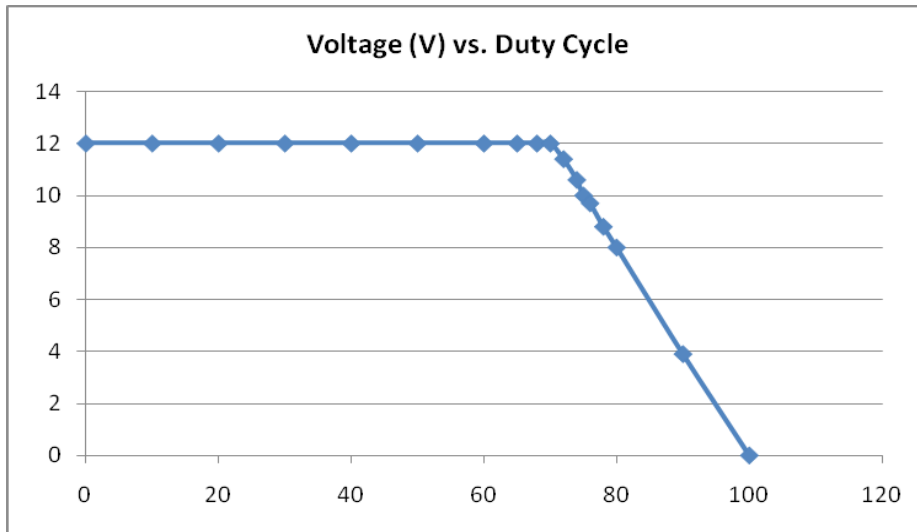
Figure 42: Voltage vs. Duty Cycle thevenin equivalent source

With an increase of duty cycle, the voltage responds by decreasing. This follows the operation of the DC-DC converter where the voltage seeks to go to its minimum when the duty cycle increases. We saw this as the voltage reaches zero at 100% duty cycle.
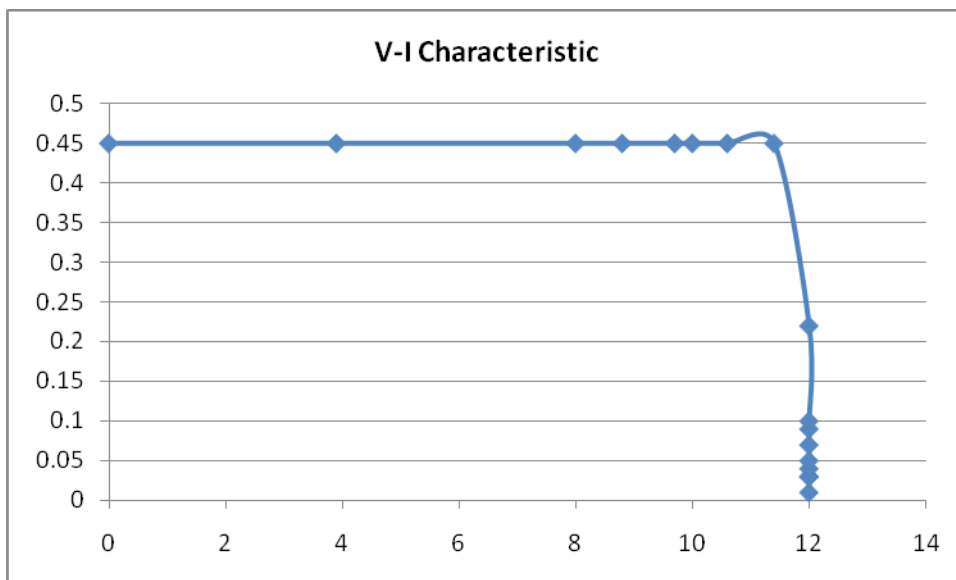
Figure 43: Source V-I characteristic

The V-I characteristic of the thevenin source is modeled very closely to the expected V-I characteristic of the solar cell, with an open circuit voltage at close to 12V. This result was one of strongest points of evidence of a successful solar cell simulation. There is a slight spike before the drop at 12V, this is most likely attributed to noise, as there is plenty with a constantly switching circuit.
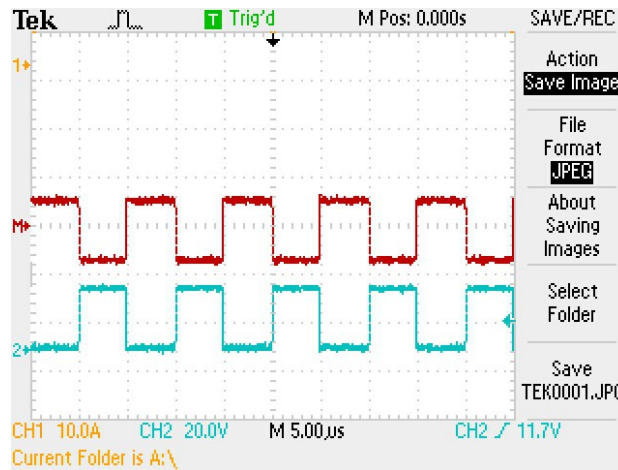
Figure 44: Inductor voltage and MOSFET gate PWM signal
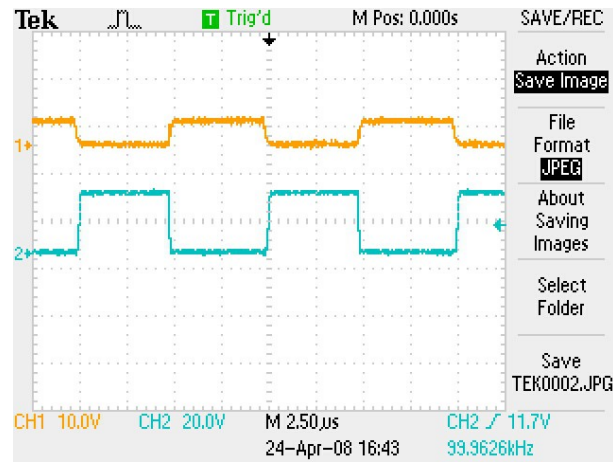
Figure 45: MOSFET gate voltage vs. MOSFET drain voltage
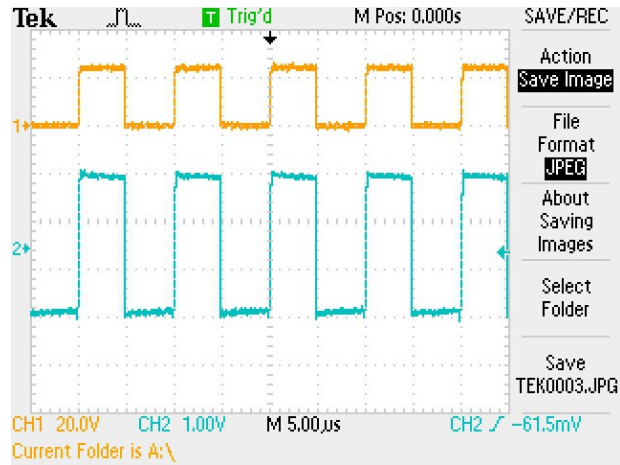
Figure 46: MOSFET gate voltage vs. PWM signal

The output signals of the DC-DC converter imply accurate operation. When the switch is off, the inductor charges in energy, and discharges when the switch is turned on. There is minimal lag between the gate voltage of the MOSFET and the actual PWM signal. The drain voltage versus the gate of the MOSFET is also observed.
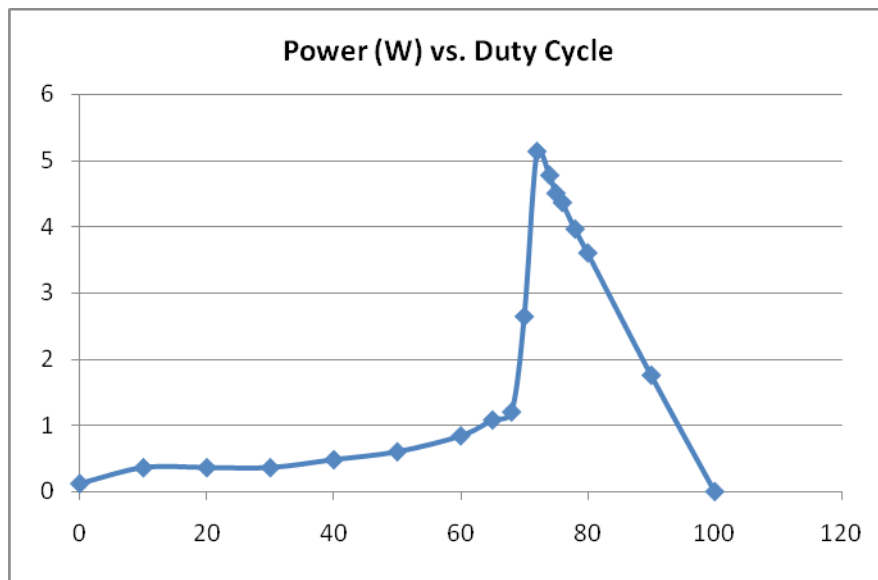
Figure 47: Power vs. Duty Cycle

The resulting power curve from the open loop thevenin equivalent circuit is demonstrated by the above figure. We see a large spike at approximately 71% duty cycle. This is the moment when the voltage is still at its greatest while the current already has reached close to its maximum value. With a working circuit, it would be desired to stay at this 71% duty cycle or close to it. The microprocessor would oscillate between values of duty cycle around this 71% duty cycle value. If at all the current or voltage coming from the power source decreases, the duty cycle would move up from the 71% value until a lower value is obtained when observing the power from the source. When the lower value is obtained, the duty cycle is increased again, until a decrease can be seen. This oscillation would prove a successful design.

When the microprocessor is attached to the circuit it will output a PWM signal which will allow the output power to be boosted like we intended. Also the Duty Cycle of the PWM signal will sweep between its upper and lower limits in order to find where the maximum value is. The problem is that when the Duty Cycle is sweeping between its limits it cannot seem to find where the maximum value is and as a result will continue sweeping. There are a couple of places where our tracking system could be flawed. The first thought is that there could be an error in the computer code which doesn't read that the power is changing and therefore will not perform like expected. The microprocessor is hard to test without adding to the actual circuit because the program which we used for programming the PIC doesn't have a sufficient simulator it which will allow for testing it in a circuit such as ours. Another reason why our tracking system might not be working could be that

the signal representing the current which goes though the operational amplifier could have too small of a range to be picked up by the microprocessor and therefore could be disrupting the results of the PIC.

Theoretical Operation

Theoretically when the PIC is working correctly it will track very closely where the maximum peak power is. The PIC starts with a Duty Cycle of 50% and then will delay for roughly a second to allow the value of the power across the load to either increase or decrease. Then samples will be taken. At 50% the voltage will be around 12 V and the current will be around .05A. Through the voltage divider the voltage going into the PIC will be roughly 2.7V, and the current going in will be recorded as a voltage which is equal to a function of the current. This will be roughly equal to .48V. These values will then go through an analog to digital converter which will translate them to a digital representation. For roughly every 5mV there is a binary representation. For the voltage the value would be close to 553, and for the current it will be close to 98. Those digital representation are then multiplied together to give a digital representation value of the power. Once this is found it is compared to the last stored value of Power, if the new Power is higher, then the slope will be positive, and if the new value is lower, then the slope will be negative. Next the PIC checks to see if the duty cycle was raised or lowered the last time it was changed. If the duty cycle was increased the last time it was changed then the slope of the duty cycle will be positive, and if the duty cycle was decreased the last time it was changed then it will be negative. Next the PIC checks the derivative of the slope of the Power over the Duty Cycle. If the slope ends up being positive then the duty cycle will be

increased, and if the slope ends up being negative the duty cycle will be decreased. The amount that the duty cycle is changed by each time is 2.5% because this is the minimum allowable step with an output frequency of 100kHz for the PWM going to the MOSFET. After this step where the duty cycle increases or decreases the program will delay roughly another second to allow for changes in the voltage, current, and power and will repeat the process again from taking samples.

6.0 Future Recommendations

There were several problems encountered throughout the design of the circuit that we would like to avoid in the future. First of all, the amount of time taken for design and testing should have been concentrated more. There was a shorter design and test period, of 14 weeks versus the 21 weeks typical for major qualifying project work. With such a serious time constraint, it would have been beneficial to spend more time testing rather than taking the time to make sure that each part was the ideal one for the circuit. Either way, more time or better time management was a key issue that should definitely be worked out for future reference.

The problems with the parts obtained most likely stemmed from misunderstanding the exact function of the component. It is vital to understand the design parameters associated with each component to be sure that it does not breakdown or have a poor effect on the overall circuit. In the future, it would be beneficial to eliminate the noise associated with the circuit. There was no significant work in minimizing the noise in the circuit while attempting to implement a working circuit both quickly, and efficiently. There are very few downsides with taking the time and effort to design filters to decrease the inherent noise found in a switching circuit. There are minimal power losses involved with adding filters, however the benefits to cleaner signals would probably lead to more accurate and reliable results.

It would also be helpful to perform tests using actual solar panels. Doing such tests would allow us to observe operation of a typical solar cell array, rather than thevenin equivalents or simulator circuits. It would be

useful to perform tests both indoor and outdoor to observe both controlled and actual results for operation. Testing the circuit to perform dynamically with light changes would give better more realistic results to see if the circuit is performing as it actually should.

It is often useful to apply a solar panel power source to charge some sort of battery. This can be seen in many typical applications that rely on the sun for power. In theory, when using a battery in conjunction with solar cell operation, the battery holds the purpose of charging up energy so that the system will be able to operate even without sunlight. This is useful for both day and night situations, when in the evening there is no available light. With a charged battery, the system will still be able to operate. As efficient as our design may be, without light, the system receives no power, and will not function. It is also useful to charge a battery so that there is a negative power source, and there is a different amount of voltage that can be used without implementing something like a voltage divider or regulator to regulate the voltage, or an amplifier to step it up.

7.0 Conclusion

Solar power continues to demonstrate its potential as a breakthrough for renewable energy. As companies continue the research into solar power, the technology for them is becoming more and more useful. One of the main concerns for fixing problems involved with solar panel is of solar panel efficiency. A major goal for this solar panel application design was to optimize efficiency whenever possible. This was done through meticulous examination of product data sheets in order to obtain the most desirable part, particularly with the least amount of associated power loss. Continued effort to maximize efficiency should always be taken when designing solar applications to increase their usability and value.

The design of a maximum peak power tracking system proved to be a serious design challenge. There are many factors involved when designing a circuit that relies on both digital and analog aspects of circuitry. There are inherently many problems when designing a system that relies heavily on digital circuitry. Errant code writing is one such problem, and can only be remedied through trial and experience. Overall, the digital portion of the circuit was performing as it should, however the marriage between the digital and analog portion was where we ran into difficulty.

As there are many problems associated with digital design, there are also issues that occur with analog implementation. With simulations of

components, the transition to actual design is ideally very easy. However, simulation does not always match implementation. The first issue that caused problems was the MOSFET driver we had chosen. The first driver had all the ideal functions of a driver and would have been perfect for the design, however the packaging of the driver was too small to work with, and had to be sent out to be soldered onto an adapter that converts the microchip to be compatible with an 8-dip setup. This took much needed time. Also, even with added precaution (added a heatsink), several MOSFETs were rendered useless when the circuit was in operation. These are problems that any design engineer may encounter: faulty components, shipping delays and issues, and difficulty when translating the designed schematics to the physical board.

Although there were many problems involved with the design process of this peak power tracker, the process provided invaluable experience for the future. It will be very beneficial to take the experience we have had to address potential problems that may arise in our futures as design engineers. The experience was a valuable lesson in the problems that may occur when designing, ordering, assembling, and testing parts. We would have preferred to have a working prototype at the end of the design process, however the experience was enlightening and challenging at the same time.

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Full Schematic
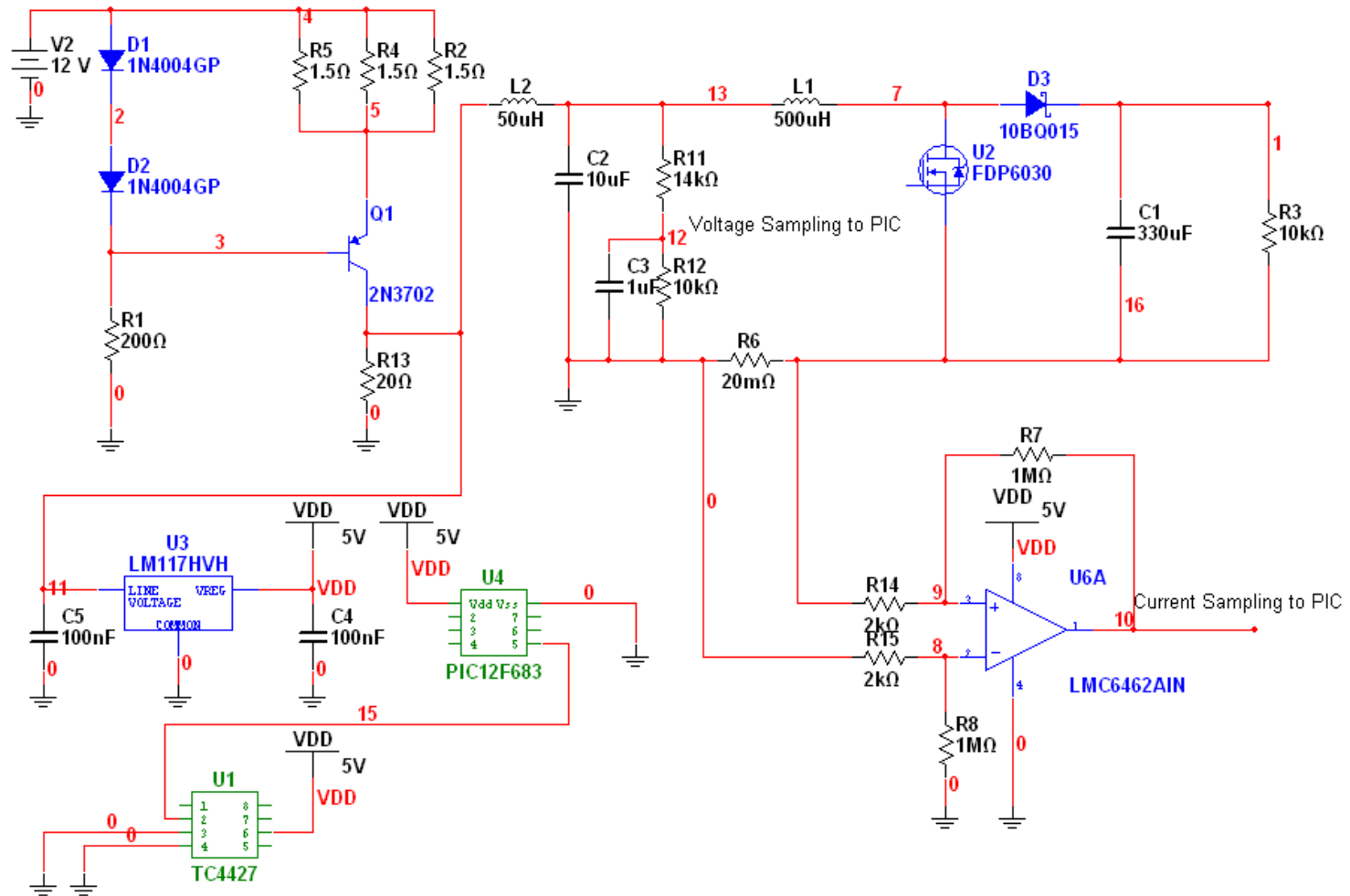
Datasheets

TC4427 MOSFET Driver

MICROCHIP
TC4426/TC4427/TC4428

1.5A Dual High-Speed Power MOSFET Drivers

Features

- High Peak Output Current – 1.5A
- Wide Input Supply Voltage Operating Range:
  - 4.5V to 18V
- High Capacitive Load Drive Capability – 1000 pF in 25 nsec (typ.)
- Short Delay Times – 40 nsec (typ.)
- Matched Rise and Fall Times
- Low Supply Current:
  - With Logic '1' Input – 4 mA
  - With Logic '0' Input – 400 µA
- Low Output Impedance – 7Ω
- Latch-Up Protected: Will Withstand 0.5A Reverse Current
- Input Will Withstand Negative Inputs Up to 5V
- ESD Protected – 4 kV
- Pinouts Same as TC426/TC427/TC428

Applications

- Switch Mode Power Supplies
- Line Drivers
- Pulse Transformer Drive

General Description

The TC4426/TC4427/TC4428 are improved versions of the earlier TC426/TC427/TC428 family of MOSFET drivers. The TC4426/TC4427/TC4428 devices have matched rise and fall times when charging and discharging the gate of a MOSFET.

These devices are highly latch-up resistant under any conditions within their power and voltage ratings. They are not subject to damage when up to 5V of noise spiking (of either polarity) occurs on the ground pin. They can accept, without damage or logic upset, up to 500 mA of reverse current (of either polarity) being forced back into their outputs. All terminals are fully protected against electrostatic discharge (ESD) up to 4 kV.

The TC4426/TC4427/TC4428 MOSFET drivers can easily charge/discharge 1000 pF gate capacitances in under 30 nsec and provide low enough impedances in both the 'ON' and 'OFF' states to ensure the MOSFET's intended state will not be affected, even by large transients.

Other compatible drivers are the TC4426A/TC4427A/TC4428A family of devices. The TC4426A/TC4427A/TC4428A devices have matched leading and falling edge input-to-output delay times, in addition to the matched rise and fall times of the TC4426/TC4427/TC4428 devices.

Package Types

93
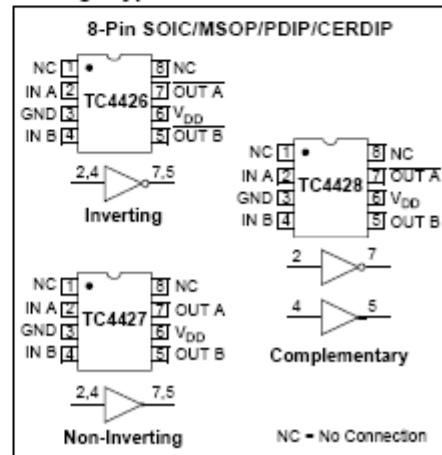
Functional Block Diagram

Note 1: TC4426 has two inverting drivers; TC4427 has two non-inverting drivers; TC4428 has one inverting and one non-inverting driver.

2: Ground any unused driver input.

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1.0 ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Absolute Maximum Ratings †

Supply Voltage .... +22V

Input Voltage, IN A or IN B
.... (V_{DD} + 0.3V) to (GND − 5V)

Package Power Dissipation ($T_A \leq$ 70°C)
PDIP .... 730 mW
CERDIP .... 800 mW
MSOP .... 340 mW
SOIC .... 470 mW

Storage Temperature Range .... -65°C to +150°C

Maximum Junction Temperature .... +150°C

† Stresses above those listed under "Absolute Maximum Ratings" may cause permanent damage to the device. These are stress ratings only and functional operation of the device at these or any other conditions above those indicated in the operation sections of the specifications is not implied. Exposure to Absolute Maximum Rating conditions for extended periods may affect device reliability.

PIN FUNCTION TABLE

Name	Function
NC	No Connection
IN A	Input A
GND	Ground
IN B	Input B
OUT B	Output B
V_{DD}	Supply Input
OUT A	Output A
NC	No Connection

DC CHARACTERISTICS

Electrical Specifications: Unless otherwise noted, T_A = +25°C with 4.5V $\leq V_{DD} \leq$ 18V.

Parameters	Sym	Min	Typ	Max	Units	Conditions
Input						
Logic '1', High Input Voltage	V_{IH}	2.4	—	—	V	Note 2
Logic '0', Low Input Voltage	V_{IL}	—	—	0.8	V	
Input Current	I_{IN}	-1.0	—	+1.0	µA	$0V \leq V_{IN} \leq V_{DD}$
Output						
High Output Voltage	V_{OH}	V_{DD} − 0.025	—	—	V	DC Test
Low Output Voltage	V_{OL}	—	—	0.025	V	DC Test
Output Resistance	R_O	—	7	10	Ω	I_{OUT} = 10 mA, V_{DD} = 18V
Peak Output Current	I_{PK}	—	1.5	—	A	V_{DD} = 18V
Latch-Up Protection Withstand Reverse Current	I_{REV}	—	>0.5	—	A	Duty cycle $\leq$ 2%, t $\leq$ 300 µsec V_{DD} = 18V
Switching Time (Note 1)						
Rise Time	t_R	—	19	30	nsec	Figure 4-1
Fall Time	t_F	—	25	30	nsec	Figure 4-1
Delay Time	t_{D1}	—	20	30	nsec	Figure 4-1
Delay Time	t_{D2}	—	40	50	nsec	Figure 4-1
Power Supply						
Power Supply Current	I_S	—	—	4.5	mA	V_{IN} = 3V (Both inputs)
		—	—	0.4		V_{IN} = 0V (Both inputs)

Note 1: Switching times ensured by design.

  2: For V temperature range devices, the V_{IH} (Min) limit is 2.0V.

1.0 ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS

PIN FUNCTION TABLE

Name	Function

1.0 ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Absolute Maximum Ratings †

Supply Voltage .... +22V

Input Voltage, IN A or IN B
.... (V_{DD} + 0.3V) to (GND − 5V)

Package Power Dissipation ($T_A \le 70°C$)
- PDIP .... 730 mW
- CERDIP .... 800 mW
- MSOP .... 340 mW
- SOIC .... 470 mW

Storage Temperature Range .... -65°C to +150°C

Maximum Junction Temperature .... +150°C

† Stresses above those listed under "Absolute Maximum Ratings" may cause permanent damage to the device. These are stress ratings only and functional operation of the device at these or any other conditions above those indicated in the operation sections of the specifications is not implied. Exposure to Absolute Maximum Rating conditions for extended periods may affect device reliability.

PIN FUNCTION TABLE

Name	Function
NC	No Connection
IN A	Input A
GND	Ground
IN B	Input B
OUT B	Output B
V_{DD}	Supply Input
OUT A	Output A
NC	No Connection

DC CHARACTERISTICS

Electrical Specifications: Unless otherwise noted, T_A = +25°C with 4.5V $\le V_{DD} \le$ 18V.

Parameters	Sym	Min	Typ	Max	Units	Conditions
Input						
Logic '1', High Input Voltage	V_{IH}	2.4	—	—	V	Note 2
Logic '0', Low Input Voltage	V_{IL}	—	—	0.8	V	
Input Current	I_{IN}	-1.0	—	+1.0	µA	$0V \le V_{IN} \le V_{DD}$
Output						
High Output Voltage	V_{OH}	V_{DD} − 0.025	—	—	V	DC Test
Low Output Voltage	V_{OL}	—	—	0.025	V	DC Test
Output Resistance	R_O	—	7	10	Ω	I_{OUT} = 10 mA, V_{DD} = 18V
Peak Output Current	I_{PK}	—	1.5	—	A	V_{DD} = 18V
Latch-Up Protection Withstand Reverse Current	I_{REV}	—	>0.5	—	A	Duty cycle ≤ 2%, t ≤ 300 µsec V_{DD} = 18V
Switching Time (Note 1)						
Rise Time	t_R	—	19	30	nsec	Figure 4-1
Fall Time	t_F	—	25	30	nsec	Figure 4-1
Delay Time	t_{D1}	—	20	30	nsec	Figure 4-1
Delay Time	t_{D2}	—	40	50	nsec	Figure 4-1
Power Supply						
Power Supply Current	I_S	—	—	4.5	mA	V_{IN} = 3V (Both inputs)
		—	—	0.4		V_{IN} = 0V (Both inputs)

Note 1: Switching times ensured by design.

2: For V temperature range devices, the V_{IH} (Min) limit is 2.0V.

2.0 TYPICAL PERFORMANCE CURVES

Note: The graphs and tables provided following this note are a statistical summary based on a limited number of samples and are provided for informational purposes only. The performance characteristics listed herein are not tested or guaranteed. In some graphs or tables, the data presented may be outside the specified operating range (e.g., outside specified power supply range) and therefore outside the warranted range.

Note: Unless otherwise indicated, T_A = +25°C with 4.5V ≤ V_{DD} ≤ 18V.
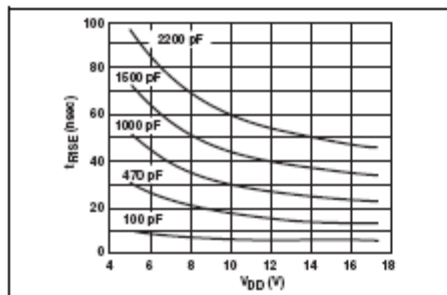
FIGURE 2-1: Rise Time vs. Supply Voltage.
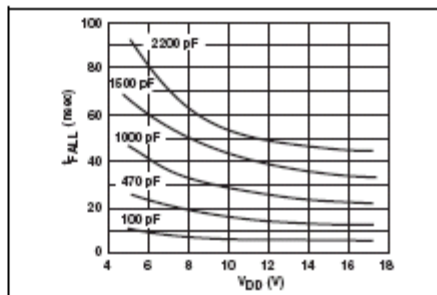
FIGURE 2-4: Fall Time vs. Supply Voltage.
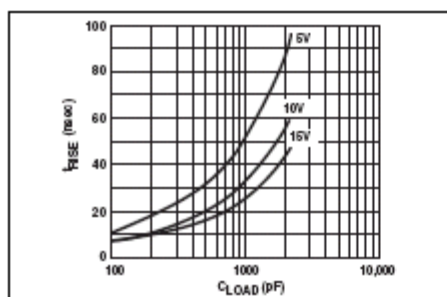
FIGURE 2-2: Rise Time vs. Capacitive Load.
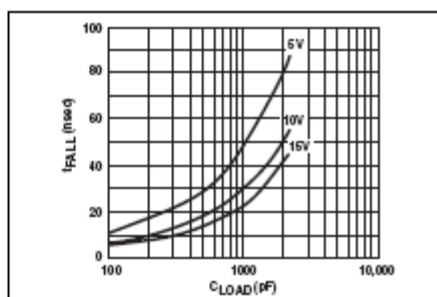
FIGURE 2-5: Fall Time vs. Capacitive Load.
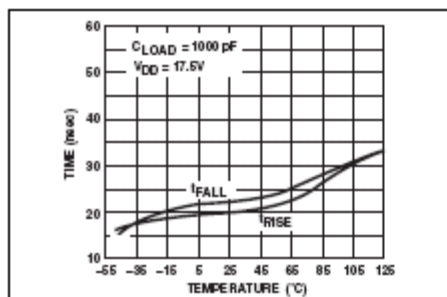
FIGURE 2-3: Rise and Fall Times vs. Temperature.
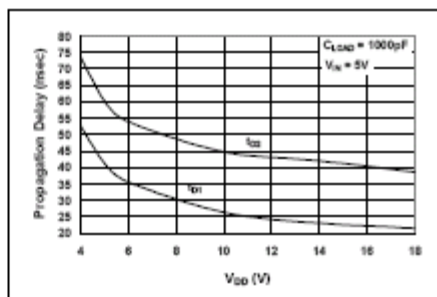
FIGURE 2-6: Propagation Delay Time vs. Supply Voltage.

TC4426/TC4427/TC4428

Note: Unless otherwise indicated, T_A = +25°C with 4.5V $\leq V_{DD} \leq$ 18V.
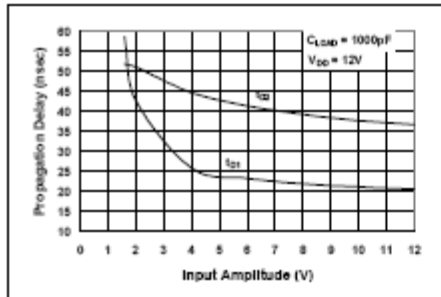
FIGURE 2-7: Propagation Delay Time vs. Input Amplitude.
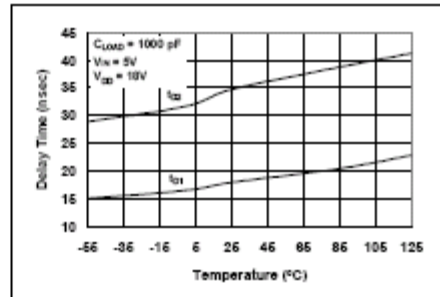
FIGURE 2-10: Propagation Delay Time vs. Temperature.
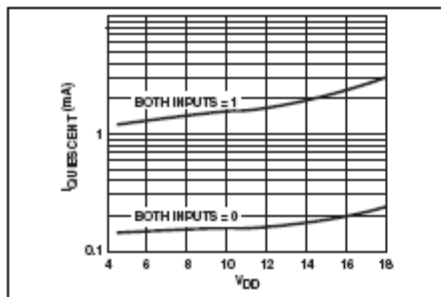
FIGURE 2-8: Supply Current vs. Supply Voltage.
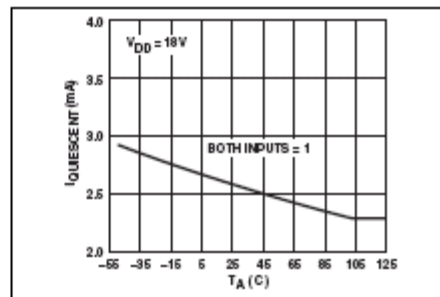
FIGURE 2-11: Supply Current vs. Temperature.
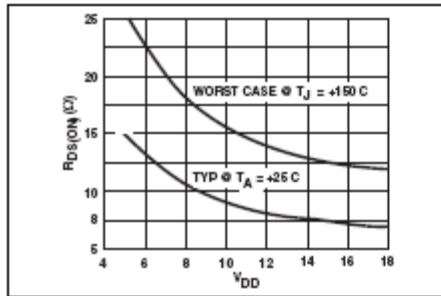
FIGURE 2-9: Output Resistance (R_{OH}) vs. Supply Voltage.
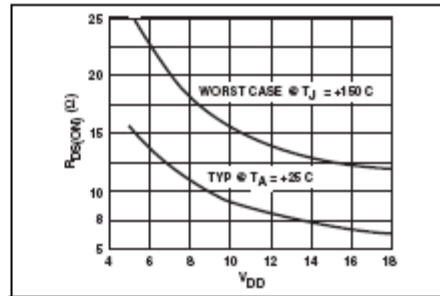
FIGURE 2-12: Output Resistance (R_{OL}) vs. Supply Voltage.

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3.0   PIN DESCRIPTIONS

The descriptions of the pins are listed in Table 3-1.

TABLE 3-1:   PIN FUNCTION TABLE

Pin No.	Symbol	Description
1	NC	No Connection
2	IN A	Input A
3	GND	Ground
4	IN B	Input B
5	OUT B	Output B
6	V_{DD}	Supply Input
7	OUT A	Output A
8	NC	No connection

3.1   Inputs A & B

MOSFET driver inputs A & B are high-impedance, TTL/CMOS compatible inputs. These inputs also have 300 mV of hysteresis between the high and low thresholds that prevents output glitching even when the rise and fall time of the input signal is very slow.

3.2   Ground (GND)

Ground.

3.3   Output A & B

MOSFET driver outputs A & B are low-impedance, CMOS push-pull style outputs. The pull-down and pull-up devices are equal strength, making the rise and fall times equivalent.

3.4   Supply Input (V_{DD})

The V_{DD} input is the bias supply for the MOSFET driver and is rated for 4.5V to 18V with respect to the ground pin. The V_{DD} input should be bypassed with local ceramic capacitors. The value of these capacitors should be chosen based on the capacitive load that is being driven. A value of 1.0 µF is suggested.

FAIRCHILD
SEMICONDUCTOR ™

July 2000

FDP6030BL/FDB6030BL

FDP6030BL/FDB6030BL
N-Channel Logic Level PowerTrench® MOSFET

General Description

This N-Channel Logic Level MOSFET has been designed specifically to improve the overall efficiency of DC/DC converters using either synchronous or conventional switching PWM controllers.

These MOSFETs feature faster switching and lower gate charge than other MOSFETs with comparable $R_{DS(on)}$ specifications resulting in DC/DC power supply designs with higher overall efficiency.

Features

- 40 A, 30 V. $R_{DS(ON)} = 0.018\ \Omega$ @ $V_{GS} = 10$ V
  $R_{DS(ON)} = 0.024\ \Omega$ @ $V_{GS} = 4.5$ V.

- Critical DC electrical parameters specified at elevated temperature.

- Rugged internal source-drain diode can eliminate the need for an external Zener diode transient suppressor.

- High performance trench technology for extremely low $R_{DS(ON)}$.

- 175°C maximum junction temperature rating.
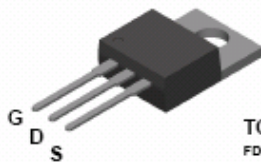
TO-220
FDP Series
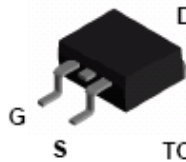
TO-263AB
FDB Series
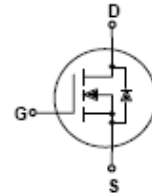
Absolute Maximum Ratings $T_C = 25°C$ unless otherwise noted

Symbol	Parameter		FDP6030BL	FDB6030BL	Units
V_{DSS}	Drain-Source Voltage		30		V
V_{GSS}	Gate-Source Voltage		±20		V
I_D	Maximum Drain Current — Continuous (Note 1)		40		A
	— Pulsed		120		
P_D	Total Power Dissipation @ $T_C = 25°C$		60		W
	Derate above 25°C		0.36		W/°C
T_J, T_{STG}	Operating and Storage Junction Temperature Range		-65 to +175		°C

Thermal Characteristics

$R\theta_{JC}$	Thermal Resistance, Junction-to-Case		2.5		°C/W
$R\theta_{JA}$	Thermal Resistance, Junction-to-Ambient		62.5		°C/W

Package Marking and Ordering Information

Device Marking	Device	Reel Size	Tape Width	Quantity
FDB6030BL	FDB6030BL	13"	24mm	800
FDP6030BL	FDP6030BL	Tube	N/A	45

FDP6030BL/FDB6030BL Rev.C

Electrical Characteristics $T_C = 25°C$ unless otherwise noted

Symbol	Parameter	Test Conditions	Min	Typ	Max	Units
DRAIN-SOURCE AVALANCHE RATINGS (Note 1)						
W_{DSS}	Single Pulse Drain-Source Avalanche Energy	V_{DD} = 15 V, I_D = 40 A			150	mJ
I_{AR}	Maximum Drain-Source Avalnche Current				40	A
Off Characteristics						
BV_{DSS}	Drain-Source Breakdown Voltage	V_{GS} = 0 V, I_D = 250 μA	30			V
$\frac{\Delta BV_{DSS}}{\Delta T_J}$	Breakdown Voltage Temperature Coefficient	I_D = 250 μA, Referenced to 25°C		23		mV/°C
I_{DSS}	Zero Gate Voltage Drain Current	V_{DS} = 24 V, V_{GS} = 0 V			1	μA
I_{GSSF}	Gate-Body Leakage Current, Forward	V_{GS} = 20 V, V_{DS} = 0 V			100	nA
I_{GSSR}	Gate-Body Leakage Current, Reverse	V_{GS} = -20 V, V_{DS} = 0 V			-100	nA
On Characteristics (Note 1)						
$V_{GS(th)}$	Gate Threshold Voltage	V_{DS} = V_{GS}, I_D = 250 μA	1	1.6	3	V
$\frac{\Delta V_{GS(th)}}{\Delta T_J}$	Gate Threshold Voltage Temperature Coefficient	I_D = 250 μA, Referenced to 25°C		-4.5		mV/°C
$R_{DS(on)}$	Static Drain-Source On-Resistance	V_{GS} = 10 V, I_D = 20 A, V_{GS} = 10 V, I_D = 20 A, T_J = 125°C V_{GS} = 4.5 V,I_D = 17 A		0.015 0.021 0.019	0.018 0.030 0.024	Ω
$I_{D(on)}$	On-State Drain Current	V_{GS} = 10 V, V_{DS} = 10 V	40			A
g_{FS}	Forward Transconductance	V_{DS} = 5 V, I_D = 20 A		30		S
Dynamic Characteristics						
C_{iss}	Input Capacitance	V_{DS} = 15 V, V_{GS} = 0 V, f = 1.0 MHz		1160		pF
C_{oss}	Output Capacitance			250		pF
C_{rss}	Reverse Transfer Capacitance			100		pF
Switching Characteristics (Note 1)						
$t_{d(on)}$	Turn-On Delay Time	V_{DD} = 15 V, I_D = 1 A, V_{GS} = 10 V, R_{GEN} = 6 Ω		9	17	ns
t_r	Turn-On Rise Time			11	20	ns
$t_{d(off)}$	Turn-Off Delay Time			23	37	ns
t_f	Turn-Off Fall Time			8	16	ns
Q_g	Total Gate Charge	V_{DS} = 15 V, I_D = 20 A, V_{GS} = 5 V		12	17	nC
Q_{gs}	Gate-Source Charge			3.2		nC
Q_{gd}	Gate-Drain Charge			3.7		nC
Drain-Source Diode Characteristics and Maximum Ratings						
I_S	Maximum Continuous Drain-Source Diode Forward Current (Note 1)				40	A
V_{SD}	Drain-Source Diode Forward Voltage	V_{GS} = 0 V, I_S = 20 A (Note 1)		0.95	1.2	V

Note:
1. Pulse Test: Pulse Width ≤ 300 μs, Duty Cycle ≤ 2.0%

Typical Characteristics
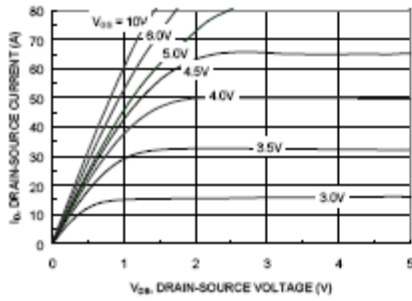
Figure 1. On-Region Characteristics.
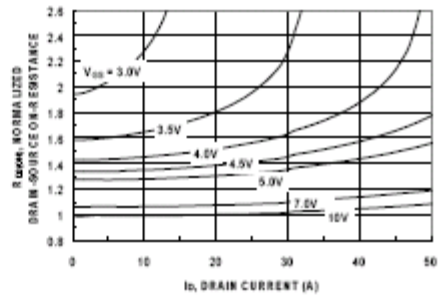
Figure 2. On-Resistance Variation with Drain Current and Gate Voltage.
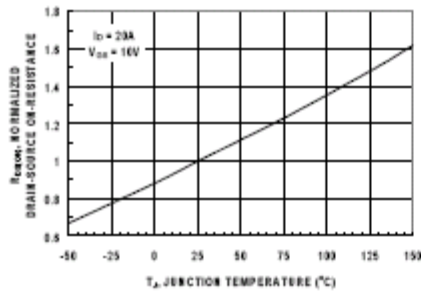
Figure 3. On-Resistance Variation with Temperature.
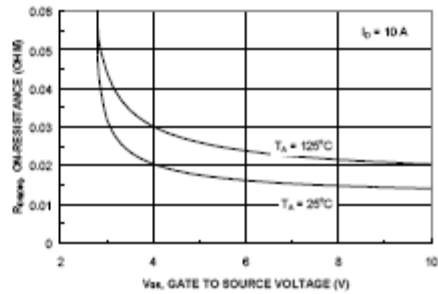
Figure 4. On-Resistance Variation with Gate-to-Source Voltage.
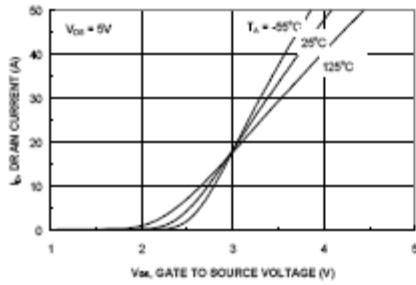
Figure 5. Transfer Characteristics.
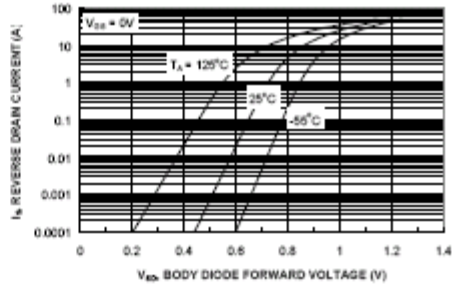
Figure 6. Body Diode Forward Voltage Variation with Source Current and Temperature.

Typical Characteristics (continued)
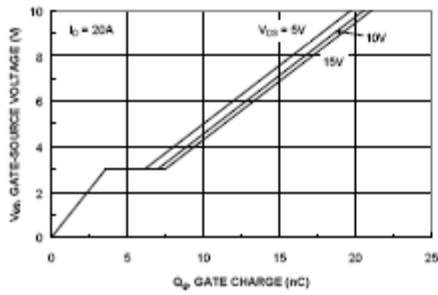
Figure 7. Gate-Charge Characteristics.
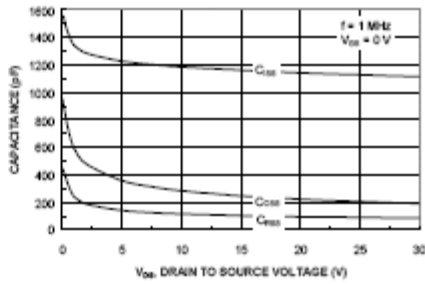
Figure 8. Capacitance Characteristics.
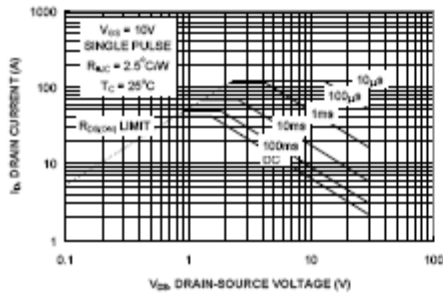
Figure 9. Maximum Safe Operating Area.
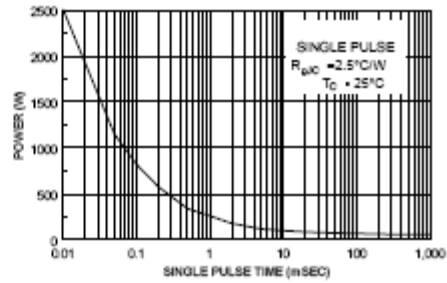
Figure 10. Single Pulse Maximum Power Dissipation.
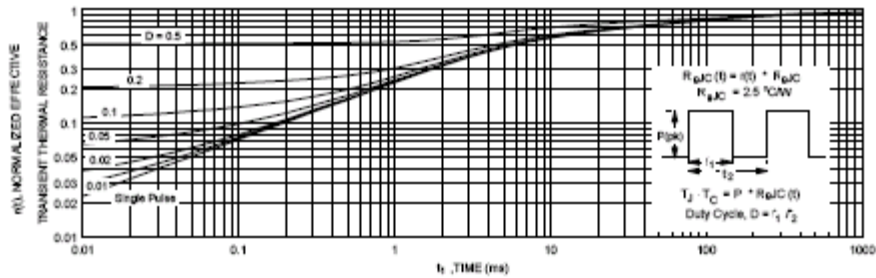
Figure 11. Transient Thermal Response Curve.

Schottky Diode

International IOR Rectifier

31DQ05
31DQ06

SCHOTTKY RECTIFIER

3.3 Amp

Major Ratings and Characteristics

Characteristics		Values	Units
$I_{F(AV)}$	Rectangular waveform	3.3	A
V_{RRM}		50/60	V
I_{FSM}	@ tp = 5 µs sine	340	A
V_F	@ 3 Apk, T_J = 25°C	0.62	V
T_J		-40 to 150	°C

Description/ Features

The 31DQ.. axial leaded Schottky rectifier has been optimized for very low forward voltage drop, with moderate leakage. Typical applications are in switching power supplies, converters, free-wheeling diodes, and reverse battery protection.

- Low profile, axial leaded outline
- High purity, high temperature epoxy encapsulation for enhanced mechanical strength and moisture resistance
- Very low forward voltage drop
- High frequency operation
- Guard ring for enhanced ruggedness and long term reliability
- Lead-Free plating

CASE STYLE AND DIMENSIONS

Outline C - 16
Dimensions in millimeters and inches

104

31DQ05, 31DQ06
Bulletin PD-2.305 rev. F 11/04

International
IᴑR Rectifier
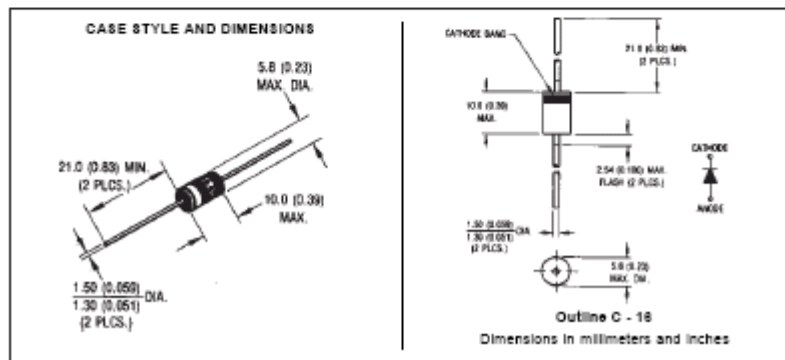
Voltage Ratings

Part number	31DQ05	31DQ06
V_R Max. DC Reverse Voltage (V)	50	60
V_{RWM} Max. Working Peak Reverse Voltage (V)		

Absolute Maximum Ratings

	Parameters	31DQ..	Units	Conditions	
$I_{F(AV)}$	Max. Average Forward Current * See Fig. 4	3.3	A	50% duty cycle @ T_C = 40°C, rectangular wave form	
I_{FSM}	Max. Peak One Cycle Non-Repetitive	340	A	5µs Sine or 3µs Rect. pulse	Following any rated load condition and with rated V_{RRM} applied
	Surge Current * See Fig. 6	55		10ms Sine or 6ms Rect. pulse	
E_{AS}	Non-Repetitive Avalanche Energy	5.0	mJ	T_J = 25 °C, I_{AS} = 1 Amps, L = 10 mH	
I_{AR}	Repetitive Avalanche Current	1.0	A	Current decaying linearly to zero in 1 µsec Frequency limited by T_J max. V_A = 1.5 x V_R typical	

Electrical Specifications

	Parameters	31DQ..	Units	Conditions	
V_{FM}	Max. Forward Voltage Drop	0.62	V	@ 3A	T_J = 25 °C
	* See Fig. 1 (1)	0.78	V	@ 6A	
		0.54	V	@ 3A	T_J = 125 °C
		0.65	V	@ 6A	
I_{RM}	Max. Reverse Leakage Current	2	mA	T_J = 25 °C	V_R = rated V_R
	* See Fig. 2 (1)	15	mA	T_J = 125 °C	
C_T	Typical Junction Capacitance	160	pF	V_R = 5V_{DC}, (test signal range 100Khz to 1Mhz) 25°C	
L_S	Typical Series Inductance	9.0	nH	Measured lead to lead 5mm from package body	
dv/dt	Max. Voltage Rate of Change	10000	V/µs	(Rated V_R)	

(1) Pulse Width < 300µs, Duty Cycle <2%

Thermal-Mechanical Specifications

	Parameters	31DQ..	Units	Conditions
T_J	Max. Junction Temperature Range (*)	-40 to 150	°C	
T_{stg}	Max. Storage Temperature Range	-40 to 150	°C	
R_{thJA}	Max. Thermal Resistance Junction to Ambient	80	°C/W	DC operation Without cooling fins
R_{thJL}	Typical Thermal Resistance Junction to Lead	34	°C/W	DC operation
wt	Approximate Weight	1.2 (0.042)	g (oz.)	
	Case Style	C - 16		

(*) $\dfrac{dPtot}{dTj} < \dfrac{1}{Rth(j\text{-}a)}$ thermal runaway condition for a diode on its own heatsink

31DQ05, 31DQ06
Bulletin PD-2.305 rev. F 11/04

International
I&R Rectifier
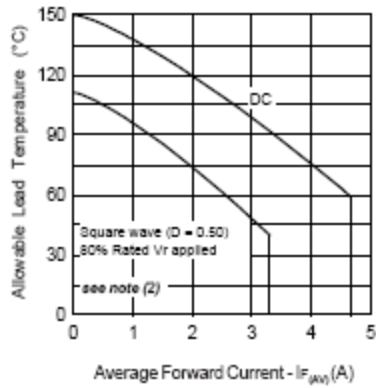
Fig. 4 - Max. Allowable Lead Temperature
Vs. Average Forward Current
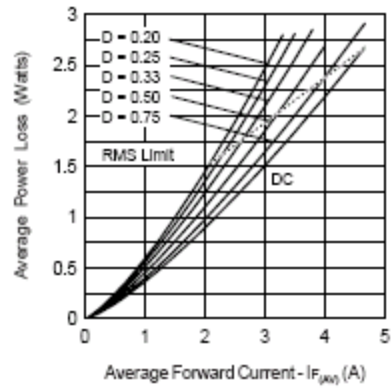
Fig. 5 - Forward Power Loss
Characteristics
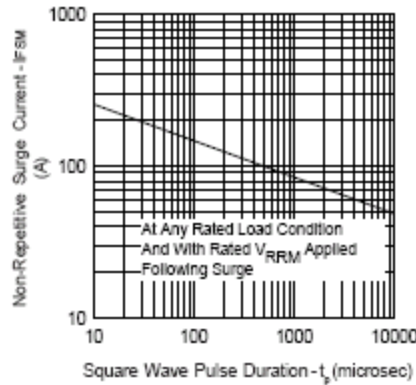
Fig. 6 - Max. Non-Repetitive Surge Current

(2) Formula used: $T_C = T_J - (Pd + Pd_{REV}) \times R_{thJC}$;
    Pd = Forward Power Loss = $I_{F(AV)} \times V_{FM}$ @ ($I_{F(AV)} / D$) (see Fig. 6);
    Pd_{REV} = Inverse Power Loss = $V_{R1} \times I_R (1 - D)$; I_R @ V_{R1} = 80% rated V_R

LT1121/LT1121-3.3/LT1121-5
Micropower Low Dropout Regulators with Shutdown

FEATURES

- 0.4V Dropout Voltage
- 150mA Output Current
- 30µA Quiescent Current
- No Protection Diodes Needed
- Adjustable Output from 3.75V to 30V
- 3.3V and 5V Fixed Output Voltages
- Controlled Quiescent Current in Dropout
- Shutdown
- 16µA Quiescent Current in Shutdown
- Stable with 0.33µF Output Capacitor
- Reverse Battery Protection
- No Reverse Current with Input Low
- Thermal Limiting
- Available in the 8-Lead SO, 8-Lead PDIP, 3-Lead SOT-23 and 3-Lead TO-92 Packages

APPLICATIONS

- Low Current Regulator
- Regulator for Battery-Powered Systems
- Post Regulator for Switching Supplies

DESCRIPTION

The LT®1121/LT1121-3.3/LT1121-5 are micropower low dropout regulators with shutdown. These devices are capable of supplying 150mA of output current with a dropout voltage of 0.4V. Designed for use in battery-powered systems, the low quiescent current, 30µA operating and 16µA in shutdown, makes them an ideal choice. The quiescent current is well-controlled; it does not rise in dropout as it does with many other low dropout PNP regulators.

Other features of the LT1121/LT1121-3.3/LT1121-5 include the ability to operate with very small output capacitors. They are stable with only 0.33µF on the output while most older devices require between 1µF and 100µF for stability. Small ceramic capacitors can be used, enhancing manufacturability. Also the input may be connected to ground or a reverse voltage without reverse current flow from output to input. This makes the LT1121 series ideal for backup power situations where the output is held high and the input is at ground or reversed. Under these conditions only 16µA will flow from the output pin to ground.

LT , LT LTC and LTM are registered trademarks of Linear Technology Corporation. All other trademarks are the property of their respective owners.

TYPICAL APPLICATION

5V Battery-Powered Supply with Shutdown

V_SHDN (PIN 5)	OUTPUT
<0.25	OFF
>2.8	ON
NC	ON
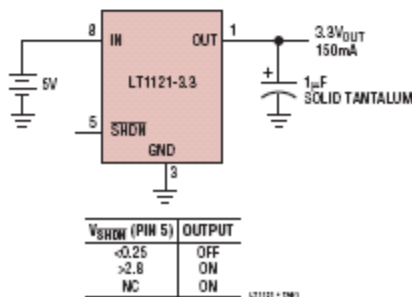
Dropout Voltage
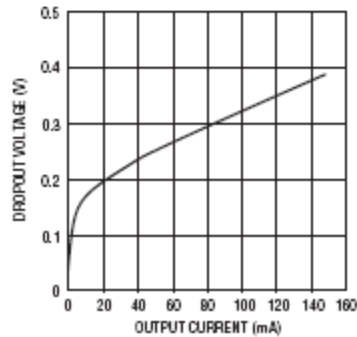
ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS

(Note 1)

Input Voltage
    LT1121... ±30V
    LT1121HV.. +36V, −30V
Output Pin Reverse Current 10mA
Adjust Pin Current 10mA
Shutdown Pin Input Voltage (Note 2) .... 6.5V, −0.6V
Shutdown Pin Input Current (Note 2) 20mA

Output Short-Circuit Duration .... Indefinite
Operating Junction Temperature Range (Note 3)
    LT1121C-X.. 0°C to 125°C
    LT1121I-X .... −40°C to 125°C
Storage Temperature Range...................− 65°C to 150°C
Lead Temperature (Soldering, 10 sec) .... 300°C

PACKAGE/ORDER INFORMATION

TOP VIEW

OUT	1	8	IN
NC/ADJ*	2	7	NC**
GND	3	6	NC**
NC	4	5	SHDN

N8 PACKAGE
8-LEAD PDIP

S8 PACKAGE
8-LEAD PLASTIC SO

T_{JMAX} = 150°C, $θ_{JA}$ = 120°C/W (N8, S8)
T_{JMAX} = 150°C, $θ_{JA}$ = 70°C/W (AS8)

* PIN 2 = NC FOR LT1121-3.3/LT1121-5
      = ADJ FOR LT1121
** PINS 6 AND 7 ARE FLOATING (NO INTERNAL CONNECTION) ON THE STANDARD S8 PACKAGE.
PINS 6 AND 7 CONNECTED TO GROUND ON THE A VERSION OF THE LT1121 (S8 ONLY). CONNECTING PINS 6 AND 7 TO THE GROUND PLANE WILL REDUCE THERMAL RESISTANCE. SEE THERMAL RESISTANCE TABLES IN THE APPLICATIONS INFORMATION SECTION.

FRONT VIEW

	3	OUTPUT
TAB IS GND	2	GND V_{IN}
	1	

ST PACKAGE
3-LEAD PLASTIC SOT-223
T_{JMAX} = 150°C, $θ_{JA}$ = 50°C/W

BOTTOM VIEW

IN   GND   OUT

Z PACKAGE
3-LEAD PLASTIC TO-92
T_{JMAX} = 150°C, $θ_{JA}$ = 150°C/W

ORDER PART NUMBER		S8 PART MARKING		ORDER PART NUMBER	ST PART MARKING	ORDER PART NUMBER
LT1121CN8	LT1121IS8-3.3		121I3	LT1121CST-3.3	11213	LT1121CZ-3.3
LT1121CN8-3.3	LT1121IS8-5		121I5	LT1121IST-3.3	121I3	LT121IZ-3.3
LT1121CN8-5	LT1121HVIS8		121HVI	LT1121CST-5	11215	LT1121CZ-5
LT1121IN8	LT1121ACS8		1121A	LT1121IST-5	112115	LT1121IZ-5
LT1121IN8-3.3	LT1121ACS8-3.3		121A3			
LT1121IN8-5	LT1121ACS8-5		121A5			
LT1121CS8	LT1121AHVCS8	1121	121AHV			
LT1121CS8-3.3	LT1121AIS8	11213	121AI			
LT1121CS8-5	LT1121AIS8-3.3	11215	121AI3			
LT1121HVCS8	LT1121AIS8-5	1121HV	121AI5			
LT1121IS8	LT1121AHVIS8	1121I	21AHVI			

Order Options Tape and Reel: Add #TR
Lead Free: Add #PBF   Lead Free Tape and Reel: Add #TRPBF
Lead Free Part Marking: http://www.linear.com/leadfree/

Consult LTC Marketing for parts specified with wider operating temperature ranges.

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ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS

The ● denotes the specifications which apply over the full operating temperature range, otherwise specifications are at T_A = 25°C.

PARAMETER	CONDITIONS		MIN	TYP	MAX	UNITS
Regulated Output Voltage (Note 4)	LT1121-3.3 V_{IN} = 3.8V, I_{OUT} = 1mA, T_J = 25°C		3.25	3.3	3.35	V
	4.3V < V_{IN} < 20V, 1mA < I_{OUT} < 150mA	●	3.2	3.3	3.4	V
	LT1121-5 V_{IN} = 5.5V, I_{OUT} = 1mA, T_J = 25°C		4.925	5	5.075	V
	6V < V_{IN} < 20V, 1mA < I_{OUT} < 150mA	●	4.85	5	5.15	V
	LT1121 (Note 5) V_{IN} = 4.3V, I_{OUT} = 1mA, T_J = 25°C		3.695	3.75	3.805	V
	4.8V < V_{IN} < 20V, 1mA < I_{OUT} < 150mA	●	3.64	3.75	3.86	V
Line Regulation	LT1121-3.3 ΔV_{IN} = 4.8V TO 20V, I_{OUT} = 1mA	●		1.5	10	mV
	LT1121-5 ΔV_{IN} = 5.5V TO 20V, I_{OUT} = 1mA	●		1.5	10	mV
	LT1121 (Note 5) ΔV_{IN} = 4.3V TO 20V, I_{OUT} = 1mA	●		1.5	10	mV
Load Regulation	LT1121-3.3 ΔI_{LOAD} = 1mA to 150mA, T_J = 25°C			−12	−25	mV
	ΔI_{LOAD} = 1mA to 150mA	●		−20	−40	mV
	LT1121-5 ΔI_{LOAD} = 1mA to 150mA, T_J = 25°C			−17	−35	mV
	ΔI_{LOAD} = 1mA to 150mA	●		−28	−50	mV
	LT1121 (Note 5) ΔI_{LOAD} = 1mA to 150mA, T_J = 25°C			−12	−25	mV
	ΔI_{LOAD} = 1mA to 150mA	●		−18	−40	mV
Dropout Voltage (Note 6)	I_{LOAD} = 1mA, T_J = 25°C			0.13	0.16	V
	I_{LOAD} = 1mA	●			0.25	V
	I_{LOAD} = 50mA, T_J = 25°C			0.3	0.35	V
	I_{LOAD} = 50mA	●			0.5	V
	I_{LOAD} = 100mA, T_J = 25°C			0.37	0.45	V
	I_{LOAD} = 100mA	●			0.6	V
	I_{LOAD} = 150mA, T_J = 25°C			0.42	0.55	V
	I_{LOAD} = 150mA	●			0.7	V
Ground Pin Current (Note 7)	I_{LOAD} = 0mA	●		30	50	μA
	I_{LOAD} = 1mA	●		90	120	μA
	I_{LOAD} = 10mA	●		350	500	μA
	I_{LOAD} = 50mA	●		1.5	2.5	mA
	I_{LOAD} = 100mA	●		4	7	mA
	I_{LOAD} = 150mA	●		7	14	mA
Adjust Pin Bias Current (Notes 5, 8)	T_J = 25°C			150	300	nA
Shutdown Threshold	V_{OUT} = Off to On	●		1.2	2.8	V
	V_{OUT} = On to Off	●	0.25	0.75		V
Shutdown Pin Current (Note 9)	V_{SHDN} = 0V	●		6	10	μA
Quiescent Current in Shutdown (Note 10)	V_{IN} = 6V, V_{SHDN} = 0V	●		16	22	μA
Ripple Rejection	$V_{IN} - V_{OUT}$ = 1V (Avg), V_{RIPPLE} = 0.5V_{P-P} f_{RIPPLE} = 120Hz, I_{LOAD} = 0.1A		50	58		dB
Current Limit	$V_{IN} - V_{OUT}$ = 7V, T_J = 25°C			200	500	mA
Input Reverse Leakage Current	V_{IN} = −20V, V_{OUT} = 0V	●			1	mA
Reverse Output Current (Note 11)	LT1121-3.3 V_{OUT} = 3.3V, V_{IN} = 0V			16	25	μA
	LT1121-5 V_{OUT} = 5V, V_{IN} = 0V			16	25	μA
	LT1121 (Note 5) V_{OUT} = 3.8V, V_{IN} = 0V			16	25	μA

ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS
The ● denotes the specifications which apply over the full operating temperature range, otherwise specifications are at $T_A = 25°C$.

Note 1: Stresses beyond those listed under Absolute Maximum Ratings may cause permanent damage to the device. Exposure to any Absolute Maximum Rating condition for extended periods may affect device reliability and lifetime.

Note 2: The shutdown pin input voltage rating is required for a low impedance source. Internal protection devices connected to the shutdown pin will turn on and clamp the pin to approximately 7V or –0.6V. This range allows the use of 5V logic devices to drive the pin directly. For high impedance sources or logic running on supply voltages greater than 5.5V, the maximum current driven into the shutdown pin must be limited to less than 20mA.

Note 3: For junction temperatures greater than 110°C, a minimum load of 1mA is recommended. For $T_J > 110°C$ and $I_{OUT} < 1mA$, output voltage may increase by 1%.

Note 4: Operating conditions are limited by maximum junction temperature. The regulated output voltage specification will not apply for all possible combinations of input voltage and output current. When operating at maximum input voltage, the output current range must be limited. When operating at maximum output current the input voltage range must be limited.

Note 5: The LT1121 (adjustable version) is tested and specified with the adjust pin connected to the output pin.

Note 6: Dropout voltage is the minimum input/output voltage required to maintain regulation at the specified output current. In dropout the output voltage will be equal to: $(V_{IN} - V_{DROPOUT})$.

Note 7: Ground pin current is tested with $V_{IN} = V_{OUT}$ (nominal) and a current source load. This means that the device is tested while operating in its dropout region. This is the worst case ground pin current. The ground pin current will decrease slightly at higher input voltages.

Note 8: Adjust pin bias current flows into the adjust pin.

Note 9: Shutdown pin current at $V_{SHDN} = 0V$ flows out of the shutdown pin.

Note 10: Quiescent current in shutdown is equal to the sum total of the shutdown pin current (6µA) and the ground pin current (9µA).

Note 11: Reverse output current is tested with the input pin grounded and the output pin forced to the rated output voltage. This current flows into the output pin and out of the ground pin.

TYPICAL PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS

Guaranteed Dropout Voltage

Dropout Voltage

Quiescent Current

TYPICAL PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS

LT1121-3.3
Quiescent Current

LT1121-5
Quiescent Current

LT1121
Quiescent Current

LT1121-3.3
Output Voltage

LT1121-5
Output Voltage

LT1121
Adjust Pin Voltage

LT1121-3.3
Ground Pin Current

LT1121-5
Ground Pin Current

LT1121
Ground Pin Current

TYPICAL PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS

LT1121-3.3
Ground Pin Current

LT1121-5
Ground Pin Current

LT1121
Ground Pin Current

Ground Pin Current

Shutdown Pin Threshold
(On-to-Off)

Shutdown Pin Threshold
(Off-to-On)

Shutdown Pin Current

Shutdown Pin Input Current

LT1121
Adjust Pin Bias Current

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TYPICAL PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS

Reverse Output Current

$V_{IN} = 0V$
$V_{OUT} = 5V$ (LT1121-5)
$V_{OUT} = 3.3V$ (LT1121-3.3)
$V_{OUT} = 3.8V$ (LT1121)

OUTPUT PIN CURRENT (μA) vs TEMPERATURE (°C)

Current Limit

$V_{OUT} = 0V$

SHORT-CIRCUIT CURRENT (mA) vs INPUT VOLTAGE (V)

Current Limit

$V_{IN} = 7V$
$V_{OUT} = 0V$

CURRENT LIMIT (mA) vs TEMPERATURE (°C)

Reverse Output Current

$T_J = 25°C$
$V_{IN} = 0V$
CURRENT FLOWS
INTO OUTPUT PIN

LT1121 ($V_{OUT} = V_{ADJ}$)
LT1121-3.3
LT1121-5

OUTPUT PIN CURRENT (μA) vs OUTPUT VOLTAGE (V)

Ripple Rejection

$V_{IN} = V_{OUT}$ (NOMINAL) + 1V
+ 0.5V P-P RIPPLE AT f = 120Hz
$I_{OUT} = 100mA$

RIPPLE REJECTION (dB) vs TEMPERATURE (°C)

Ripple Rejection

$I_{OUT} = 100mA$
$V_{IN} = 6V + 50mV_{RMS}$ RIPPLE

$C_{OUT} = 47μF$ SOLID TANTALUM
$C_{OUT} = 1μF$ SOLID TANTALUM

RIPPLE REJECTION (dB) vs FREQUENCY (Hz)

Load Regulation

$\Delta I_{LOAD} = 1mA$ TO 150mA
LT1121*
LT1121-3.3
LT1121-5
* ADJ PIN TIED TO OUTPUT PIN

LOAD REGULATION (mV) vs TEMPERATURE (°C)

LT1121-5
Load Transient Response

$V_{IN} = 6V$
$C_{IN} = 0.1μF$
$C_{OUT} = 1μF$

OUTPUT VOLTAGE DEVIATION (V), LOAD CURRENT (mA) vs TIME (ms)

LT1121-5
Load Transient Response

$V_{IN} = 6V$
$C_{IN} = 0.1μF$
$C_{OUT} = 3.3μF$

OUTPUT VOLTAGE DEVIATION (V), LOAD CURRENT (mA) vs TIME (ms)

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PIN FUNCTIONS

Input Pin: Power is supplied to the device through the input pin. The input pin should be bypassed to ground if the device is more than six inches away from the main input filter capacitor. In general the output impedance of a battery rises with frequency so it is usually adviseable to include a bypass capacitor in battery-powered circuits. A bypass capacitor in the range of 0.1µF to 1µF is sufficient. The LT1121 is designed to withstand reverse voltages on the input pin with respect to both ground and the output pin. In the case of a reversed input, which can happen if a battery is plugged in backwards, the LT1121 will act as if there is a diode in series with its input. There will be no reverse current flow into the LT1121 and no reverse voltage will appear at the load. The device will protect both itself and the load.

Output Pin: The output pin supplies power to the load. An output capacitor is required to prevent oscillations. See the Applications Information section for recommended value of output capacitance and information on reverse output characteristics.

Shutdown Pin: This pin is used to put the device into shutdown. In shutdown the output of the device is turned off. This pin is active low. The device will be shut down if the shutdown pin is pulled low. The shutdown pin current with the pin pulled to ground will be 6µA. The shutdown pin is internally clamped to 7V and −0.6V (one V_{BE}). This allows the shutdown pin to be driven directly by 5V logic or by open collector logic with a pull-up resistor. The pull-up resistor is only required to supply the leakage current of the open collector gate, normally several microamperes. Pull-up current must be limited to a maximum of 20mA. A curve of shutdown pin input current as a function of voltage appears in the Typical Performance Characteristics. If the shutdown pin is not used it can be left open circuit. The device will be active, output on, if the shutdown pin is not connected.

Adjust Pin: For the adjustable LT1121, the adjust pin is the input to the error amplifier. This pin is internally clamped to 6V and −0.6V (one V_{BE}). It has a bias current of 150nA which flows into the pin. See Bias Current curve in the Typical Performance Characteristics. The adjust pin reference voltage is 3.75V referenced to ground. The output voltage range that can be produced by this device is 3.75V to 30V.

National Semiconductor

February 2004

LMC6462 Dual/LMC6464 Quad Micropower, Rail-to-Rail Input and Output CMOS Operational Amplifier

General Description

The LMC6462/4 is a micropower version of the popular LMC6482/4, combining Rail-to-Rail Input and Output Range with very low power consumption.

The LMC6462/4 provides an input common-mode voltage range that exceeds both rails. The rail-to-rail output swing of the amplifier, guaranteed for loads down to 25 kΩ, assures maximum dynamic sigal range. This rail-to-rail performance of the amplifier, combined with its high voltage gain makes it unique among rail-to-rail amplifiers. The LMC6462/4 is an excellent upgrade for circuits using limited common-mode range amplifiers.

The LMC6462/4, with guaranteed specifications at 3V and 5V, is especially well-suited for low voltage applications. A quiescent power consumption of 60 µW per amplifier (at V_S = 3V) can extend the useful life of battery operated systems. The amplifier's 150 fA input current, low offset voltage of 0.25 mV, and 85 dB CMRR maintain accuracy in battery-powered systems.

Features

(Typical unless otherwise noted)
- Ultra Low Supply Current   20 µA/Amplifier
- Guaranteed Characteristics at 3V and 5V
- Rail-to-Rail Input Common-Mode Voltage Range
- Rail-to-Rail Output Swing
  (within 10 mV of rail, V_S = 5V and R_L = 25 kΩ)
- Low Input Current   150 fA
- Low Input Offset Voltage   0.25 mV

Applications
- Battery Operated Circuits
- Transducer Interface Circuits
- Portable Communication Devices
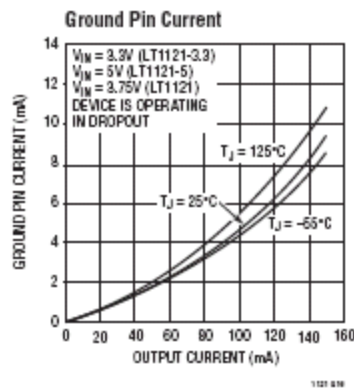- Medical Applications
- Battery Monitoring

8-Pin DIP/SO

Top View

14-Pin DIP/SO

Top View

Low-Power Two-Op-Amp Instrumentation Amplifier
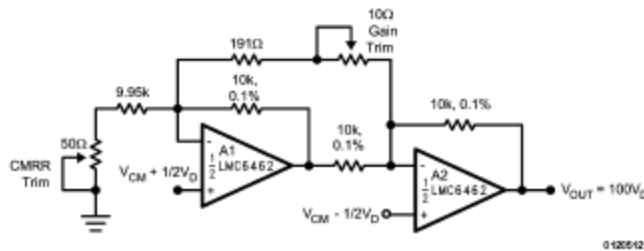
Absolute Maximum Ratings (Note 1)

If Military/Aerospace specified devices are required, please contact the National Semiconductor Sales Office/Distributors for availability and specifications.

ESD Tolerance (Note 2)	2.0 kV
Differential Input Voltage	±Supply Voltage
Voltage at Input/Output Pin	$(V^+) + 0.3V$, $(V^-) - 0.3V$
Supply Voltage $(V^+ - V^-)$	16V
Current at Input Pin (Note 12)	±5 mA
Current at Output Pin (Notes 3, 8)	±30 mA
Current at Power Supply Pin	40 mA
Lead Temp. (Soldering, 10 sec.)	260°C
Storage Temperature Range	−65°C to +150°C
Junction Temperature (Note 4)	150°C

Operating Ratings (Note 1)

Supply Voltage	$3.0V \le V^+ \le 15.5V$
Junction Temperature Range	
LMC6462AM, LMC6464AM	$-55°C \le T_J \le +125°C$
LMC6462AI, LMC6464AI	$-40°C \le T_J \le +85°C$
LMC6462BI, LMC6464BI	$-40°C \le T_J \le +85°C$
Thermal Resistance (θ_{JA})	
N Package, 8-Pin Molded DIP	115°C/W
M Package, 8-Pin Surface Mount	193°C/W
N Package, 14-Pin Molded DIP	81°C/W
M Package, 14-Pin Surface Mount	126°C/W

5V DC Electrical Characteristics

Unless otherwise specified, all limits guaranteed for $T_J = 25°C$, $V^+ = 5V$, $V^- = 0V$, $V_{CM} = V_O = V^+/2$ and $R_L > 1M$. Boldface limits apply at the temperature extremes.

Symbol	Parameter	Conditions	Typ (Note 5)	LMC6462AI LMC6464AI Limit (Note 6)	LMC6462BI LMC6464BI Limit (Note 6)	LMC6462AM LMC6464AM Limit (Note 6)	Units
V_{OS}	Input Offset Voltage		0.25	0.5 **1.2**	3.0 **3.7**	0.5 **1.5**	mV max
TCV_{OS}	Input Offset Voltage Average Drift		1.5				µV/°C
I_B	Input Current	(Note 13)	0.15	10	10	200	pA max
I_{OS}	Input Offset Current	(Note 13)	0.075	5	5	100	pA max
C_{IN}	Common-Mode Input Capacitance		3				pF
R_{IN}	Input Resistance		>10				Tera Ω
CMRR	Common Mode Rejection Ratio	$0V \le V_{CM} \le 15.0V$, $V^+ = 15V$	85	70 **67**	65 **62**	70 **65**	dB min
		$0V \le V_{CM} \le 5.0V$ $V^+ = 5V$	85	70 **67**	65 **62**	70 **65**	
+PSRR	Positive Power Supply Rejection Ratio	$5V \le V^+ \le 15V$, $V^- = 0V$, $V_O = 2.5V$	85	70 **67**	65 **62**	70 **65**	dB min
−PSRR	Negative Power Supply Rejection Ratio	$-5V \le V^- \le -15V$, $V^+ = 0V$, $V_O = -2.5V$	85	70 **67**	65 **62**	70 **65**	dB min
V_{CM}	Input Common-Mode Voltage Range	$V^+ = 5V$ For CMRR ≥ 50 dB	−0.2	−0.10 **0.00**	−0.10 **0.00**	−0.10 **0.00**	V max
			5.30	5.25 **5.00**	5.25 **5.00**	5.25 **5.00**	V min
		$V^+ = 15V$ For CMRR ≥ 50 dB	−0.2	−0.15 **0.00**	−0.15 **0.00**	−0.15 **0.00**	V max
			15.30	15.25 **15.00**	15.25 **15.00**	15.25 **15.00**	V min

5V DC Electrical Characteristics (Continued)

Unless otherwise specified, all limits guaranteed for $T_J = 25°C$, $V^+ = 5V$, $V^- = 0V$, $V_{CM} = V_O = V^+/2$ and $R_L > 1M$. Boldface limits apply at the temperature extremes.

Symbol	Parameter	Conditions		Typ (Note 5)	LMC6462AI LMC6464AI Limit (Note 6)	LMC6462BI LMC6464BI Limit (Note 6)	LMC6462AM LMC6464AM Limit (Note 6)	Units
A_V	Large Signal Voltage Gain	$R_L = 100\ k\Omega$ (Note 7)	Sourcing	3000				V/mV min
			Sinking	400				V/mV min
		$R_L = 25\ k\Omega$ (Note 7)	Sourcing	2500				V/mV min
			Sinking	200				V/mV min
V_O	Output Swing	$V^+ = 5V$ $R_L = 100\ k\Omega$ to $V^+/2$		4.995	4.990 **4.980**	4.950 **4.925**	4.990 **4.970**	V min
				0.005	0.010 **0.020**	0.050 **0.075**	0.010 **0.030**	V max
		$V^+ = 5V$ $R_L = 25\ k\Omega$ to $V^+/2$		4.990	4.975 **4.965**	4.950 **4.850**	4.975 **4.955**	V min
				0.010	0.020 **0.035**	0.050 **0.150**	0.020 **0.045**	V max
		$V^+ = 15V$ $R_L = 100\ k\Omega$ to $V^+/2$		14.990	14.975 **14.965**	14.950 **14.925**	14.975 **14.955**	V min
				0.010	0.025 **0.035**	0.050 **0.075**	0.025 **0.050**	V max
		$V^+ = 15V$ $R_L = 25\ k\Omega$ to $V^+/2$		14.965	14.900 **14.850**	14.850 **14.800**	14.900 **14.800**	V min
				0.025	0.050 **0.150**	0.100 **0.200**	0.050 **0.200**	V max
I_{SC}	Output Short Circuit Current $V+ = 5V$	Sourcing, $V_O = 0V$		27	19 **15**	19 **15**	19 **15**	mA min
		Sinking, $V_O = 5V$		27	22 **17**	22 **17**	22 **17**	mA min
I_{SC}	Output Short Circuit Current $V^+ = 15V$	Sourcing, $V_O = 0V$		38	24 **17**	24 **17**	24 **17**	mA min
		Sinking, $V_O = 12V$ (Note 8)		75	55 **45**	55 **45**	55 **45**	mA min
I_S	Supply Current	Dual, LMC6462 $V^+ = +5V$, $V_O = V^+/2$		40	55 **70**	55 **70**	55 **75**	µA max
		Quad, LMC6464 $V^+ = +5V$, $V_O = V^+/2$		80	110 **140**	110 **140**	110 **150**	µA max
		Dual, LMC6462 $V^+ = +15V$, $V_O = V^+/2$		50	60 **70**	60 **70**	60 **75**	µA max
		Quad, LMC6464 $V^+ = +15V$, $V_O = V^+/2$		90	120 **140**	120 **140**	120 **150**	µA max

5V AC Electrical Characteristics

Unless otherwise specified, all limits guaranteed for $T_J = 25°C$, $V^+ = 5V$, $V^- = 0V$, $V_{CM} = V_O = V^+/2$ and $R_L > 1M$. Boldface limits apply at the temperature extremes.

Symbol	Parameter	Conditions	Typ (Note 5)	LMC6462AI LMC6464AI Limit (Note 6)	LMC6462BI LMC6464BI Limit (Note 6)	LMC6462AM LMC6464AM Limit (Note 6)	Units
SR	Slew Rate	(Note 9)	28	15 **8**	15 **8**	15 **8**	V/ms min
GBW	Gain-Bandwidth Product	$V^+ = 15V$	50				kHz
ϕ_m	Phase Margin		50				Deg
G_m	Gain Margin		15				dB
	Amp-to-Amp Isolation	(Note 10)	130				dB
e_n	Input-Referred Voltage Noise	$f = 1$ kHz $V_{CM} = 1V$	80				$nV/\sqrt{Hz}$
i_n	Input-Referred Current Noise	$f = 1$ kHz	0.03				$pA/\sqrt{Hz}$

3V DC Electrical Characteristics

Unless otherwise specified, all limits guaranteed for $T_J = 25°C$, $V^+ = 3V$, $V^- = 0V$, $V_{CM} = V_O = V^+/2$ and $R_L > 1M$. Boldface limits apply at the temperature extremes.

Symbol	Parameter	Conditions	Typ (Note 5)	LMC6462AI LMC6464AI Limit (Note 6)	LMC6462BI LMC6464BI Limit (Note 6)	LMC6462AM LMC6464AM Limit (Note 6)	Units
V_{OS}	Input Offset Voltage		0.9	2.0 **2.7**	3.0 **3.7**	2.0 **3.0**	mV max
TCV_{OS}	Input Offset Voltage Average Drift		2.0				$\mu V/°C$
I_B	Input Current	(Note 13)	0.15	10	10	200	pA
I_{OS}	Input Offset Current	(Note 13)	0.075	5	5	100	pA
CMRR	Common Mode Rejection Ratio	$0V \leq V_{CM} \leq 3V$	74	60	60	60	dB min
PSRR	Power Supply Rejection Ratio	$3V \leq V^+ \leq 15V$, $V^- = 0V$	80	60	60	60	dB min
V_{CM}	Input Common-Mode Voltage Range	For CMRR ≥ 50 dB	−0.10	0.0	0.0	0.0	V max
			3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	V min
V_O	Output Swing	$R_L = 25$ kΩ to $V^+/2$	2.95	2.9	2.9	2.9	V min
			0.15	0.1	0.1	0.1	V max
I_S	Supply Current	Dual, LMC6462 $V_O = V^+/2$	40	55 **70**	55 **70**	55 **70**	μA
		Quad, LMC6464 $V_O = V^+/2$	80	110 **140**	110 **140**	110 **140**	μA max

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Typical Performance Characteristics V_S = +5V, Single Supply, T_A = 25°C unless otherwise specified

Supply Current vs. Supply Voltage

Sourcing Current vs. Output Voltage

Sourcing Current vs. Output Voltage

Sourcing Current vs. Output Voltage

Sinking Current vs. Output Voltage

Sinking Current vs. Output Voltage
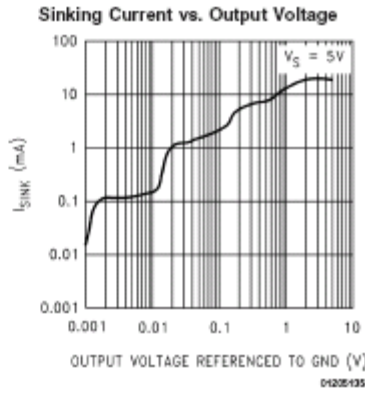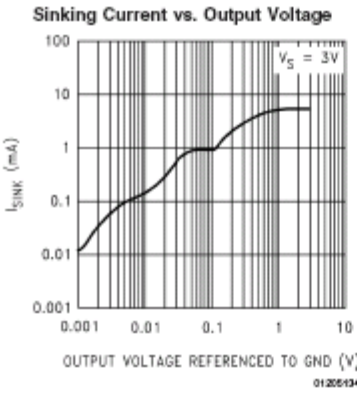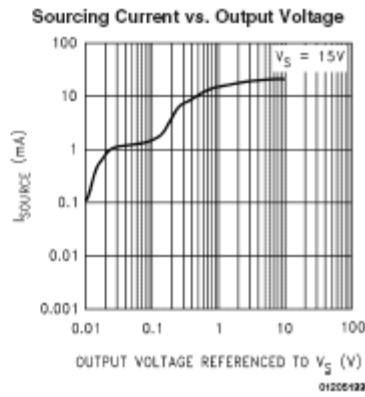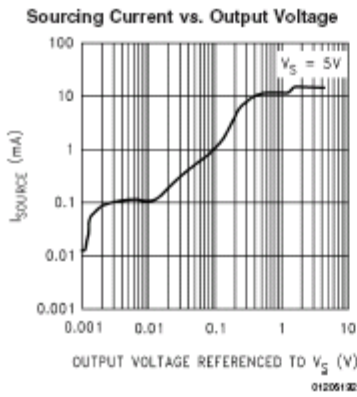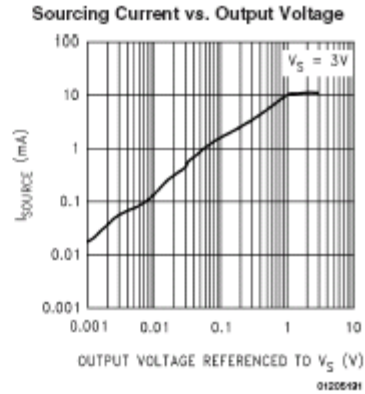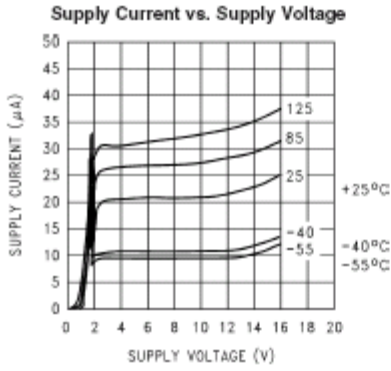
Typical Performance Characteristics V_S = +5V, Single Supply, T_A = 25°C unless otherwise specified (Continued)

Typical Performance Characteristics V_S = +5V, Single Supply, T_A = 25°C unless otherwise specified (Continued)

Input Voltage vs. Output Voltage
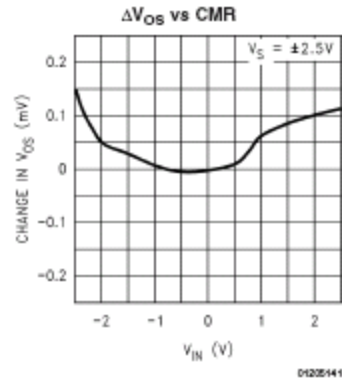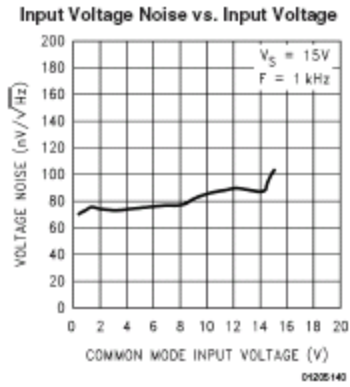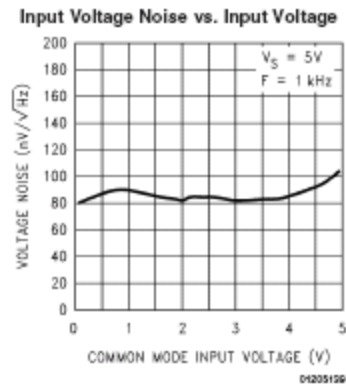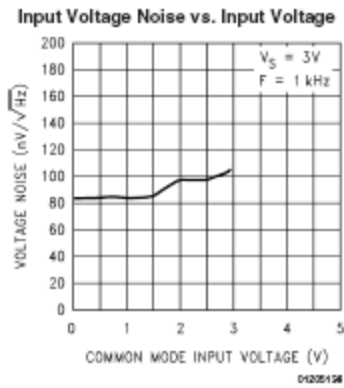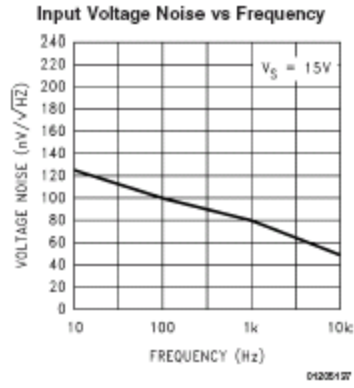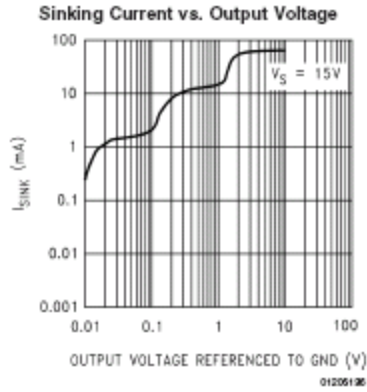
Open Loop Frequency Response
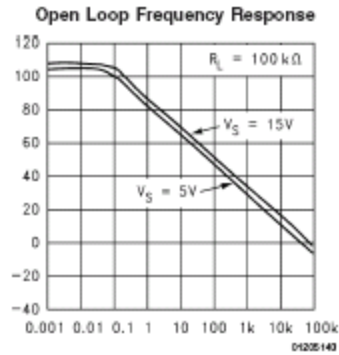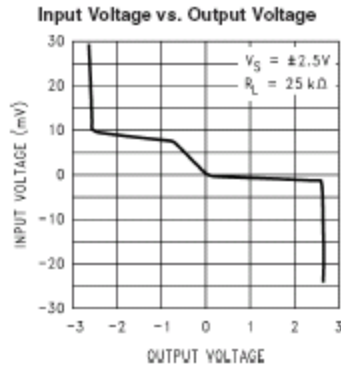
Open Loop Frequency Response vs. Temperature
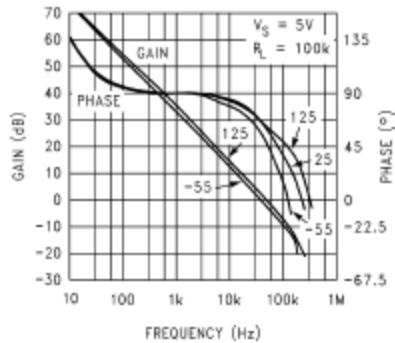
Gain and Phase vs. Capacitive Load
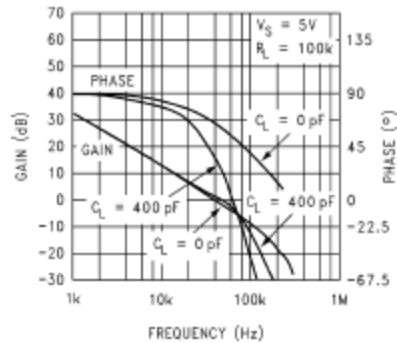
Slew Rate vs. Supply Voltage
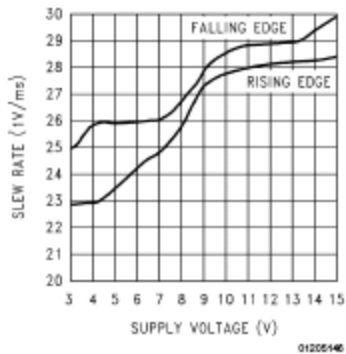
Non-Inverting Large Signal Pulse Response

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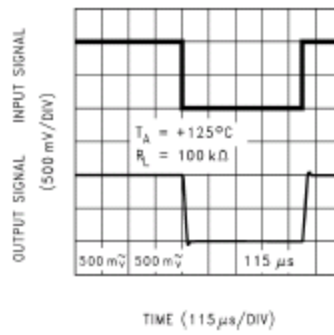
PIC12F683 Microprocessor
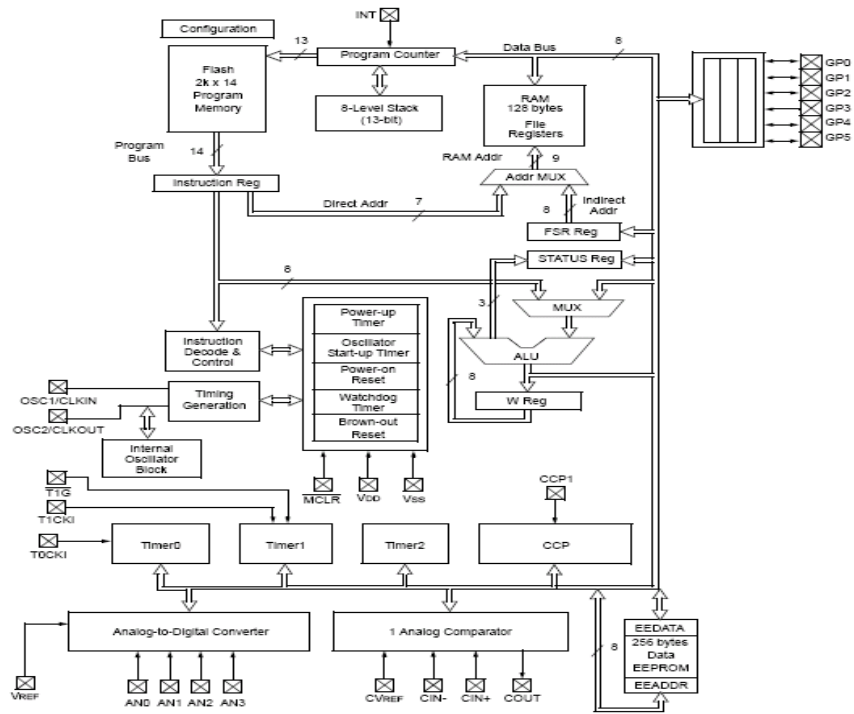
Figure. PIC12F683 Block Diagram

TABLE 1-2: PIC12F615/HV615 PINOUT DESCRIPTION

Name	Function	Input Type	Output Type	Description
GP0/AN0/CIN+/P1B/ICSPDAT	GP0	TTL	CMOS	General purpose I/O with prog. pull-up and interrupt-on-change
	AN0	AN	—	A/D Channel 0 input
	CIN+	AN	—	Comparator non-inverting input
	P1B	—	CMOS	PWM output
	ICSPDAT	ST	CMOS	Serial Programming Data I/O
GP1/AN1/CIN0-/VREF/ICSPCLK	GP1	TTL	CMOS	General purpose I/O with prog. pull-up and interrupt-on-change
	AN1	AN	—	A/D Channel 1 input
	CIN0-	AN	—	Comparator inverting input
	VREF	AN	—	External Voltage Reference for A/D
	ICSPCLK	ST	—	Serial Programming Clock
GP2/AN2/T0CKI/INT/COUT/CCP1/P1A	GP2	ST	CMOS	General purpose I/O with prog. pull-up and interrupt-on-change
	AN2	AN	—	A/D Channel 2 input
	T0CKI	ST	—	Timer0 clock input
	INT	ST	—	External Interrupt
	COUT	—	CMOS	Comparator output
	CCP1	ST	CMOS	Capture input/Compare input/PWM output
	P1A	—	CMOS	PWM output
GP3/T1G*/MCLR/VPP	GP3	TTL	—	General purpose input with interrupt-on-change
	T1G*	ST	—	Timer1 gate (count enable), alternate pin
	MCLR	ST	—	Master Clear w/internal pull-up
	VPP	HV	—	Programming voltage
GP4/AN3/CIN1-/T1G/P1B*/OSC2/CLKOUT	GP4	TTL	CMOS	General purpose I/O with prog. pull-up and interrupt-on-change
	AN3	AN	—	A/D Channel 3 input
	CIN1-	AN	—	Comparator inverting input
	T1G	ST	—	Timer1 gate (count enable)
	P1B*	—	CMOS	PWM output, alternate pin
	OSC2	—	XTAL	Crystal/Resonator
	CLKOUT	—	CMOS	Fosc/4 output
GP5/T1CKI/P1A*/OSC1/CLKIN	GP5	TTL	CMOS	General purpose I/O with prog. pull-up and interrupt-on-change
	T1CKI	ST	—	Timer1 clock input
	P1A*	—	CMOS	PWM output, alternate pin
	OSC1	XTAL	—	Crystal/Resonator
	CLKIN	ST	—	External clock input/RC oscillator connection
VDD	VDD	Power	—	Positive supply
Vss	Vss	Power	—	Ground reference

* Alternate pin function.
Legend: AN = Analog input or output   CMOS=CMOS compatible input or output   HV = High Voltage
ST = Schmitt Trigger input with CMOS levels TTL = TTL compatible input   XTAL= Crystal

Figure. Pinout Description of PIC12F683

PIC12F609/615/12HV609/615

15.0 ELECTRICAL SPECIFICATIONS

Absolute Maximum Ratings[†]

Ambient temperature under bias..-40° to +125°C

Storage temperature .... -65°C to +150°C

Voltage on VDD with respect to Vss .... -0.3V to +6.5V

Voltage on MCLR with respect to Vss .... -0.3V to +13.5V

Voltage on all other pins with respect to Vss .... -0.3V to (VDD + 0.3V)

Total power dissipation[(1)] .... 800 mW

Maximum current out of Vss pin .... 95 mA

Maximum current into VDD pin .... 95 mA

Input clamp current, IIK (VI < 0 or VI > VDD)... ± 20 mA

Output clamp current, IOK (Vo < 0 or Vo >VDD).. ± 20 mA

Maximum output current sunk by any I/O pin... 25 mA

Maximum output current sourced by any I/O pin .... 25 mA

Maximum current sunk by GPIO .... 90 mA

Maximum current sourced GPIO... 90 mA

Note 1: Power dissipation is calculated as follows: $P_{DIS} = V_{DD} \times \{I_{DD} - \Sigma I_{OH}\} + \Sigma \{(V_{DD} - V_{OH}) \times I_{OH}\} + \Sigma(V_{OI} \times I_{OL})$.

† NOTICE: Stresses above those listed under "Absolute Maximum Ratings" may cause permanent damage to the device. This is a stress rating only and functional operation of the device at those or any other conditions above those indicated in the operation listings of this specification is not implied. Exposure above maximum rating conditions for extended periods may affect device reliability.

Figure. Electrical Specifications of PIC12F683

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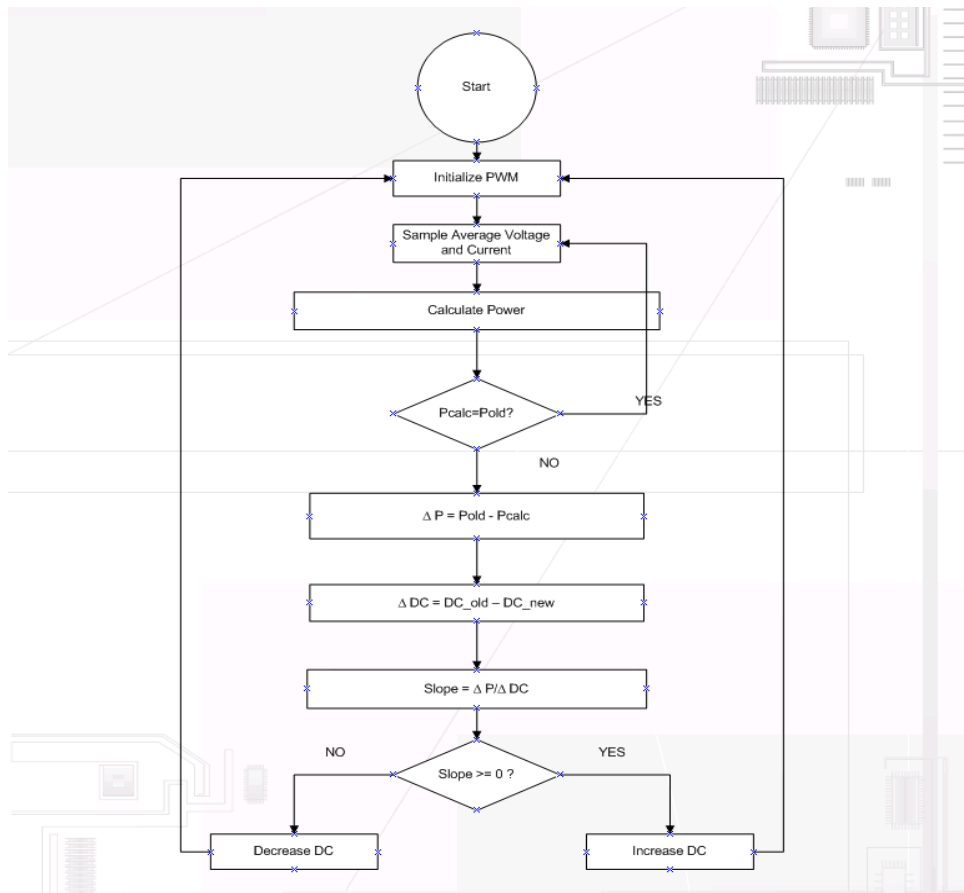
Figure. PIC Algorithm

Peak Power Tracking Code

```
;************************************************************************
;   This file is a basic code template for object module code
        *
;   generation on the PIC12F683. This file contains the                 *
;   basic code building blocks to build upon.  As a project minimum
        *
;   the 12F683.lkr file will also be required for this file to
        *
;   correctly build. The .lkr files are located in the MPLAB            *
;   directory.                                                          *
;
        *
;   If interrupts are not used all code presented between the
        *
;   code section "INT_VECTOR and code section "MAIN" can be removed.
        *
;   In addition the variable assignments for 'w_temp' and              *
;   'status_temp' can be removed.                                       *
;
        *
;   If interrupts are used, as in this template file, the 12F683.lkr    *
```

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```
;  file will need to be modified as follows: Remove the lines        *
;   CODEPAGE   NAME=vectors START=0x0     END=0x4    PROTECTED    *
;  and                                                               *
;   SECTION   NAME=STARTUP  ROM=vectors                             *
;  and change the start address of the page0 section from 0x5 to 0x0
       *
;
       *
;  Refer to the MPASM User's Guide for additional information on
       *
;  features of the assembler and linker (Document DS33014).
       *
;
       *
;  Refer to the respective PIC data sheet for additional
       *
;  information on the instruction set.                              *
;
       *
;***********************************************************************
;
       *
;   Filename:       PIC12F683.asm                                  *
;   Date:        4/07/08                                           *
;   File Version:                                                   *
;
       *
;   Author:     Michael Miller & Daniel Butay
       *
;   Company:                                                        *
;
       *
;
       *
;***********************************************************************
;
       *
;   Files required:                                                 *
;           12F683.lkr                                             *
;
       *
;
       *
;***********************************************************************
;
       *
;   Notes:    This code will allow for peak power tracking from a
       *
;          Photovoltaic array going through a boost converter.     *
;
       *
;
       *
;
       *
```

```
;********************************************************************

        list    p=12F683        ; list directive to define processor
        #include <p12F683.inc>      ; processor specific variable definitions

        errorlevel  -302            ; suppress message 302 from list file


        __CONFIG    _FCMEN_ON & _IESO_OFF & _CP_OFF & _CPD_OFF & _BOD_OFF &
_MCLRE_ON & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _INTRC_OSC_NOCLKOUT


; '__CONFIG' directive is used to embed configuration word within .asm file.
; The lables following the directive are located in the respective .inc file.
; See data sheet for additional information on configuration word settings.



;***** VARIABLE DEFINITIONS (examples)

; example of using Shared Uninitialized Data Section
INT_VAR         UDATA_SHR
;w_temp             RES         1               ; variable used for context saving
status_temp             RES                 1               ; variable used for
context saving
WREG            RES         1
RESHI           RES         1               ;High two bits of ADC CURRENT
RESLI           RES         1               ;Store low byte of ADC CURRENT
RESHV           RES         1               ;High two bits of ADC VOLTAGE
RESLV           RES         1               ;Store low byte of ADC vOLTAGE
QuotI                   RES         1               ;Average value of current
QuotVH          RES         1               ;High byte of average value of voltage
QuotVL          RES         1               ;Low byte of average value of
voltage
Divisor                 RES         1
PowerLO         RES         1               ;Value of calculated power
PowerHI         RES         1               ;ratio of power in Watts
COUNT           RES         1
COUNT2          RES         1
PowerOldLO      RES         1               ;Stored value of Power
PowerOldHI      RES         1

;********************************************************************
RESET_VECTOR    CODE    0x000                           ; processor reset vector
            goto    main                                ; go to beginning of program


INT_VECTOR      CODE    0x004                           ; interrupt vector location
            goto            INTERRUPT

INTERRUPT
;               movwf               w_temp                          ; save off current W
register contents
;               movf        STATUS,w            ; move status register into W
register
```

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```
;               movwf         status_temp                    ; save off contents of
STATUS register


; isr code can go here or be located as a call subroutine elsewhere


;               movf                  status_temp,w              ; retrieve copy of
STATUS register
;               movwf         STATUS                         ; restore pre-isr STATUS
register contents
;               swapf              w_temp,f
;               swapf              w_temp,w                   ; restore pre-isr W
register contents
;               retfie              ; return from interrupt


main
start     CODE  0x020
; remaining code goes here


        clrf                     status_temp
            BANKSEL            CCP1CON                 ;Choose CCP1 control register
            clrw
            movlw                  b'00001100'             ;2Lsb's of PWM-DC, PWM
active low
            movwf                  CCP1CON
            BANKSEL         CCPR1L                 ;Set byte of duty cycle
            clrw
            movlw                  b'00000101'             ;Set Register to 5(20 with
CCP1CON) for 50%
            movwf                  CCPR1L               ; duty cycle
Init            NOP
            call         PWMinit       ;Initialize PWM
            call         getvolts          ;Get 4 samples of voltage
            call         average              ;Average 4 samples
            call         getamps              ;Get 4 Samples of Current
            call          averageI          ;Average 4 samples
;go

            call                  mult                    ;Multiply Current and Voltage to get
Power
            call                  Compare
            call          storePower
        call          Delay2
        call          Delay2
        call          Delay2
        goto          Init
;************************
;
Delay2
        movlw     0x3FFF
        movwf     COUNT
repeat
        call                  Delay
        decfsz     COUNT,1

                              127
```

```
        goto            repeat
        return
;************************
;
storePower
        movf            PowerHI,0
        movwf           PowerOldHI
        movf            PowerLO,0
        movwf           PowerOldLO
        return
;************************
;
;************************
;
PWMinit
        BANKSEL         OSCCON              ;Choose OSCCON register
        clrf            WREG
        movwf           OSCCON              ;clear oscillator control register
        movlw           b'01100001'           ;set Fosc to 4MHz & set to
internal oscillator
        movwf           OSCCON
        BANKSEL         TRISIO              ;Choose Register which makes
pins I or O
        clrw
        movwf           TRISIO              ;clear TRIS register
        movlw           b'00111111'           ;disable CCP1
        movwf           TRISIO
        BANKSEL         PR2                 ;SELECT PERIOD REGISTER
        movlw           b'00001001'           ;Set PR2 to 9 so PWM frequency
will be 100kHz
        movwf           PR2
      Call            SetDuty
        BANKSEL    PIR1                 ;Clear interrupt flag bit of TMR2
        movlw           00h
        movwf           PIR1
        BANKSEL    T2CON
        movlw           04h
        movwf           T2CON


TMR2OF
        btfss           PIR1,b'1'             ;Waits until Timer 2 goes through
        goto            TMR2OF               ;One cycle (overflows). Then
        BANKSEL    TRISIO               ;enables CCP1 pin output driver
        movlw           b'00111011'
        movwf           TRISIO
        return
;************************
;


;************************
;
getamps
        movlw           0x04                ;Set the value of samples taken
        movwf           COUNT

fourtimesI
        clrf            RESHI               ;Clear hi and low bye of current
sample
```

```
        clrf            RESLI
        call                    initADCi
        call                    STORERESULTI
        decfsz          COUNT,1
        goto                    fourtimesI
        return
;************************
;************************
getvolts
        movlw           0x04                    ;Set the value of voltage samples taken
        movwf           COUNT

fourtimesV
        clrf                    RESLV
        clrf                    RESHV                           ;Clear hi and low byte of
Voltage sample
        call                    initADCv
        call                    STORERESULTV
        decfsz          COUNT,1
        goto                    fourtimesV
        return
;************************
;************************
initADCi
        BANKSEL         TRISIO
        BSF                     TRISIO,0                ;Set GP0 to input
        BANKSEL ANSEL
        clrw
        movlw           b'01110001'             ; Configure pin 7 as analog inputs & select
conversion clock
        movwf           ANSEL                   ;for FOLLOW INTERNAL OSCILLATOR
        BANKSEL         ADCON0
        clrw
        movlw           b'10000001'             ;Set Vref, select channel gp0, select
Right justified results
        movwf           ADCON0                          ;
        BCF                     PIR1,b'110'             ;CLEAR ADC INTERRUPT

 ;delay aquisition time at least 4.67uS
        call            Delay


continuei
        BANKSEL         ADCON0
        clrw
        movlw                   b'00000010'             ;Set GO/DONE bit to start ADC
        xorwf           ADCON0,1

POLLGODONEi
        btfsc           ADCON0,b'1'             ;waits til ADC is done
        goto            POLLGODONEi
        return
;************************
;************************
initADCv
```

```
        BANKSEL         TRISIO
        BSF             TRISIO,0        ;Set GP0 to input
        BANKSEL   ANSEL
        clrw
        movlw           b'01110010'         ; Configure pin 6 as analog inputs
& select conv clock
        movwf           ANSEL           ;for FOLLOW INTERNAL
OSCILLATOR
        BANKSEL         ADCON0
        clrw
        movlw           b'10000101'         ;Set Vref, select channel gp0,
select Right justified results
        movwf           ADCON0              ;

        BCF             PIR1,b'110'         ;CLEAR ADC INTERRUPT

        call            Delay           ; ;delay aquisition time at least
4.67uS

continuev
        BANKSEL         ADCON0
        clrw
        movlw           b'00000010'         ;Set GO/DONE bit to start ADC
        xorwf      ADCON0,1

POLLGODONEv
        btfsc      ADCON0,b'1'          ;waits til ADC is done
        goto       POLLGODONEv
     return
;************************
;************************
;
STORERESULTI                                    ;Store current value
        CALL            STOREADRESLI
        btfsc            STATUS,b'0'
        goto            addone
cont
        BANKSEL    ADRESH
    btfss          ADRESH, b'1'         ;check two high bits of ADC result
    btfsc          ADRESH, b'0'
    CALL           STOREADRESHI
        return
addone
        movlw           0x01
        addwf           RESHI,1
        bcf             STATUS,b'0'
        goto            cont
;************************
;************************
;
STORERESULTV                    ;Store voltage value

     CALL            STOREADRESLV
     BANKSEL     ADRESH
        btfss            ADRESH,b'1'              ;check two high bits of ADC
result
     btfsc                ADRESH,b'0'
```

```
        CALL            STOREADRESHV
            return
;**************************
;**************************
STOREADRESHI                        ;Store the High two bits of ADC CURRENT

        btfsc           STATUS,b'0'
        goto               rtrnl
        movlw           0x01
        addwf           RESHI,1
rtrnl
        movf            ADRESH,0
        addwf           RESHI,1
        return
;**************************
;**************************
STOREADRESLI                    ;Store the low Byte of ADc CURRENT

        BANKSEL         ADRESL
        movf            ADRESL,0        ;Move low byte to W_reg
        addwf           RESLI,1             ;Add and store in RESLI
        return
;**************************
;**************************
STOREADRESHV                    ;Store the High two bits of ADC VOLTS

        btfss           STATUS,b'0'
          goto          rtrnV
        movlw           0x01
        addwf           RESHV,1
rtrnV
          movf          ADRESH,0
        addwf           RESHV,1
        return
;**************************
;**************************
STOREADRESLV                    ;Store the low Byte of ADC VOLTAGE
          BANKSEL       ADRESL
        movf            ADRESL,0
        addwf           RESLV,1
        return
;**************************
;**************************
averageV
        bcf                     STATUS,b'0'         ;divide by continuous subtraction
        clrf                    QuotVH
          clrf          QuotVL
          movlw         0x04
          movwf         Divisor
DivideV
        movf            Divisor,0           ; setup for subtraction
        subwf               RESLV,1             ; RESLV = RESLV - Divisor
        btfss               STATUS,b'0'
        goto                BorrowV
        goto                Div_2V

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```

```
BorrowV
        movlw           0x01
        subwf           RESHV,1              ; use subtract instead of decf
        btfss                   STATUS,b'0'              ; ... because it sets the carry
        goto                    DoneV               ; generated a borrow so finish
Div_2V
        incf                    QuotVL,1                 ; add one and loop again
        btfsc                   STATUS,b'10'
          incf                  QuotVH,1
          goto          DivideV

DoneV
                return
;*************************
;
;*************************
;
averageI
        bcf                     STATUS,b'0'                     ;divide by contiuous
subtraction
        clrf            QuotI
        movlw           0x04
        movwf           Divisor
DivideI
        movf            Divisor,0                ; setup for subtraction
        subwf           RESLI,1                 ;RESLI = RESLI - Divisor
        btfss                   STATUS,b'0'
        goto            BorrowI
        goto            Div_2I
BorrowI
        movlw           0x01
        subwf           RESHI,1                 ;use subtract instead of decf
        btfss                   STATUS,b'0'              ; ... because it sets the carry
        goto            DoneI                           ;generated a borrow so finish
Div_2I
        incf            QuotI,1                 ;add one and loop again
        goto            DivideI
DoneI
        return
;*************************
;
;*************************
;
mult
        clrf                    PowerLO                 ;Clears hi and low bytes of power
register
        clrf                    PowerHI
        movf            QuotI,0                         ;Move average current value to a
separate
        movwf           COUNT2          ;register
        bcf             STATUS,0                ;CLEAR CARRY BIT
again
        movf            QuotVL,0                ;Add low byte of averaged voltage to low
byte of
        addwf                   PowerLO,0                                ;power register
        movwf           PowerLO
        btfsc                   STATUS,0                                ;Test the carry bit
        incf                    PowerHI,1               ;Increment the high byte of Power
reg if carry is set
```

```
        movlw           0x02
        btfsc           QuotVH,1                ;Test if high byte of averaged
voltage has a value
        addwf           PowerHI,1               ;add that value if yes,skip if no
        btfsc           QuotVH,0
        incf            PowerHI,1
    decfsz          COUNT2,1                ;repeat for value of AMPS register
    goto                again
    return
;************************
; ************************
;
Delay
    movlw       0xFF
    movwf       COUNT2
Delay1
    decfsz          COUNT2,1                ; Decrement Memory And Skip
When Zero
    goto                Delay1
    return
; ************************
;************************
;
SetDuty
        call            chk_lmts
        btfsc               status_temp,b'11'
        goto                raiseDC
        btfsc               status_temp,b'10'
        goto                lowerDC
        btfss           status_temp,b'1'            ;test if duty cycle was increased or
decreased last
        goto            pos             ;if set the duty cycle was decreased last
        btfss           status_temp,b'0'                ;test if power was inc or dec last
        goto            lowerDC         ;if not set the power is higher
        goto            raiseDC         ;if set the power is lower
pos
                                                    ;if not set the duty cycle was
increased last
        btfss           status_temp,b'0'                ;test if power was inc or dec last
        goto            raiseDC         ;if not set the power is higher
        goto            lowerDC         ;if set the power is lower
lowerDC
    bcf             status_temp,b'10'
        bsf             status_temp,b'1'                ;duty cycle is being decreased
        bcf             STATUS,b'0'         ;clear carry bit
        BANKSEL             CCPR1L
        rlf             CCPR1L,1                ;rotate CCPR1L reg to the left
        BANKSEL             CCP1CON
        btfsc           CCP1CON,0x05        ;check value in CCP1CON register
    call            setbit
    rlf             CCPR1L,1                ;rotate CCPR1L reg to left again
        BANKSEL             CCP1CON
        btfsc           CCP1CON,0x04        ;check value in CCP1CON reg
    call            setbit
        movlw       0x01
        subwf           CCPR1L,1            ;subtract one from CCPR1L reg
        btfss           CCPR1L,b'0'         ;if bit '0' is set in CCPR1L reg then
```

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```
        goto        clrbit1
        BANKSEL          CCP1CON          ;set corresponding bit in CCP1CON
reg
        bsf             CCP1CON,0x04
next1
        BANKSEL         CCPR1L
        bcf             CCPR1L,b'0'     ;clear bit
    bcf         STATUS,b'0'
        rrf         CCPR1L,1            ;rotate right
        btfss       CCPR1L,b'0'         ;if bit '0' is set in CCPR1L reg
        goto        clrbit2
        BANKSEL         CCP1CON          ;then set corresponding bit in
CCP1CON reg
        bsf             CCP1CON,0x05
next2
        BANKSEL         CCPR1L
        bcf             CCPR1L,b'0'     ;clear bit
        rrf             CCPR1L,1        ;rotate right
        goto        go
clrbit1
    BANKSEL     CCP1CON
    bcf         CCP1CON,0x04
    goto        next1
clrbit2
    BANKSEL     CCP1CON
    bcf         CCP1CON,0x05
    goto        next2


raiseDC
    bcf             status_temp,b'11'
        bcf             status_temp,b'1'
        BANKSEL         CCP1CON              ;Choose CCP1 control register
        btfss           CCP1CON,0x04             ;test if PWM bit is set
        goto        add4bit             ;if not set bit by adding
        btfss       CCP1CON,0x05
        goto        add4bit
        bcf             CCP1CON,0x04            ;if both are set then adding
one will
        bcf         CCP1CON,0x05        ;clear them
        BANKSEL         CCPR1L
        movlw       0x01
        addwf       CCPR1L,1            ;add one to upper byte of PWM duty cycle
bits
        goto        go
add4bit
        movlw       0x10
        addwf       CCP1CON,1
        goto        go
add5bit
        movlw       0x20
        addwf       CCP1CON,1
        goto        go
go
        return
```

```
;********************************
;********************************
;
Compare
          movf      PowerHI,0
          subwf     PowerOldHI,0        ;subtract high byte of Pnew  from Pold
          btfsc     STATUS,b'0'         ;if clear new power is less than old power
          goto      decreased
          movf      PowerLO,0           ;if set new power is equal or higher
          subwf     PowerOldLO,0              ;subtract low byte of new power
from old power
          btfsc     STATUS,b'0'         ;if clear new power is less than old power
          goto      decreased
          bsf       status_temp,b'0'            ;if set than new power is
higher than old power
ret
          return
decreased
          bcf             status_temp,b'0'
          goto       ret
;********************************
;********************************
;
setbit
          BANKSEL          CCPR1L              ;if set then increment CCPR1L reg
          bsf              CCPR1L,b'0'
      return
;********************************
;********************************
;
chk_lmts
      BANKSEL     CCPR1L
      rlf         CCPR1L,1
      bcf         CCPR1L,0x00
      BANKSEL     CCP1CON
      btfsc       CCP1CON,0x05
      call        setbit
      BANKSEL     CCPR1L
      rlf         CCPR1L,1
      BANKSEL     CCP1CON
      btfsc       CCP1CON,0x04
      call        setbit
      BANKSEL     CCPR1L
      movlw       0x1A
      subwf       CCPR1L,0
      btfsc       STATUS,b'10'
      bsf         status_temp,b'10'
      movlw       0x00
      subwf       CCPR1L,0
      btfsc       STATUS,b'10'
      bsf         status_temp,b'11'
      bcf         CCPR1L,b'0'
      bcf         STATUS,b'0'
      rrf         CCPR1L,1
      bcf         CCPR1L,b'0'
      bcf         STATUS,b'0'
      rrf         CCPR1L,1
      return
```

```
;************************************
;Forever Loop
PROG            btfss          PIR1,b'0'
         goto              Init
; initialize eeprom locations


EE          CODE      0x2100
         DE      0x00, 0x01, 0x02, 0x03


         END                  ; directive 'end of program'
```

DC-DC Converter Simulation
DCDCConverter W/Filter

```
VIN 1 0 12V
.SUBCKT SWITCH 10 20 30 40
S 10 20 30 40 ZWICK
.MODEL ZWICK VSWITCH(RON=1 ROFF=1MEG)
CS 10 15 .1u IC=0
RS 15 20 300
.ENDS

X1 5 0 A 0 SWITCH
VC1 A 0 PULSE(0 2 0 1u 1u 50u 100u)
D 5 6 D1
.MODEL D1 D(RS=.1 BV=1000)
CSD 5 25 .1u IC=0
RSD 25 6 300
Rs      3 4 .1
L 4 5 500u IC=0
C 6 0 330u IC=0
R 6 0 20
RF      1 2 .1
LF      2 3 50u        IC=0
CF      3 0    10u    IC=0
.PROBE
.TRAN 15m 15m 0 10u UIC
.END
```