Maximum Peak Power Tracker:
A Solar Application

A Major Qualifying Project Report
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By

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Professor Alexander Emanuel, Advisor
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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\textsuperscript{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 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\%. 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\(^4\).

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 1600 kWh each year and 48,000 kWh in 30 years. This array would avoid approximately $(48,000 \times 0.95) \times 160$ g/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 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

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electrons (p-type) on the other. This behavior creates an electrostatic field with moving electrons and a solar cell is essentially, a large-area diode⁶.

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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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).

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.

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/m²). Given ideal conditions, a solar panel should obtain an irradiance of 100mW/cm², or 1000W/m². 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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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 measured as kilowatt-hours per square meter per day (kWh/(m\(^2\)*day)) or in the case of photovoltaics, as

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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](image)

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/m²/day

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<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

![Figure 7: Temperature effect on solar panel power and I-V curves](image)

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


\(^{10}\) LGBG Technology “Towards 20% Efficient Silicon Solar Cells.” 02 Oct 2005.
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\textsuperscript{11}. Texturing the surface of such cells helps mitigate reflection problems, but the solar panel’s efficiency is defined by other factors as well.

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\textsuperscript{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 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.

![Diagram of DC-DC Boost Converter](image)

**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 \(v_o(t) = V_o\).
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.

\[ \frac{V_o}{V_d} = \frac{T_s}{T_{off}} = \frac{1}{(1 - D)} \]

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 $D = 1/3 = 0.333$:

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

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 $V_o/V_d$.

$$D = \left[\frac{4 V_o}{27 V_d} \left(\frac{V_o}{V_d} - 1\right) \frac{I_o}{I_{oB,max}}\right]^{1/2}$$
3.0 Methodology

3.1 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.

![Solar Panel Simulator schematic](image)

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 environmental characteristics that a typical solar panel may have to deal with when providing some output power. In other words, varying the output 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 amount of radiation density on a given surface—on a typical solar panel.

Figure 12: Solar Simulator V-I Characteristic
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

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<td>8.115</td>
<td>0.325</td>
<td>11.37</td>
<td>0.455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>11.367</td>
<td>0.379</td>
<td>9.718</td>
<td>0.324</td>
<td>11.467</td>
<td>0.382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>11.449</td>
<td>0.327</td>
<td>11.151</td>
<td>0.319</td>
<td>11.536</td>
<td>0.329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>11.56</td>
<td>0.257</td>
<td>11.36</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>11.63</td>
<td>0.258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>11.606</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>11.429</td>
<td>0.224</td>
<td>11.669</td>
<td>0.229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>11.718</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>11.59</td>
<td>0.154</td>
<td>11.764</td>
<td>0.157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>11.779</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>11.676</td>
<td>0.117</td>
<td>11.815</td>
<td>0.118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>125</td>
<td>11.815</td>
<td>0.0945</td>
<td>11.728</td>
<td>0.0938</td>
<td>11.846</td>
<td>0.0947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>169</td>
<td>11.854</td>
<td>0.0701</td>
<td>11.782</td>
<td>0.0697</td>
<td>11.879</td>
<td>0.0703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>210</td>
<td>11.875</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>11.812</td>
<td>0.0562</td>
<td>11.897</td>
<td>0.0566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>11.902</td>
<td>0.0397</td>
<td>11.85</td>
<td>0.0395</td>
<td>11.92</td>
<td>0.0397</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.5Ω resistors 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](image)

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 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](image)

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 500\( \mu \)H inductor, 330\( \mu \)F capacitor, an ideal switch and diode, output load of 20\( \Omega \). 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 50\( \mu \)H inductor and 10\( \mu \)F capacitor is also included to observe the effect on the input from adding a filter to the converter.
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.
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.

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.
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 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 $R_{\text{SENSE}}$, 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 $R_{\text{DS}}$ 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, $V_{\text{DS}}$ is relatively small as is the case for MOSFETs used as switches, the equivalent resistance of the device is:
where $\mu$ 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.

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

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.

![Diagram of 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

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

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 \( B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \), where \( \mu_0 \) 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, \( B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \). 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](image)

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.

![Diagram of Closed-Loop hall effect current sensing](image)

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current Sensing Method</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Accuracy</th>
<th>Power Dissipation</th>
<th>Relative Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Open loop Hall effect sensor</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>90-95%</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closed loop Hall Effect sensor</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>&gt;95%</td>
<td>Moderate-high</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Precision Current Sensing Resistor</td>
<td>.020 Ω</td>
<td>&gt;95%</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inductor Filter Sensing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R_{DS} Sensing</td>
<td>.024 Ω</td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.
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:

\[ \Delta I = \frac{V_{IN}}{L} DT_S = \frac{V_D - V_{IN}}{L} (1 - D) T_S \]

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:

\[ L_{MIN} = \frac{V_{IN} D}{I_{IN} 2F_S} = \frac{(1 - D)DV_D}{\frac{1}{(1 - D)} I_0 f_s} = \frac{(1 - D)^2 DR}{2f_s} \]

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, \( I_{\text{PEAK}} \), we must take care to make sure that the inductor’s saturation rating meets or exceeds the calculated value for \( I_{\text{PEAK}} \) 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, \( P_{\text{LR}} \), is approximated by:

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

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—\( I_{\text{AVG}} \), the average voltage, \( V_{\text{AVG}} \), the equivalent resistance of the circuit, \( R_{\text{EQ}} \), 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.

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 thevenin resistance will simply be the voltage over the current at the maximum power point.

Figure 24: Solar panel and thevenin power characteristic comparison

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.

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:
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 $\tau$. 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 $\tau$, the equation for $I_1$ is given by

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

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 $\tau$. 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
To obtain $I_2$, we use the equation

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

Simplifying, and solving for $I_2$,

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

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

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

With $T_0$ much less than the time constant, $\tau$, 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, $I_{\text{MAX}}$. 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, $\Delta I$, 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](image)
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 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 \( R_{EQ} = R_{TH} \)):

\[
I_{MAX} = \frac{V_{O}}{2R_{C}}
\]

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.

![TC4427 Pin Layout](image)

**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 \( (Q_g) \) \( \rightarrow \) 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:
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 \( \Delta_T \) is the temperature rise over ambient degrees Celsius, \( P \) is the device’s total power dissipation, and \( R_\Theta \) 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 $\delta$ 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 $\Delta T$, the temperature rise at the MOSFET $Q_1$ is given by:

$$\Delta T(Q_1) = \frac{R_{\theta[S]} I_{RMS}^2 R_{ON} D + f [Q_g V_G + \frac{1}{2} (t_r + t_f) I_{RMS} V_G]}{1 - R_{\theta[S]} I_{RMS}^2 \delta R_{ON} D}$$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MOSFET</th>
<th>Gate Charge $Q_g$(nC)</th>
<th>Drain-Source Resistance, $R_{DS}$(mΩ)</th>
<th>Rise Time, $t_r$(ns)</th>
<th>Fall Time, $t_f$(ns)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FDP6030</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRL7833</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRFU014</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRF7401</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDS6880</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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, $f = 100\text{kHz}$, $V_s = 5\text{V}$, $I_o = 500\text{mA}$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MOSFET</th>
<th>$P_{C}(\text{mW})$</th>
<th>$P_{D}(\text{mW})$</th>
<th>$P_{S}(\text{mW})$</th>
<th>Total Loss (mW)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FDP6030</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRL7833</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.125</td>
<td>24.0625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRFU014</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>8.625</td>
<td>64.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRF7401</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDS6880</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>5.125</td>
<td>22.375</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 $\mu$ is the permeability of the core, and $N$ is the number of turns of the wire around the toroid. However $\mu$ 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:
where $L$ is the inductance in Henries, $\mu_0$ is the permeability of free space $= 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ H/m}$, $\mu_r$ 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.

First we measured the resistance $r$ of the inductor using a multimeter, noting that it was very small, $45\text{m\Omega}$. 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, $\omega L$ (where $\omega$ is $2\pi f$), is much larger than the resistance, $R$, which is also much larger than the resistance of the inductor, $r$. Given this, we chose $f=50\text{kHz}$, and $R=20\text{k\Omega}$. 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, $\omega$. From $V_L = IX_L$, 

$$L = \mu_0 \mu_r \frac{N^2 r^2}{D}$$
Using a multimeter, we measure $V_L = 2.2mV$, and $V_Z = 0.717mV$ and $\omega = \frac{2\pi f}{R} = 2\pi \times 50kHz = 314159$ rad/s. With the relationship of the voltages, resistance and frequency, the inductance is given as

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

Substituting the found values, we obtain $L = 498\mu H$, which is very close to the desired results from simulation of $500\mu H$. 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 $498\mu H$, 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 enclosure 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.

![Schottky Diode physical specifications](image)

**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

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stability with only 0.33µF at its input and output. Bypassing either at 1µF will ensure that stability is always maintained.

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:

\[
\frac{V_{\text{SOLAR}}}{V_{\text{PIC}}} = \frac{R_1}{(R_1 + R_2)}
\]

With the maximum \(V_{\text{SOLAR}}\) as 12V, and the maximum value for \(V_{\text{PIC}}\) 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.
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.
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.

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:

\[ V_{OUT} = \left( \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right) \cdot V_{IN} \]

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.

\[
\text{Gain} = \frac{1.2V}{30mV} = 40
\]

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.

![Current Sensing schematic](image)

Figure 35: Current Sensing schematic

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.

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 V_{SS} 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 V_{SS}. 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.

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.
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.

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

**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.

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 $T_{osc}$. $T_{osc}$ 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.

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 \[10*4/(4MHz)\times1\] = 10µs.

\[
PWM\ Period = [(PR2 + 1) \times 4 \times TOsc \times (TMR2\ Prescale\ Value)]
\]

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

\[ \text{Pulse Width} = (\text{CCPR1L:CCP1CON}<5:4>) \times \text{TOSC} \times (\text{TMR2 Prescale Value}) \]

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.

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

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 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 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 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 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duty Cycle</th>
<th>Voltage</th>
<th>Current</th>
<th>Power</th>
<th>Vload</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>40</td>
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</table>
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.
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.

![V-I Characteristic](image)

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](image)

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.
References

  http://www.powerdesigners.com/InfoWeb/design_center/articles/DC-DC/
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 TC4426/TC4427/TC4428

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

General Description
The TC4426/TC4427/TC4428 are improved versions of the earlier TC4426/TC4427/TC4428 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 TC4429A/TC4429A/TC4429A family of devices. The TC4429A/TC4429A/TC4429A 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

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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.
1.0 ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Absolute Maximum Ratings †
Supply Voltage .................................................. +22V
Input Voltage, IN A or IN B
.................................................. (V_{CC} + 0.3V) to (GND - 6V)
Package Power Dissipation (T_A ≤ 70°C)
PDIP .................................................. 730 mW
CERDIP .................................................. 680 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.

DC CHARACTERISTICS

Electrical Specifications: Unless otherwise noted, T_A = +25°C with 4.5 V ≤ V_{CC} ≤ 18 V.

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<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Sym</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Typ</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
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<td>Logic '1', High Input Voltage</td>
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<td>V</td>
<td>Note 2</td>
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<td>µA</td>
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<td>50</td>
<td>nsec</td>
<td>Figure 4-1</td>
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<td>Power Supply Current</td>
<td>I_{D}</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>mA</td>
<td>V_{IN} = 3V (Both inputs)</td>
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Note 1: Switching times ensured by design.
Note 2: For V temperature range devices, the V_{IH} (Min) limit is 2.0 V.

PIN FUNCTION TABLE

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<td>IN A</td>
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<td>GND</td>
<td>Ground</td>
</tr>
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<td>IN B</td>
<td>Input B</td>
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<td>OUT B</td>
<td>Output B</td>
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<td>V_{CC}</td>
<td>Supply input</td>
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<td>OUT A</td>
<td>Output A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>No Connection</td>
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</table>
1.0 ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Absolute Maximum Ratings †

Supply Voltage .............................................. +22V
Input Voltage, IN A or IN B
................................................(VDD + 0.3V) to (GND – 0.6V)
Package Power Dissipation (TA ≤ 70°C)
PDIP ................................................................ 730 mW
CERDIP ....................................................... 680 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.

DC CHARACTERISTICS

Electrical Specifications: Unless otherwise noted, TAMB = +25°C with 4.5V ≤ VDD ≤ 18V.

<table>
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<th>Parameters</th>
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<th>Typ</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
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<td>Input</td>
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<td>2.4</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>V</td>
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<td>Logic ‘0’, Low Input Voltage</td>
<td>VIL</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>0.8</td>
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<td>+1.0</td>
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<td>nsec</td>
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<td>nsec</td>
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<td>Delay Time</td>
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<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>nsec</td>
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<tr>
<td>Power Supply Current</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>mA</td>
<td>VIL = 3V (Both inputs)</td>
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<td>Note 1: Switching times ensured by design.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2: For V temperature range devices, the VIN (Min) limit is 2.0V.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
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, $T_A = +25^\circ C$ with $4.5 \leq V_{DD} \leq 13V$.

FIGURE 2-1: Rise Time vs. Supply Voltage.

FIGURE 2-2: Rise Time vs. Capacitive Load.

FIGURE 2-3: Rise and Fall Times vs. Temperature.

FIGURE 2-4: Fall Time vs. Supply Voltage.

FIGURE 2-5: Fall Time vs. Capacitive Load.

FIGURE 2-6: Propagation Delay Time vs. Supply Voltage.
Note: Unless otherwise indicated, $T_A = +25^\circ C$ with $4.5\text{V} \leq V_{DD} \leq 18\text{V}$.

**FIGURE 2-7:** Propagation Delay Time vs. Input Amplitude.

**FIGURE 2-8:** Supply Current vs. Supply Voltage.

**FIGURE 2-9:** Output Resistance ($R_{OH}$) vs. Supply Voltage.

**FIGURE 2-10:** Propagation Delay Time vs. Temperature.

**FIGURE 2-11:** Supply Current vs. Temperature.

**FIGURE 2-12:** Output Resistance ($R_{OL}$) vs. Supply Voltage.
3.0 PIN DESCRIPTIONS

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

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<th>Description</th>
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<td>2</td>
<td>IN A</td>
<td>Input A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>GND</td>
<td>Ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>IN B</td>
<td>Input B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>OUT B</td>
<td>Output B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>VDD</td>
<td>Supply Input</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>OUT A</td>
<td>Output A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>NC</td>
<td>No connection</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 (VDD)

The VDD input is the bias supply for the MOSFET driver and is rated for 4.5V to 18V with respect to the ground pin. The VDD 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.
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, $R_{DS(on)} = 0.018 \Omega$ @ $V_{DS} = 10 \text{V}$
- $R_{DS(on)} = 0.024 \Omega$ @ $V_{DS} = 4.5 \text{V}$
- Critical DC electrical parameters specified at elevated temperature.
- Plugged 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

Absolute Maximum Ratings $T_J = 25^\circ C$ unless otherwise noted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>FDP6030BL</th>
<th>FDB6030BL</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$V_{DS}$</td>
<td>Drain-Source Voltage</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>V</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{GS}$</td>
<td>Gate-Source Voltage</td>
<td>$+20$</td>
<td>V</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_D$</td>
<td>Maximum Drain Current</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Continuous</td>
<td>(Note 1)</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Pulsed</td>
<td></td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_D$</td>
<td>Total Power Dissipation @ $T_J = 25^\circ C$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>W</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Permissible above $25^\circ C$</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>W/°C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_J$</td>
<td>Operation and Storage Junction Temperature Range</td>
<td>-65 to +175</td>
<td>°C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thermal Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$R_{Thj}$</td>
<td>Thermal Resistance, Junction-to-Case</td>
<td>$2.5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_{Tha}$</td>
<td>Thermal Resistance, Junction-to-Ambient</td>
<td>$40.5$</td>
</tr>
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Package Marking and Ordering Information

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Device Marking</th>
<th>Device</th>
<th>Reel Size</th>
<th>Tape Width</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FDP6030BL</td>
<td>FDB6030BL</td>
<td>13&quot;</td>
<td>24mm</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDP6030BL</td>
<td>FDB6030BL</td>
<td>Tube</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>45</td>
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### Electrical Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Test Conditions</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Typ</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V_{DSS}</td>
<td>Single Pulse Drain-Source Avalanche Energy</td>
<td>V_{GS} = 15 V, I_{D} = 40 A</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>mJ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_{DS}</td>
<td>Maximum Drain-Source Avalanche Current</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>

#### Off Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Test Conditions</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Typ</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V_{DSS}</td>
<td>Drain-Source Breakdown Voltage</td>
<td>V_{DS} = 0 V, I_{D} = 250 mA</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔV_{DSS}/ΔT</td>
<td>Breakdown Voltage Temperature Coefficient</td>
<td>I_{D} = 250 mA, Referenced to 25°C</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>mV/°C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_{GSS}</td>
<td>Zero Gate Voltage Drain Current</td>
<td>V_{GS} = 24 V, V_{DS} = 0 V</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_{GS}</td>
<td>Gate-Body Leakage Current, Forward</td>
<td>V_{GS} = 20 V, V_{DS} = 0 V</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>nA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I_{GS}</td>
<td>Gate-Body Leakage Current, Reverse</td>
<td>V_{GS} = -20 V, V_{DS} = 0 V</td>
<td>-100</td>
<td>nA</td>
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#### On Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
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<th>Min</th>
<th>Typ</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V_{GS}</td>
<td>Gate Threshold Voltage</td>
<td>V_{GS} = V_{DS}, I_{D} = 250 mA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔV_{GS}/ΔT</td>
<td>Gate Threshold Voltage Temperature Coefficient</td>
<td>I_{D} = 250 mA, Referenced to 25°C</td>
<td>-4.5</td>
<td>mV/°C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R_{ON}</td>
<td>Static Drain-Source On-Resistance</td>
<td>V_{GS} = 10 V, I_{D} = 20 A, T_{J} = 125°C</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>V_{GS} = 4.5 V, I_{D} = 17 A</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I_{ON}</td>
<td>On-State Drain Current</td>
<td>V_{GS} = 10 V, V_{DS} = 10 V</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G_{mF}</td>
<td>Forward Transconductance</td>
<td>V_{GS} = 5 V, I_{D} = 20 A</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>

#### Dynamic Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
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<th>Min</th>
<th>Typ</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C_{gs}</td>
<td>Input Capacitance</td>
<td>V_{GS} = 15 V, V_{DS} = 0 V, f = 1 MHz</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>pF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_{gd}</td>
<td>Output Capacitance</td>
<td></td>
<td>250</td>
<td>pF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_{gd}</td>
<td>Reverse Transfer Capacitance</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>pF</td>
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#### Switching Characteristics

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Parameter</th>
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<th>Min</th>
<th>Typ</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t_{ON}</td>
<td>Turn-On Delay Time</td>
<td>V_{GS} = 15 V, I_{D} = 1 A, V_{DS} = 10 V</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t_{OFF}</td>
<td>Turn-Off Delay Time</td>
<td>V_{GS} = 10 V, R_{ON} = 6 Ω</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_{G}</td>
<td>Total Gate Charge</td>
<td>V_{GS} = 15 V, I_{D} = 20 A, V_{DS} = 5 V</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>nC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_{GD}</td>
<td>Gate-Source Charge</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>nC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_{GD}</td>
<td>Gate-Drain Charge</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>nC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Drain-Source Diode Characteristics and Maximum Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Test Conditions</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Typ</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I_{D}</td>
<td>Maximum Continuous Drain-Source Diode Forward Current</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V_{PD}</td>
<td>Drain-Source Diode Forward Voltage</td>
<td>V_{GS} = 0 V, I_{D} = 20 A</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>V</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:**
1. Pulse Test: Pulse width is 6 μs, duty cycle is 2.5%
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 Rectifier

31DQ05
31DQ06

SCHOTTKY RECTIFIER

3.3 Amp

Major Ratings and Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( V_{(fA)} ) Rectangular waveform</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( V_{(fA)} )</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( V_{(fA)} ) @ ( f = 5 ) us sine</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( V_{(fA)} ) @ 1A, ( T_J = 25^\circ ) C</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( T_J )</td>
<td>-40 to 150</td>
<td>°C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Description/Features

The 31DQ... 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-18
Dimensions in millimeters and inches
### Voltage Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part number</th>
<th>31DQ05</th>
<th>31DQ08</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$V_{Ri}$ Max. DC Reverse Voltage (V)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{RWM}$ Max. Working Peak Reverse Voltage (V)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Absolute Maximum Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>31DQ.</th>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$I_{F(AV)}$ Max. Average Forward Current</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>50% duty cycle @ $T_c = 40^\circ C$, rectangular wave form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_{FSM}$ Max. Peak One Cycle Non-Repetitive Surge Current</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>5μs Sine or 3μs Rect, pulse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_{AS}$ Non-Repetitive Avalanche Energy</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>mJ</td>
<td>$T_a = 25^\circ C$, $I_{AS} = 1$ Amps, $L = 10$ mH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_{AR}$ Repetitive Avalanche Current</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Current decaying linearly to zero in 1 μsec</td>
</tr>
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</table>

### Electrical Specifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>31DQ.</th>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$V_{RN}$ Max. Forward Voltage Drop</td>
<td>0.62 V @ 3A</td>
<td>$T_a = 25^\circ C$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{RN}$</td>
<td>0.76 V @ 8A</td>
<td>$T_a = 125^\circ C$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{RN}$</td>
<td>0.54 V @ 3A</td>
<td>$T_a = 125^\circ C$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_{RMS}$ Max. Reverse Leakage Current</td>
<td>2 mA @ 3A</td>
<td>$T_a = 25^\circ C$, $V_R = $ rated $V_R$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_{RMS}$</td>
<td>15 mA @ 3A</td>
<td>$T_a = 125^\circ C$, $V_R = $ rated $V_R$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_J$ Typical Junction Capacitance</td>
<td>160 pF</td>
<td>$V_J = 5V_{cso}$ (Use signal range 1kHz to 1MHz, $25^\circ C$)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L_J$ Typical Series Inductance</td>
<td>9.0 nH</td>
<td>Measured lead to lead 5mm from package body</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$dv/dt$ Max. Voltage Rate of Change</td>
<td>10000 V/μs</td>
<td>(Rated $V_a$)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Thermal-Mechanical Specifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>31DQ.</th>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$T_J$ Max. Junction Temperature</td>
<td>-40 to 150 $^\circ C$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_{MJ}$ Max. Storage Temperature</td>
<td>-40 to 150 $^\circ C$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_{J(A)}$ Max. Thermal Resistance Junction to Ambient</td>
<td>80 $^\circ C/W$ DC operation Without cooling fins</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_{J(L)}$ Typical Thermal Resistance Junction to Lead</td>
<td>34 $^\circ C/W$ DC operation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wt Approximate Weight</td>
<td>1.2 (0.042) g (oz.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case Style</td>
<td>C-16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\frac{dT_J}{dt} = \frac{1}{R_{TH(j-a)}}$ thermal runaway condition for a diode on its own heatsink
Fig. 1 - Max. Forward Voltage Drop Characteristics

Fig. 2 - Typical Values Of Reverse Current Vs. Reverse Voltage

Fig. 3 - Typical Junction Capacitance Vs. Reverse Voltage
Fig. 4 - Max. Allowable Lead Temperature Vs. Average Forward Current

Fig. 5 - Forward Power Loss Characteristics

Fig. 6 - Max. Non-Repetitive Surge Current

(2) Formulas used:

\[ T_a = T_f \left( PD + PD_{rms} \right) X_{RMS} I_{RMS} \]

\[ PD = \text{Forward Power Loss} = \frac{I_{RMS}}{V_{RMS} \times \left( 1 - D \right)} \]

\[ PD_{rms} = \text{Inverse Power Loss} = V_{RMS} X_{RMS} \left( 1 - D \right) \]

\[ \text{At Any Rated Load Condition} \]

\[ \text{And With Rated V_{RMS} Applied} \]

\[ \text{Following Surge} \]

\[ 10^3 \quad 10^2 \quad 10 \quad 1 \]

\[ \text{Square Wave Pulse Duration - } t_f \text{ (microsec)} \]

\[ \text{Non-Repetitive Surge Current - } I_{RMS} \]

\[ 1000 \quad 100 \quad 10 \quad 1 \]

\[ \text{All Any Rated Load Condition} \]

\[ \text{And With Rated V_{RMS} Applied} \]

\[ \text{Following Surge} \]

\[ \text{Square Wave Pulse Duration - } t_f \text{ (microsec)} \]

\[ \text{Non-Repetitive Surge Current - } I_{RMS} \]
LT1121 Voltage Regulator

**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

**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.

---

**APPLICATIONS**

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

---

**TYPICAL APPLICATION**

5V Battery-Powered Supply with Shutdown

![Typical Application Diagram](image)

**Dropout Voltage**

![Dropout Voltage Graph](image)
LT1121/LT1121-3.3/LT1121-5

**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)
- LT1121-C: ........................ 0°C to 125°C
- LT1121-X: ........................ -40°C to 125°C

Storage Temperature Range: -65°C to 150°C

Lead Temperature (Soldering, 10 sec): 300°C

**PACKAGE/ORDER INFORMATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>S8 PART MARKING</th>
<th>ORDER PART NUMBER</th>
<th>ST PART MARKING</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LT1121CN8</td>
<td>LT1121IS8-3.3</td>
<td>12113</td>
<td>LT1121GST-3.3</td>
<td>LT1121CN8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT1121CN8-3.3</td>
<td>LT1121IS8-5</td>
<td>12115</td>
<td>LT1121IST-3.3</td>
<td>LT1121CN8-3.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>LT1121CN8-5</td>
<td>LT1121HVIS8</td>
<td>1211HVI</td>
<td>LT1121CN8-5</td>
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<td>LT1121IN8</td>
<td>LT1121ACS8</td>
<td>1121A3</td>
<td>LT1121CN8-8</td>
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<td>LT1121IN8-3.3</td>
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<td>121A5</td>
<td>LT1121CN8-3.3</td>
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Order Options: Tape and Reel: Add #TR
Lead Free: Add #PB Lead Free Tape and Reel: Add #TRPB
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 $T_A = 25^\circ C$.

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<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.35</td>
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<td>$V_{OUT} = 1\text{mA}$</td>
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<td>$T_J = 25^\circ C$</td>
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<td>$4.37 &lt; V_{IN} &lt; 20\text{V}$</td>
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<td>LT1121-5 $V_{IN} = 3.5%$</td>
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<td>LT1121 (Note 5) $V_{IN} = 4.3%$</td>
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<td>$4.37 &lt; V_{IN} &lt; 20\text{V}$</td>
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<td>Load Regulation</td>
<td>LT1121-3.3 $\Delta V_{IN} = 4.8%$</td>
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<td>mV</td>
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<td>$\Delta V_{IN} = 4.3%$</td>
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<td>Dropout Voltage (Note 6)</td>
<td>LT1121-3.3 $I_{LOAD} = 1\text{mA}$</td>
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<td>$I_{LOAD} = 50\text{mA}$</td>
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<td>$I_{LOAD} = 150\text{mA}$</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ground Pin Current (Note 7)</td>
<td>LT1121-3.3 $I_{LOAD} = 0\text{mA}$</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50</td>
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<td>pA</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$T_J = 25^\circ C$</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$I_{LOAD} = 1\text{mA}$</td>
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<td>pA</td>
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<td>$I_{LOAD} = 10\text{mA}$</td>
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<td>$I_{LOAD} = 100\text{mA}$</td>
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<td>$I_{LOAD} = 150\text{mA}$</td>
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<td>Adjacent Pin Bias Current (Noise 5, 8)</td>
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<td>300</td>
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<td>Shutdown Threshold</td>
<td>$V_{OUT} = \text{OFF to ON}$</td>
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<td>$V_{OUT} = \text{ON to OFF}$</td>
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<td>Shutdown Pin Current (Note 9)</td>
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<td>$V_{IN} - V_{OUT} = 0\text{V}$</td>
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<td>22</td>
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<td>pA</td>
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<td>Ripple Rejection</td>
<td>$V_{IN} - V_{OUT} = 1\text{V}$</td>
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<td>Current Limit</td>
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<td>Reverse Output Current (Note 11)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>$V_{IN} = 6\text{V}$</td>
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<td>LT1121-5 $V_{OUT} = 5%$</td>
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<td>$V_{IN} = 6\text{V}$</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td>pA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS

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 Tj > 110°C and IOUT < 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: (VOUT - VDROP).

Note 7: Ground pin current is tested with VIN = VOUT (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 VOUT = 0V flows out of the shutdown pin.

Note 10: Quiescent current is shutdown is equal to the sum total of the shutdown pin current (5uA) and the ground pin current (5uA).

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

Typical Performance Characteristics
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 advisable 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 (VBE). 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 (VBE). 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.
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 LMC6462/4, 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 is guaranteed for loads down to 25 kΩ, assuring maximum dynamic signal 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 Vdd = 3V) can extend the useful life of battery operated systems.

The amplifier's 150 mA input current, low offset voltage of 0.25 mV, and 65 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, Vg = 5V and Rl = 25 kΩ)
- Low Input Current: 150 mA
- Low Input Offset Voltage: 0.25 mV

Applications

- Battery Operated Circuits
- Transducer Interface Circuits
- Portable Communication Devices
- Medical Applications
- Battery Monitoring
### Absolute Maximum Ratings (Note 1)

- 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 (Note 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 ≤ V+ ≤ 15.5V
- Junction Temperature Range LMC6462AM, LMC6464AM -35°C ≤ Tj ≤ +125°C
- LMC6462AI, LMC6464AI -40°C ≤ Tj ≤ +85°C
- LMC6462BI, LMC6464BI -40°C ≤ Tj ≤ +85°C
- Thermal Resistance (θJA) 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 Tj = 25°C, V+ = 5V, V- = 0V, VCM = V+ / 2 and RL > 1M. Boldface limits apply at the temperature extremes.

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<th>LMC6464AM Limit (Note 6)</th>
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<th>LMC6464AI Limit (Note 6)</th>
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<td>65</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>dB min</td>
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<td>62</td>
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<td>65</td>
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<td>V+ = 5V</td>
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<td>62</td>
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<td>+PSRR</td>
<td>Positive Power Supply Rejection Ratio</td>
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<td>dB min</td>
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<td>V+ = 0V, VCM = 2.5V</td>
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<td>62</td>
<td>65</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0V ≤ V+ ≤ -15V</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Negative Power Supply Rejection Ratio</td>
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<td>70</td>
<td>dB min</td>
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<td>V+ = 0V, VCM = -2.5V</td>
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<td>Input Common-Mode Voltage Range</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>V+ = 15V</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>V+ = 5V</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>V+ = 15V</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>For CMRR ≥ 50 dB</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>For CMRR ≥ 50 dB</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 5V DC Electrical Characteristics (Continued)

Unless otherwise specified, all limits guaranteed for $T_J = 25^\circ C$, $V^+ = 5V$, $V^- = 0V$, $V_{CM} = V_0 = V^+/2$ and $R_I > 1M$. Boldface limits apply at the temperature extremes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Typ (Note 5)</th>
<th>LMC6464AI</th>
<th>LMC6464BI</th>
<th>LMC6464AM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$A_v$</td>
<td>Large Signal Voltage Gain</td>
<td>$R_I = 100 , k\Omega$ (Note 7)</td>
<td>Sourcing</td>
<td>3000</td>
<td>V/mV min</td>
<td>Sinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_O$</td>
<td>Output Swing</td>
<td>$V^+ = 5V$, $R_I = 100 , k\Omega$ to $V^+/2$</td>
<td>4.995</td>
<td>4.991</td>
<td>4.950</td>
<td>4.990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_{SC}$</td>
<td>Output Short Circuit Current</td>
<td>$V^+ = 5V$, $R_I = 100 , k\Omega$ to $V^+/2$</td>
<td>14.990</td>
<td>14.975</td>
<td>14.950</td>
<td>14.975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_{SC}$</td>
<td>Output Short Circuit Current</td>
<td>$V^+ = 15V$, $R_I = 100 , k\Omega$ to $V^+/2$</td>
<td>14.990</td>
<td>14.975</td>
<td>14.950</td>
<td>14.975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_S$</td>
<td>Supply Current</td>
<td>Dual, LMC6464</td>
<td>$V^+ = +5V$, $V_O = V^+/2$</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Quad, LMC6464</td>
<td>$V^+ = +5V$, $V_O = V^+/2$</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dual, LMC6464</td>
<td>$V^+ = +15V$, $V_O = V^+/2$</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Quad, LMC6464</td>
<td>$V^+ = +15V$, $V_O = V^+/2$</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 5V AC Electrical Characteristics

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Typ (Note 5)</th>
<th>LMC6462AI Limit (Note 6)</th>
<th>LMC6464AI Limit (Note 6)</th>
<th>LMC6462BI Limit (Note 6)</th>
<th>LMC6464BI Limit (Note 6)</th>
<th>LMC6462AM Limit (Note 6)</th>
<th>LMC6464AM Limit (Note 6)</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>Slow Rate</td>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>V\text{m}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GBW</td>
<td>Gain-Bandwidth Product</td>
<td>(V^+ = 15\text{V})</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>kHz</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\theta_m)</td>
<td>Phase Margin</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Deg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(G_m)</td>
<td>Gain Margin</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dB</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Amp-to-Amp Isolation</td>
<td>(Note 10)</td>
<td>130</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dB</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e_n)</td>
<td>Input-Referenced Voltage Noise</td>
<td>(f = 1\text{kHz}, V_{CM} = 1\text{V})</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nV/\sqrt{Hz}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i_n)</td>
<td>Input-Referenced Current Noise</td>
<td>(f = 1\text{kHz})</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>pA/\sqrt{Hz}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3V DC Electrical Characteristics

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Typ (Note 5)</th>
<th>LMC6462AI Limit (Note 6)</th>
<th>LMC6464AI Limit (Note 6)</th>
<th>LMC6462BI Limit (Note 6)</th>
<th>LMC6464BI Limit (Note 6)</th>
<th>LMC6462AM Limit (Note 6)</th>
<th>LMC6464AM Limit (Note 6)</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(V_{OS})</td>
<td>Input Offset Voltage</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mV/\text{max}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\Delta V_{OS})</td>
<td>Input Offset Voltage Average Drift</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>µV/°C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(I_i)</td>
<td>Input Current</td>
<td>(Note 13)</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>pA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(I_{OS})</td>
<td>Input Offset Current</td>
<td>(Note 13)</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>pA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMRR</td>
<td>Common Mode Rejection Ratio</td>
<td>(0\text{V} \leq V_{CM} \leq 3\text{V})</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dB/\text{min}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSRR</td>
<td>Power Supply Rejection Ratio</td>
<td>(3\text{V} \leq V^+ \leq 15\text{V}, V^- = 0\text{V})</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dB/\text{min}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(V_{CM})</td>
<td>Input Common-Mode Voltage Range</td>
<td>For CMRR ≥ 50 dB</td>
<td>−0.10</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>V/\text{max}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>V/\text{min}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(V_O)</td>
<td>Output Swing</td>
<td>(R_L = 25\text{k}\Omega\text{ to } V^+/2)</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>V/\text{min}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>V/\text{max}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(I_S)</td>
<td>Supply Current</td>
<td>Dual, LMC6462</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>µA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(V_D = V^+/2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Quad, LMC6464</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>µA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Typical Performance Characteristics

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

Sinking Current vs. Output Voltage

Input Voltage Noise vs. Frequency

Input Voltage Noise vs. Input Voltage

Input Voltage Noise vs. Input Voltage

ΔV_OS vs CMR

LM3472 Dual/Quad

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Typical Performance Characteristics $V_0 = +5V$, Single Supply, $T_A = 25^\circ C$ unless otherwise specified (Continued)

- **Input Voltage vs. Output Voltage**
  - $V_0 = +2.5V$
  - $R_L = 25k\Omega$

- **Open Loop Frequency Response**
  - $V_0 = 15V$
  - $V_0 = 5V$

- **Open Loop Frequency Response vs. Temperature**
  - $G = 100k\Omega$

- **Gain and Phase vs. Capacitive Load**
  - $C_L = 0\text{ pf}$
  - $C_L = 400\text{ pf}$

- **Slew Rate vs. Supply Voltage**
  - Falling Edge
  - Rising Edge

- **Non-Inverting Large Signal Pulse Response**
  - $I_A = +125^\circ C$
  - $R_L = 100k\Omega$

---

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Figure. PIC12F683 Block Diagram
**TABLE 1-2: PIC12F615/HV615 PINOUT DESCRIPTION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Input Type</th>
<th>Output Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GP3/AN0/COIN+</td>
<td>TTL</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td>General purpose I/O with prog. pull-up and interrupt-on-change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GP2/AN1</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>ADC Channel 1 input</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GP1/AN2</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>ADC Channel 2 input</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GP0/AN3/COIN-</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>ADC Channel 3 input</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GP4</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Comparator input</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOCKI</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Timer/Counter 1 input</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOCKO</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Timer/Counter 2 input</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOI</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Comparator input</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIO</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Comparator input</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRIS</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Timer 0 gate (count enable), alternate pin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRIS2</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Timer 1 gate (count enable), alternate pin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRIS3</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Timer 2 gate (count enable), alternate pin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRIS4</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Timer 3 gate (count enable), alternate pin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRIS5</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Timer 4 gate (count enable), alternate pin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRIS6</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Timer 5 gate (count enable), alternate pin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRIS7</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Timer 6 gate (count enable), alternate pin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCLR</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Master Clear, reset pin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPP</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Programming voltage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VDD</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>High Voltage, input/IO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VSS</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ground, input/IO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vdd</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>External reference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vss</td>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td></td>
<td>External reference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 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

---

**15.0 ELECTRICAL SPECIFICATIONS**

**Absolute Maximum Ratings**

- Ambient temperature under bias: -50°C to +125°C
- Storage temperature: -65°C to +150°C
- Voltage on VDD with respect to VSS: -0.3V to +6.5V
- Voltage on VSS with respect to VDD: -0.2V to +13.5V
- Voltage on all other pins with respect to VSS: -0.3V to (VDD + 0.3V)
- Total power dissipation: 800 mW
- Maximum current out of VSS pin: 50 mA
- Maximum current into VDD pin: 50 mA
- Input clamp current, I\(i\) (< \(V_i\) > 0 or \(V_i\) > VDD): ±20 mA
- Output clamp current, I\(o\) (< \(V_o\) < 0 or \(V_o\) > 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 sink by GPO: 50 mA
- Maximum current sourced by GPO: 60 mA

**Note:** Power dissipation is calculated as follows: \(PD = (VDD \times IDD + VSS \times ISS) / 2 + \sum (VDD - VOH) \times IOH + \sum (VSS - VOL) \times IOL\).

---

**Figure. Pinout Description of PIC12F683**

**Figure. Electrical Specifications of PIC12F683**
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 "INTVECTOR 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 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 & _PWRT_ON & _INTRC_OSC_NOCLKOUT

; '__CONFIG' directive is used to embed configuration word within .asm file.
; The labels 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       ;High two bits of ADC CURRENT
RESHI            RES    1       ;Store low byte of ADC CURRENT
RESLI            RES    1       ;High two bits of ADC VOLTAGE
RESHV            RES    1       ;Store low byte of ADC vOLTAGE
RESLV            RES    1       ;Average value of current
QuotI            RES    1       ;High byte of average value of voltage
QuotVL           RES    1       ;Low byte of average value of voltage
Divisor          RES    1       ;Value of calculated power
PowerLO          RES    1       ;ratio of power in Watts
COUNT            RES    1       ;Stored value of Power
COUNT2           RES    1
PowerOldLO       RES    1       ;Initial set 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
        ;            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           ; 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%
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

goto repeat

return

;***************************

storePower

movf PowerHI,0

movwf PowerOldHI

movf PowerLO,0

movwf PowerOldLO

return

;***************************

PWMinit

BANKSEL "OSCCON" ; Choose OSCCON register

clrwf 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

movlw b'00111111' ; clear TRIS register

movlw b'00011111' ; 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
    movwl T2CON
    return

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

    fourtimesI
        clrf RESHI    ;Clear hi and low byte 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     ;Clear hi and low byte of Voltage sample
        clrf RESHIV
        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'010000001' ;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
        btfs c 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
        btfs c ADCON0,b'1' ;waits til ADC is done
        goto POLLGODONEv
        return

;**************************
;**************************
STORERESULTi ;Store current value
        CALL STOREADRESLi
        btfs c STATUS,b'0'
        goto addone

cont

BANKSEL ADRESH
        btfs s 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 ADRESL,b'0'
CALL STOREADRESHLV
return

;**************************
;**************************
STOREADRESHI
; Store the High two bits of ADC CURRENT
btfsc STATUS,b'0'
goto rtrnl
movlw 0x01
addwf RESHL,1
rtrnl
movf ADRESH,0
addwf RESHL,1
return

;**************************
;**************************
STOREADRESLI
; Store the low Byte of ADC CURRENT
BANKSEL ADRESL
movf ADRESL,0
; Move low byte to W_reg
addwf RESL,1
; Add and store in RESL
return

;**************************
;**************************
STOREADRESHLV
; 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
crff QuotVH
crff 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
BorrowV
movlw 0x01
subwf RESTV,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'
ingf QuotVH,1
goto DivideV
DoneV
return

;***************************
;***************************
averageI
bcf STATUS,b'0' ;divide by continuous subtraction
crff 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'10' ; ... because it sets the carry
ningf QuotIH,1
goto DivideI
Div_2I
incf QuotI,1 ; add one and loop again
btfsc STATUS,b'10'
ingf Dividel ; generated a borrow so finish
DoneI
mult

clr PowerLO ; Clears hi and low bytes of power register
clr 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
decfsz COUNT2,1 ; repeat for value of AMPS register
goto again

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' ; Test if duty cycle was increased or
goto raiseDC ; decreased last
btfsc status_temp,b'10'

go to lowerDC ; if not set the power is higher
go to pos ; if set the duty cycle was decreased last
btfss status_temp,b'0' ; test if power was inc or dec last
go to lowerDC ; if not set the power is lower

go to raiseDC ; if set the power is lower

pos ; if not set the duty cycle was increased last
btfss status_temp,b'0'

go to raiseDC ; if not set the power is higher
go to lowerDC ; if set the power is lower

lowerDC

bcf status_temp,b'10'

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bsf status_temp,b’1’ ;duty cycle is being decreased
bcf STATUS,b’0’ ;clear carry bit
BANKSEL CCP1L
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
        goto clrbit1
    BANKSEL CCP1CON ;set corresponding bit in CCP1CON reg
    bsf CCP1CON,0x04

next1
BANKSEL CCPR1L
    bcf CCP1CON,0x05 ;clear bit
    bcf status_temp,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 CCP1CON,0x04 ;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 ;if both are set then adding one will
bcf CCP1CON,0x04 ;clear them
BCF CCP1CON,0x05
movlw 0x01

125
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
btfscc 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
btfscc 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
btfscc CCP1CON,0x05
call setbit
BANKSEL CCPR1L
rlf CCPR1L,1
BANKSEL CCP1CON
btfscc CCP1CON,0x04
call setbit
BANKSEL CCPR1L
movlw 0x1A
subwf CCPR1L,0
btfscc 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 btfs 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