

**DOKUZ EYLÜL UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF NATURAL AND APPLIED
SCIENCES**

**DESIGN, ANALYSIS AND IMPLEMENTATION
OF AN INTERLEAVED PFC BOOST DC/DC
CONVERTER FOR AN LCD TV POWER SUPPLY**

by

Mustafa Murat KARAPARTAL

June, 2011

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DESIGN, ANALYSIS AND IMPLEMENTATION OF AN INTERLEAVED PFC BOOST DC/DC CONVERTER FOR AN LCD TV POWER SUPPLY

**A Thesis Submitted to the
Graduate School of Natural And Applied Sciences of Dokuz Eylül University
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science
in Electrical and Electronics Engineering**

**by
Mustafa Murat KARAPARTAL**

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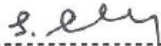
M.Sc THESIS EXAMINATION RESULT FORM

We have read the thesis entitled “**DESIGN, ANALYSIS AND IMPLEMENTATION OF AN INTERLEAVED PFC BOOST DC/DC CONVERTER FOR AN LCD TV POWER SUPPLY**” completed by **MUSTAFA MURAT KARAPARTAL** under supervision of **ASST. PROF. DR.ÖZGE ŞAHİN** and we certify that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.



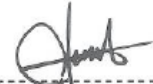
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Mustafa Murat KARAPARTAL

DESIGN, ANALYSIS AND IMPLEMENTATION OF AN INTERLEAVED PFC BOOST DC/DC CONVERTER FOR AN LCD TV POWER SUPPLY

ABSTRACT

Nowadays, because of the increasing use of semiconductors and power electronics devices, current harmonics effects on the electrical systems have become intolerable. Therefore, it has become essential to reduce these harmonic currents, which affect the energy system quality negatively. This also affects the shape of current to achieve a good power factor. According to the EU standard for harmonic reduction IEC 61000-3-2, an active power factor control stage should be utilized if the power consumed by an LCD-TV is above 75 W. The largest power consuming sub-system of an LCD TV is the backlight driving circuit. Plasma technology was the first historical solution; however, Cold Cathode Fluorescents Lamps (CCFL) with LCD panels previously used for note books rapidly took the leadership. These florescent lamps came into use with only medium sized screen TVs, but they are now used in every size. The LED backlight solution for LCD TVs is started to become a very popular way to allow small depth design with slim cabinets, particularly with Edge LED solutions. This thesis studies the design stages of this technology in accordance with the slim converter board.

The focus of this thesis is the design and implementation of such a high performance switched-mode power supply. The work involves the design and implementation of an interleaved Power Factor Correction (PFC) for high performance and small size, the controller design and implementation of boost DC/DC converter. With Frequency Clamped Critical Conduction Mode (FCCrM) PFC, the overall system efficiency is increased since the active power consumption is decreased.

The design procedure, including the design of the circuit components and the control loop, is implemented and the results are verified by a 150W prototype converter. The interleaved dual Boundary Conduction Mode (BCM) PFC controller operates two parallel-connected boost power converters 180 degree out of phase,

extending the maximum practical power level of this control technique from 200-300W up to 800W. The converter designed in this work can be applied to CCFL or LED backlight LCD TV application since converter circuit driving the backlight unit is placed on a different board. Flexibility and adaptation for different backlight inverter units are satisfied by this application.

Keywords: CCFL (Cold Cathode Fluorescent Lamp), PFC (Power Factor Correction), FCCrM (Frequency Critical Conduction Mode), Boost Converter, Interleaved PFC.

LCD TV İÇİN AYRIK MOD GÜÇ FAKTÖRÜ DÜZENLEYİCİSİ YÜKSELTİCİ TİPTE DA/DA ÇEVİRİCİ DEVRE TASARIMI DOĞRULAMASI VE İNCELENMESİ

ÖZ

Günümüzde yarıiletken elemanların ve buna bağlı olarak güç elektroniği cihazlarının kullanımının artmasıyla birlikte harmonik akımların şebekeye etkileri yadsınamaz hale gelmiştir. Şebekeden çekilen enerjinin kalitesizleşmesine neden olan bu akımların azaltılması ve akımın şekillendirilmesi üzerine çalışmalar yaparak güç faktörü değerinin uygun seviyelere çekilmesi bir gereksinim olmuştur. LCD TV lerde geçerli olan ve AB standartlarına göre düzenlenen IEC-61000-3-2' ye göre, eğer tasarlanan TV evrensel olarak satışa sunulacaksa ve 75W'ın üzerinde çıkış gücüne sahip ise aktif güç faktörü düzenleyicisi kullanması zorunludur. Tarihte ilk olarak büyük güçler tüketen plazma teknolojisi ile ortaya çıkan bu aktif güç faktörü düzenlemesi, düşük güç tüketimleri ile hızla plazmanın yerini alan LCD TV' lerde de uygulanmaktadır. Son yıllarda ortaya çıkan çeşitli LED arka plan uygulamaları, incelikleri sayesinde LCD'lere göre daha ince kabin yapısında kullanılmaktadır. Bu çalışmamızda tasarım aşamaları anlatılan çevirici kartın tasarımı ince kabin yapısına uygun olarak tasarlanmıştır.

Bu tez çalışmamızın esas amacı yüksek performanslı anahtarlama güç kaynağı tasarlanması ve uygulanmasıdır. Bu çalışmada yüksek verimli, küçük boyutlarda ve ayrik mod yapısına sahip güç faktörü düzenleyicisi ile yükseltici çevirici topolojisine uygun DA/DA çevirici birleştirilerek tasarlanmış ve uygulaması gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Tasarlanan bu dönüştürücüde Frekans Kritik İletim Modu (FCCrM) PFC ve yükseltici çeviricili denetleyici topolojileri kullanılmaktadır. Bu yapı sayesinde aktif güç tüketimi azalmasına sağlar iken genel sistem verimliliğini de arttırmaktadır.

Bu tasarım için hazırlanan prototip kartın deneysel olarak 150W desteklediği doğrulanmıştır. Bu uygulamada kullanılan 180 derece faz farkı ile çalışan ayrik

yapısı sayesinde 200-300W'lık güç seviyelerinden 800W'lık güç seviyelerine ulaşabilen tasarım yapılmasına olanak sağlamaktadır. Tasarlanan bu kart CCFL(Cold Cathode Fluoresent Lamp) ya da LED aydınlatmalar için kullanılabilir. Bu çalışmada tasarlanmış olduğumuz çeviricinin yanı sıra ayrı bir kartta tasarlanan evirici sayesinde büyük bir esneklik kazandırılarak tüm CCFL ve LED arka plan aydınlatmalarında kullanılabilmesi sağlanmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: CCFL (Soğuk katot floresan lamba), PFC (Güç faktörü düzenleyici), FCCrM (Frekans Kritik İletim Modu), Yükseltici Çevirici, Ayrık Güç Faktörü Düzenleyici.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Description

The usage of electronic equipments is increasing rapidly in the daily life according to consumer or industrial needs. All these electronic equipments have power supplies that obtain required energy from utility grid. These electronic systems generally use one or more switched mode power supplies (SMPS) that draw a non-sinusoidal current. This causes current and voltage distortions that affect other equipments connected to the same power grid, thus, lowering the capability of the power source. In order to overcome these problems, new standards have been developed for limiting the harmonic content of the input current. Manufacturers should find solutions for meeting the requirements of these standards.

Most of the power supplies consist of AC/DC converter stages based on diode or thyristor rectifier circuits. Conventionally, these stages consist of a diode rectifier with an output capacitor. These rectifier circuits constitute a major cause of mains harmonic distortion. Line-frequency diode rectifiers convert AC voltage into DC output voltage in an uncontrolled way. For low power applications (such as PCs, TVs, home appliances, etc...) single-phase diode rectifiers are chosen owing to low cost and simple structure. For high power applications (such as industrial equipments and motor drives) three-phase diode or thyristor rectifiers are used. A typical offline SMPS contains full-wave bridge rectifier with a large smoothing capacitor. This combination is one of the easiest and lowest cost solutions for AC/DC conversion. This input rectifier with capacitive filter draws non-sinusoidal input current from utility.

In the general usage, different load groups are supplied by different phases. If one of the phases is loaded with nonlinear loads, unbalanced currents flow through the neutral line of star configuration.

These unbalanced currents cause heating and power loss in the conductors and voltage distortion and electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) problems occur. Moreover the harmonic content of this pulsating current causes additional losses and dielectric stresses in capacitors and cables, increasing currents in windings of rotating machinery and transformers and noise emissions in many products, and bringing about early failure of fuses and other safety components. Harmonics can affect other devices that are connected to the same system.

In order to reduce these harmonic polluting effects, international standards such as IEC 61000-3-2 have been developed for limiting harmonic currents. The International Electro technical Commission (IEC) sets limits for harmonics in the current of small single-phase or three-phase loads, less than 16 A per phase, in *Electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) - Part 3-2: Limits - Limits for harmonic current emissions* (IEC 61000-3-2) [1]. The circuit classifications and harmonic limits are given in this standard. The power supply manufacturers use different solutions for complying with the specifications. The techniques for reduction of current harmonics are called Power Factor Correction (PFC) solutions. The aim of PFC is providing a resistive load behavior of all power supplies.

1.2 Literature Overview

As the use of energy is increasing, the requirements for the quality of the supplied electrical energy are more tighten. This means that power electronic converters must be used to convert the input voltage to a precisely regulated DC voltage to the load. Regulated DC power supplies are needed for most analog and digital electronic systems. Most power supplies are designed to meet regulated output, isolation and multiple outputs (Mohan, et al. 2005).

Regulation means that the output voltage must be held constant within a specified tolerance for changes within a specified range in the input voltage and the output loading.

Isolation is needed when the output is required to be electrically isolated from the input. They might be multiple outputs that may differ in their voltage and current ratings. Such outputs can be isolated from each other.

Beside these requirements, common goals are to reduce power supply size and weight and improve their efficiency. Traditionally, linear power supplies have been used. However, advances in semiconductor technology have lead to switching power supplies, which are smaller and much more efficient compared to linear power supplies. But the cost comparison between linear and switching power supplies depends on the power rating (Dixon, 1988).

The number of SMPS and other power electronics appliances are increasing. SMPS are needed to convert electrical energy from AC to DC. SMPS are used as a replacement of the linear power supplies when higher efficiency, smaller size or lighter weight is required. Motors, electronic power supplies and fluorescent lighting consume the majority of power in the world and each of these would benefit from power factor correction. In the middle of 1990s, many of the countries of the world have adopted requirements for power factor correction for new products marketed within their borders.

PFC is becoming a very important field in power electronic world. Adding more generating capacity to the world's electrical companies due to higher demand recently is very costly and would consume additional resources. One method of using extra power capacity is to use the AC power more efficiently through the broad use of PFC (Brown, 1994).

Most of research in PFC are based on reduction of harmonic contents in the line current. In passive PFC, only passive elements are used to repair the shape of input line current. Obviously, the output voltage cannot be controlled.

In active PFC circuit, an active semiconductor device is used together with passive elements to shape the input current and also controlling the output voltage (Ross, 1997).

In another study by Woo-Young Choi and Bong-Hwan Kwon (Choi& Kwon, 2008) an efficient PFC for plasma display panels (PDPs) is presented to reduce harmonic currents and power consumption. A high-efficient interleaved boost converter is proposed, which can reduce the conduction losses and diode reverse-recovery problems in the continuous-conduction-mode operation. A zero-current switching (ZCS) condition is obtained to solve the reverse-recovery problems of the output diodes. In addition, a control strategy is suggested for the use of the proposed converter in a practical design. A high power factor can be achieved without sensing the input voltage. The analysis of the proposed converter and its design considerations are presented in detail.

In another study by Jong C. Wang and Hon-Ji.Chen (Wang & Chen,2001) , two current sharing control schemes based on average current mode control is proposed for interleaved PFC converter. The boost inductor current of each phases of interleaved PFC must be sensed to achieve current sharing and power limiting. To meet this requirement, it is proposed a current transformers current sense skill which achieve current sharing and also can improve current harmonic distortion during high line operation.

In another study by K. I. Hwu and C. F. Chuang (Hwu & Chuang, 2006), a two-phase boost converter based on interleaved control is presented to upgrade the output power as well as to improve the power factor. Such interleaved control is realized via the proposed control rule and implemented by logic circuits. Some simulation and experimental results are provided to demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed control strategy.

In another study by Dodi Garinto (Garinto, 2007), a very unique boost converter system with a combination of interleaving and zero-ripple techniques for PFC is proposed. The converter allows clean power in the universal AC line (90 V to 265 V) and compliance with any standards or regulations.

The converter is designed in Discontinuous Conduction Mode (DCM) operation to reduce the system complexity and to eliminate diode reverse recovery loss. This can remove electromagnetic interference (EMI) filter without sacrificing the input current harmonics. Consequently, high density PFC converter with low cost can be achieved.

In this study, first of all, general information about harmonics, which causes measurement errors, overheating of motor windings and switches etc., and most common harmonic sources are given. After that, relation between harmonics and power factor is mentioned and converters, one of the harmonic sources, are explained and analyzed. Passive and active PFC techniques are studied.

Finally, the design procedure which is including the design of the circuit components and the control loop is implemented and the results are verified by a 150W prototype converter. The interleaved dual Boundary Conduction Mode (BCM) PFC controller operates two parallel-connected boost power converters 180° out of phase and converter is designed for CCFL or LED backlight LCD TV application since converter circuit driving the backlight unit is placed on a different board. Flexibility and adaptation for different backlight inverter units are satisfied by this application.

1.3 Thesis Outline

This thesis is organized in five chapters. The first chapter covers the literature review about basics of the PFC, harmonic current standards and general solutions for PFC.

The second chapter deals with popular passive and active power factor correction methods.

Different techniques are analyzed and theoretical analysis is verified by experimental results are given. Furthermore, designing passive and active solutions to comply with harmonic current standards are discussed.

In the third chapter Average Current Mode Controlled, which is the main subject of this mode control with boost type converter is implemented by using NCP1379 IC. This case is analyzed then theoretical and experimental results are given.

In the fourth chapter Critical Conduction Mode control and interleaved PFC are examined. The circuit is implemented by NCP1631 IC which is a special control technique that includes interleaved structure. This special case is analyzed, and its experimental verification is presented.

Finally, the last chapter covers the advantages and disadvantages of the PFC which are evaluated throughout the thesis.

CHAPTER TWO

POWER FACTOR CORRECTION

2.1 Background

After achieving alternative energy sources, fossil fuels or the roads that traverse a long and happy to spend time causing homes, our factories allow us to generate revenue by producing, altering our view of the world by sending rockets into space cockpits, computers, televisions, large and small human found on most machines, and briefly devices that use electricity and electricity can be found in every place. Most of the electricity we use is in the form of alternating current. Alternating current power systems for the distribution of a given voltage and a fixed frequency sinusoidal current and voltage waveforms must be complete. However, the linear and nonlinear reactive elements, the use of elements that is unable to follow each other in the network's current and voltage waveforms and sine current wave form of phase shift leads to corruption. Sinusoidal harmonic components of the mountain, the way the event occurs in the form of deviation is evaluated. Power factor leading to decline in these situations, especially for the active power consumed means more capacity. (Scillic, (2004), "Power Factor Correction Handbook".)

A typical offline SMPS contains full-wave bridge rectifier with a large smoothing capacitor. This combination is one of the easiest and lowest cost solutions for AC-DC conversion. This input rectifier with capacitive filter draws non sinusoidal input current from utility. The pulsating current waveform is rich of harmonics (N. Mohan, T. Udeland, & W. Robbins, *Power Electronics: Converters, Applications and Design*, 2nd ed. New York: Wiley, 1995). A typical single-phase rectifier with capacitive smoothing and its output voltage and input current waveforms are shown in Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2.

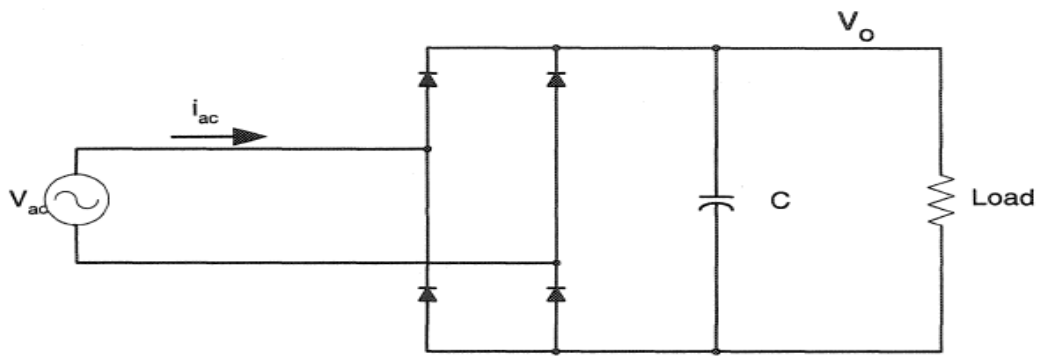


Figure 2.1 Single-phase rectifier with capacitive smoothing.

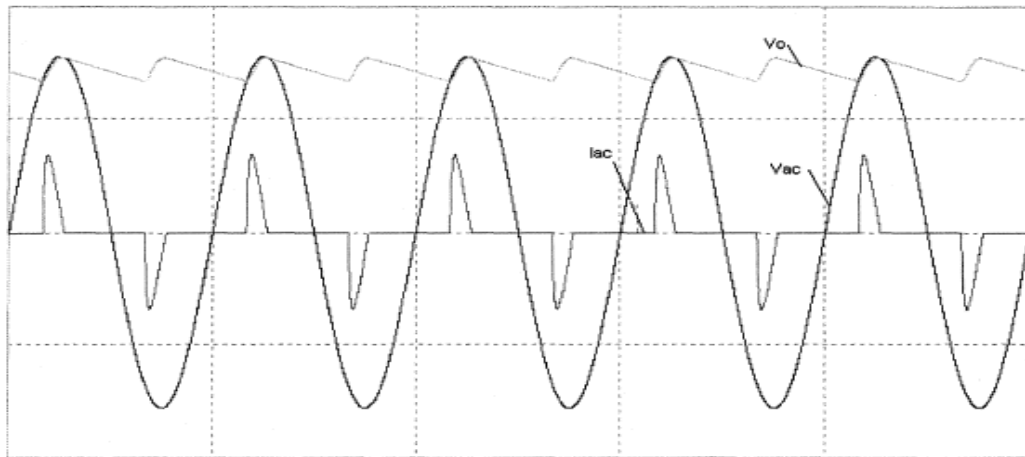


Figure 2.2 Waveforms for single-phase rectifier with capacitive smoothing.

Passive methods, AC and DC coil and capacitor parties are provided to improve by adding the current wave shape. In addition, the serial-parallel resonant band stop filter, harmonic gripper approaches are frequently used. Passive approaches, simplicity, reliability, lack of advantages such as high-frequency loss, while the heavy and bulky material employed, the dynamic responses have disadvantages such as poor and lack of output voltage regulation. Active filters are suffering in the non-linear elements in the form of sine wave is not the inverse of the current system by injecting a sinusoidal current withdrawal offer from the network. Active filters, although they are expensive to conduct more than one filter for harmonic frequency in the system due to changes in the superior to passive filters.

Active PFC techniques are examined in low frequency and high frequency operations. These circuits, used in the topology, control the shape, the coil, depending on criteria such as current status, follows the input current and voltage with the output values and allows to shift the phase between current and voltage, current, wave shape, preventing deterioration.(Dorf, C., Richard, Ed., (2000), “The Electrical Engineering Handbook”.)

2.2 Definitions

Power factor, the "real" operating power, and apparent power, can be found by proportion. Real power (W), apparent power (VA) and reactive power (VAr) are shown as the edges of a right triangle. Thus, W is the real power, apparent power VA multiplied by the cosine of the angle ϕ between the two powers in this section (Cos ϕ), including the results of the "power factor," gives the known rate.

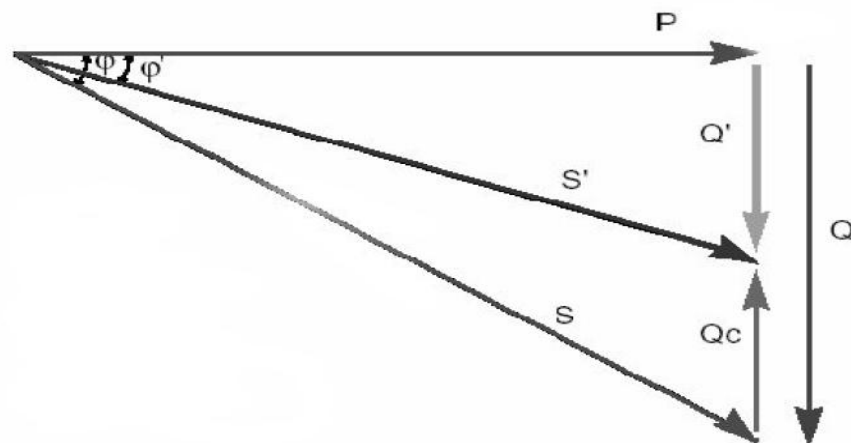


Figure 2.3 Power factor correction vectors.

PF has range between 0 and 1 and is defined as the ratio of the real power to the apparent power.

$$\cos \phi = \frac{P}{S} \quad (2.1)$$

The real power is defined as the product of the fundamental voltage and fundamental current and the phase displacement between the two.

$$P = V_{1,rms} \times I_{1,rms} \times \cos \phi \quad (2.2)$$

where $V_{1,rms}$, $I_{1,rms}$ are the rms values of the fundamental line current and the fundamental line voltage, respectively, and ϕ is the phase shift between line current and line voltage.

The apparent power is the product of rms voltage and rms current :

$$P_{app} = V_{rms} \times I_{rms} \quad (2.3)$$

In a linear load system, the power factor depends on phase difference between V_{rms} and I_{rms} . Then, the power factor can be expressed as:

$$PF = \frac{V_{rms} \times I_{rms} \times \cos \phi}{V_{rms} \times I_{rms}} = \cos \phi \quad (2.4)$$

It is shown that in the case of both sinusoidal voltage and current waveform systems with no phase difference between fundamental component of the current and voltage achieve unity power factor. This situation appears in resistive load circuits. In a nonlinear load system with distorted current waveform, the rms values of the input current and the fundamental frequency component of the input current are not the same. The various harmonic components of the current appear as distorted power on the line. Then the power factor expression in the case of stable line voltage can be written as:

$$PF = \frac{I_{1,rms}}{I_{rms}} \times \cos \phi = k_{distortion} \times k_{displacement} \quad (2.5)$$

Where $k_{distortion} = I_{1,rms}/I_{rms}$ is the distortion factor and $k_{displacement} = \cos \phi$ is the displacement factor.

Distortion factor describes harmonic content of the current. It shows the difference between fundamental component of the current and actual waveform.

Total Harmonic Distortion (THD) shows the ratio of the rms value of the waveform (not including the fundamental component) to the rms value of the fundamental component.

$$THD = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} I_{n,rms}^2}}{I_{1,rms}} \quad (2.6)$$

Then distortion factor can be written by using THD definition in Eq. (2.6)

$$k_{distortion} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(THD)^2}} \quad (2.7)$$

In Figure 2.4, it can be seen that the different voltage and current waveforms result in different PF and THD due to distortion factor and displacement factor.

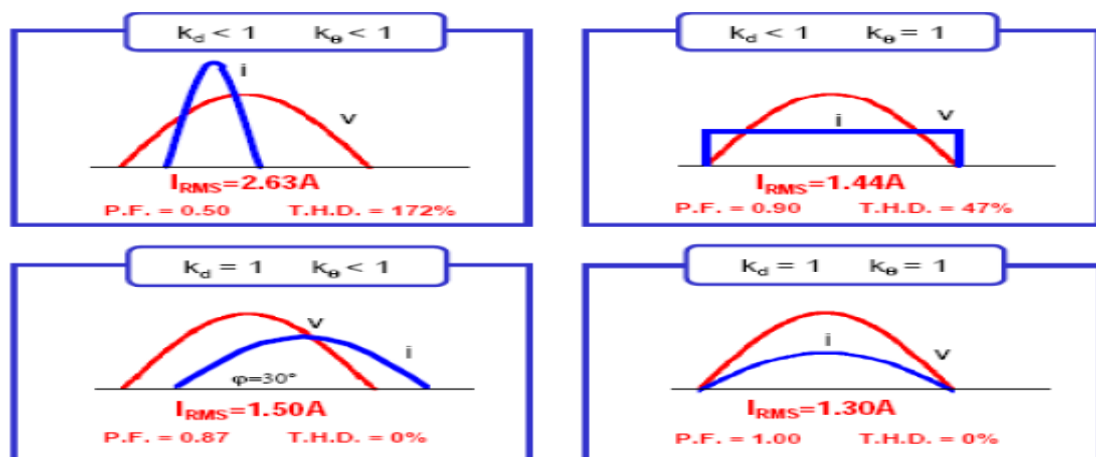


Figure 2.4 Different current and voltage waveforms of single phase rectifier

2.3 Harmonics and Current Emission Standards

Harmonic is not a new subject in. This issue were to come across as a problem for a long time. Communication systems, especially the first times in a way quite often these effects came from the agenda.

Magnetizing currents of transformers in these systems, the open-line telephone networks, inductive interference caused by harmonic currents. It is impossible to speak he was so Ventures. Investigation and had brought along on this issue, studying required. Finally, the transformer magnetizing currents brought to the rules designed to minimize and filter it was possible. Harmonics on power system components and load a number of undesirable effects. These are short-and long-term effects. Short-term effects are usually associated with the most obvious ones and over-voltage surge. On the other hand, long-term effects are usually inconspicuous and increased resistance depends on the losses and voltage stresses. Short-term adverse affect sensitive loads will cause the initiation. Computer controlled, some loads are sensitive to voltage fluctuations. Voltage fluctuation can be problematic, while 5% had no cases out of over 10% of the transformer to overheat and cause unwanted triggers. (R. Redl, P.Tenti & V.Wyk, *Power electronics polluting effects*, IEEE Spectrum, Volume 34, Issue 5, May 1997)

Most electrical equipments are designed to operate under ideal sinusoidal environment. In the case of a harmonically polluted system the power line loses its ideal characteristic. The practical problems that may arise from excessive harmonic levels are:

- Harmonic currents flowing in the supply network generate additional energy losses and cause distortion of supply voltage.

- Higher frequency harmonic currents cause power losses (copper and iron losses) which result in an increase in the heating of elements. Equipment ratings must take the presence of harmonics into account. The higher rated neutral conductor is required to carry the added high frequency currents.
- Distorted waveforms result in poor power factor.
- Interference to equipment which is sensitive to voltage waveform
- Damage to power factor correction capacitors. Malfunction of ripple control and other mains signaling systems, protective relays and, possibly, in other control systems.
- Additional losses in capacitors and rotating machines.
- Additional acoustic noise from motors and other apparatus, reducing the efficiency of motors.
- The diode bridge input circuit in a single-phase AC drive is the same as used in a very wide range of electronic equipment such as personal computers and domestic appliances. All of these cause similar current harmonics.

Their effect is cumulative if they are all connected to the same low voltage (e.g. 230V) supply system. This means that to estimate the total harmonic current in an installation of single-phase units, the harmonics have to be added directly. The power system is designed for predefined current values and all components belonging to this system have standard ratings and protection elements. Low power factor devices that draw higher current from the mains reduce the efficient power supplied by the mains. This means that low power nonlinear loads are reflected to the mains side with higher power ratings.

Since the power line system is designed for fixed values, available power at the load side is decreased because of low power factor loads.

Harmonic currents in the AC distribution network require higher current carrying capacity that results in extra cost and power losses. This increasing capacity first affects the device and then the electric utility.

The wire sizes and ratings should be increased. In residences and offices, energy meters cannot measure the reactive power that affects dissipative circuit elements so the user is not directly penalized in terms of utility costs for the reactive component of the power. In ideal case the voltage at the utility side is assumed to be an ideal sinusoidal waveform. But actually AC source has small source impedance.

Highly distorted current loads affect power line, resulting in distorting AC source voltage. The movement of the source voltage towards to non sinusoidal waveform can affect other equipments which are connected to the same power system.(R. Redl, Electromagnetic Environmental Impact of Power Electronics Equipment, Proceedings of the IEEE, Vol 89, No:6, June 2001)

The harmonic polluting effects of conventional AC rectification must be limited and this is done in accordance with the standards of electricity utility network. To maintain power system quality, compliance requirements for current harmonic distortion are being enforced by national and international bodies .(IEC61000-3-2, *Electromagnetic Compatibility (EMC)—Part 3: Limits—Section 2: Limits for Harmonic Current Emissions (Equipment Input Current <16A per Phase)*,). The **EN 61000-3-2** standard defines measurement requirements, ac power source requirements and limits for testing the harmonic current emissions of electronic and electrical equipment.

The purpose of EN 61000-3-2 is limitation of harmonic currents injected to the power system. After some changes, this standard applies to any equipment with rated current up to 16 A RMS per phase for 50-Hz, 230-V single-phase systems or 400-V

three-phase mains network. There are 4 different classes in the EN 61000-3-2 that have different limit values. This classification is made according to:

- Number of pieces of equipment in use (how many are being used by consumers)
- Duration of use (number of hours in operation)
- Simultaneity of use (the same types of equipment used on the same time frame)
- Power consumption
- Harmonics spectrum, including phase (how clean or distorted is the current drawn by the equipment)

There are no limits for:

- Equipment with input power $P > 75 \text{ W}$.
- Professional equipment with input power $P > 1 \text{ kW}$.
- Symmetrical controlled heating elements with input power $P > 200 \text{ W}$.
- Independent dimming devices for light bulb
- Non-public networks.
- Medical equipment
- Equipment for rated voltages less than 230 VAC (limit not yet been considered).

Equipment can be grouped into 4 classes based on the above criteria as evaluated by the IEC committee members: Class A, B, C and D. They have several limitations of odd and even harmonics. In here I gave Class D table because of my LCD power supply application belong to this class.(TS EN 61000-3-2, *Elektromanyetik Uyumluluk (EMU)-Bölüm 3-2: Sınır Değerler-Harmonik Akım Emisyonları İçin Sınır Değerler (Faz Basına Donanım Giriş Akımı <16A)*, TSE, MART 2003)

Table 2.1 Class D absolute maximum harmonic limits

Harmonic Order (n)	75W<P<600W Maximum permissible current (A)	P>600W Maximum permissible current (A)
3	3,4	2,30
5	1,9	1,14
7	1,0	0,77
9	0,5	0,40
11	0,35	0,33
13	0,296	0,25
15≤n≤39	3,85/n	2,25/n

Class D limits are very strict to meet as seen in Table 2.4. These limits depend on the equipments' power rating and apply to equipments that are connected to the utility network for a significant part of its life cycle, resulting in great impact on the power supply network. PCs and TVs are examples of such equipment.

The current limits for class D are expressed in terms of mA per Watt of the power consumed. Low-power equipment has very low absolute limits of harmonic current. All rectifier based power supplies that are directly connected to the mains are generally classified as Class A or Class D. Such converters that have highly distorted current waveform and used more frequently are classified as in Class D.

Table 2.2 IEC 61000-3-2 changes

	IEC61000-3-2:1995 EDITION 1.0	IEC61000-3-2:2001 EDITION 2.1	IEC61000-3-2:2005 EDITION 3.0
CLASS D DEFINITION	Special waveform envelope (75W to 600W)	TV, PC and Monitor (75W to 600W)	TV, PC and Monitor (75 to 100W)
MEASUREMENT METHODS	Steady and transitory	Transitory only Transitory only	Transitory only
MEASUREMENT METHODS	16 cycles (320/267ms@50/60Hz)	200 ms (10/12 cycles@50/60 HZ) (16 cycles permitted through 2004)	200 ms (10/12 cycles@50/60 HZ)
DATA MANIPULATION	Transitory only	All data must be smoothed using the 1.5s first order filter	All data must be smoothed using the 1.5s first order filter
PASS/FAIL FOR INDIVIDUAL HARMONICS	Every window result <150% of limit of test time >100% permitted	Every window result <150% of limit 10% of test time >100% permitted	Every window result <150% of limit 10% of test time >100%
CLASS A RELAXATION*	No special provision	No special provision	<200 time of limit only IF >150% for 10% of test time AND average
ODD HARMONICS 21-39*	No special provision	Provision for POHC calculation permitting the average of some individual harmonics to >100%	Provision for POHC calculation permitting the average of some individual harmonics to >100%
CLASS C&D LIMITS	Proportional to measured power (Class D) or current & PF ,Class C	Allows manufacturer o specify test power or current level provided it is within $\pm 10\%$ of the measured value	Allows manufacturer o specify test power or current level provided it is within $\pm 10\%$ of the measured value
TEST/OBSERVATION	Not specially defined but to find the max. harmonics emission	Specified to be significantly long enough to acquire $\pm 5\%$ repeatability. If to long select the 2.5 min. max.	Specified to be significantly long enough to acquire $\pm 5\%$ repeatability.

2.4 Power Factor Correction Approaches and Comparisons

2.4.1 Power Factor Correction Methods

The need for Power Factor Correction brings a lot of new PFC methods and applications. The most important issue is finding optimum PFC solution according to needed application. There are several survey papers in order to help to find the best solution for power factor correction.(Fernandez, A., Sebastian, J., Hernando, M.M., Villegas, P.& Garcia, J. “*Helpful hints to select a power-factor-correction solution for low- and medium-power single222 phase power supplies*” Industrial Electronics, IEEE Transactions on Volume 52, Issue 1, Feb. 2005 Page(s): 46 – 55)

The Power Factor Correction methods can be classified according to following specifications:

- System level classification (passive, active)
- Number of stages (single stage, two stage)
- Circuit based classification (isolated, non isolated)
- Type of power stages (buck, boost, fly back etc...)
- Waveform based classification (sinusoidal, non-sinusoidal)
- Control methods (current mode, voltage mode)
- The other aspects (power level, cost, complexity, etc...)

Generally, two PFC approaches are commonly used in current power supply products with high power features, i.e., passive approach and active PFC approach. Each one has its merits and limitations and applicable field.

Passive PFC approaches are used in low-power, low-cost applications. Generally, in this approach, an L-C filter is inserted between the AC mains line and the input port of the diode rectifier of AC-to-DC converter. Passive PFC method is simple and low cost but has bulky size and heavy weight and low power factor. Active solutions are used at high power levels with high PF and low harmonic distortion. We can classify active PFC methods as two stage and single stage by considering number of conversion stages.(Gracia O., Jose A.,Prieto R. & Uceda J, “*Single Phase Power Factor Correction:A Survey*”, IEEE Transactions on Power Electronics,Vol 18,No3,May 2003,pp-749-755.)

The most commonly used active approach is the two-stage approach with higher quality. Generally two-stage PFC systems consist of a pre-regulator cascaded with a DC/DC converter. In the first stage, generally called as pre-regulator, a non-isolated boost converter has the role of power factor correction. This front end PFC stage converter generally operates for low harmonic input current and intermediate dc bus voltage. The second stage operates for required dc voltage level with higher bandwidth.

The second stage generally has isolation two-stage systems have higher quality with higher PF and low harmonic distortion. However, the two-stage approach causes an increase in the total system cost and manufacturing complexity. Especially in low-power applications, two-stage solutions have higher cost. For reducing system cost and component count, single stage solutions have been introduced. In the single-stage systems, PFC, isolation and dc voltage regulation are performed in one stage with lower component number.

2.4.2 Passive Approach

In the passive PFC approaches, passive elements are used to improve the power quality of the power circuit. Passive elements like inductors and capacitors are placed at the inputs or outputs of the diode bridge rectifier in order to improve current waveform. Generally, output voltage is not controlled.

Passive PFC systems are dependent on the power system and has low power factor. Generally, line frequency LC filters are used as a passive solution. The simple passive filter with LC components is shown in Figure 2.5. The passive components improve current conduction angle and reduce THD of the input current. Line frequency inductance can be placed either on the DC or AC side of the rectifier.(Sharifipour, B. Huang, J. S., Liao, P., Huber L. & Jovanovic, M. M. "Manufacturing and cost analysis of power-factor-correction circuits," IEEE Applied Power Electronics Conf. (APEC) Proc., 1997, pp.490-494)

Due to its simplicity, the passive LC filter could be a high-efficiency and low-cost PFC solution in order to meet the IEC 61000-3-2 specifications. Passive power factor correction method meets Class-A/D equipment specifications up to 300 W, at a much lower cost than a comparable switch mode power supply (SMPS) employing active PFC techniques. The passive PFC technique is most suitable for applications with a narrow line voltage range. However, it can be also employed in power supplies operating in the universal line-voltage range (90 - 265 VAC).

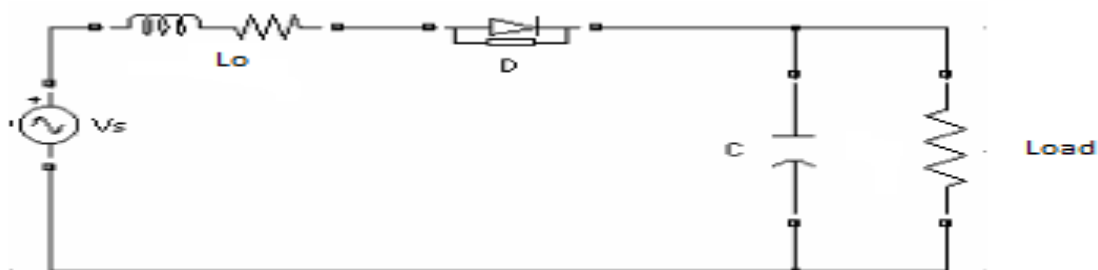


Figure 2.5 Simple passive PFC circuit.

The major advantages of the passive PFC technique are higher efficiency, low complexity, and lower cost. The lower component count and absence of active switches and control circuitry, translate into higher reliability and somewhat smaller size. Also, when compared to active circuits, the losses of the passive filters are lower. However, the passive filters have heavy and bulky low frequency passive elements like line frequency inductance. The other disadvantage of the passive filters is the unregulated varying dc bus voltage that becomes the input to the DC/DC converter.

This varying input voltage has effects on the efficiency of the DC/DC converter. The power factor of passive PFC circuits is around 0.60 - 0.70 and, needs arrangement of component ratings when operated under universal line voltage conditions.

Generally a large DC bus capacitance is needed in the output of the rectifier for better hold-up time and low ripple output voltage. Meeting the Class-A harmonic requirements can be easily done by passive filters for low-power applications but class-D applications require passive filters of a bigger size. This bigger size brings higher cost and physically higher dimensions.

2.4.2.1 Single Phase Full-Wave Rectifier

Generally, most of the AC-DC power supplies consist of a full bridge diode rectifier as an input stage. A bulk capacitor is installed to the output of the rectifier to regulate the output DC voltage. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the load of the rectifier requires low ripple supply voltage. The large capacitor supplies low ripple DC output voltage but this shortens considerably the input current's conduction duration. (Redl, R. & Balogh, L. "Power-Factor Correction in Bridge and Voltage-Doubler Rectifier Circuits with Inductors and Capacitors" APEC'95, pp.466-472) Short current conduction interval results in a narrow pulsed current waveform. This current waveform is rich in harmonics that have negative effects on the main side of the system as explained in Chapter 1.

A typical single-phase full bridge diode rectifier is shown in Figure 2.6 with supply impedance and large output capacitor filter.

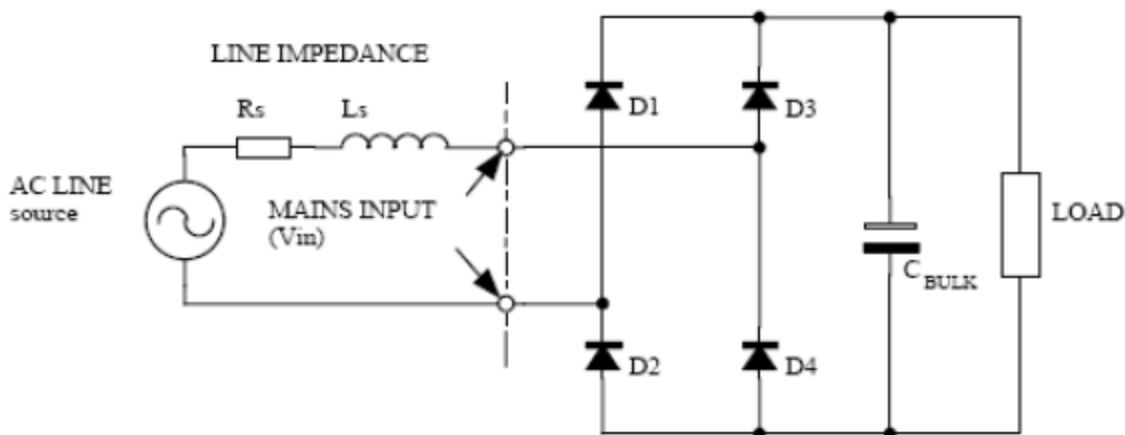


Figure 2.6 Typical single-phase rectifier.

The short conduction times for diode rectifier causes short current conduction interval because the diodes conduct only when the input voltage is greater than the output capacitor voltage.

This period is short when the output capacitor is fully charged. The general current and voltage waveforms for a single-phase rectifier with large output capacitor are given in Figure 2.6.

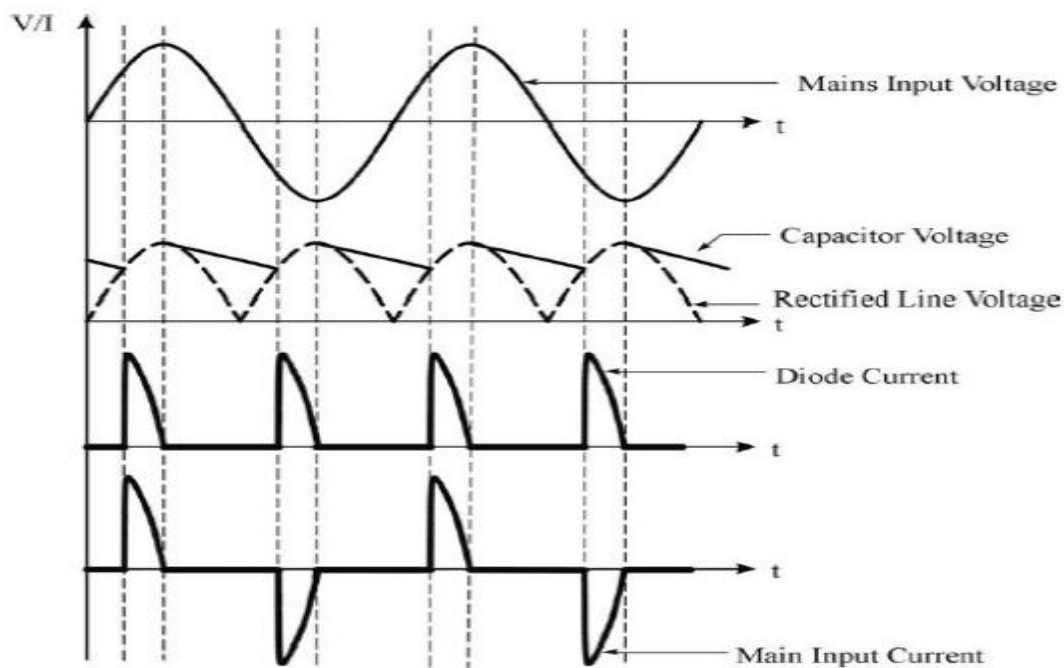


Figure 2.7 Current and voltage waveforms.

The output capacitor defines the shape and the amplitude of the input line current. Large value of output capacitor provides low ripple output voltage, however input current has small conduction period, because diode rectifier conducts only when input voltage is higher than output capacitor voltage. In this condition, input current has significant harmonics and system has lower power factor. Input current distortion can be reduced by using a smaller output capacitor. With smaller capacitance filter output voltage increases and the current conduction interval widens.

This method is very easy to implement and cheaper than other solutions, but the load is directly affected by increased output voltage ripple. In the SMPS applications, generally a DC/DC converter is inserted after diode bridge rectifier. This DC/DC converter is designed assuming that the input voltage is stable and well regulated. In the case of small output filter capacitance, it is hard to implement a constant power DC/DC converter with variable input voltage.

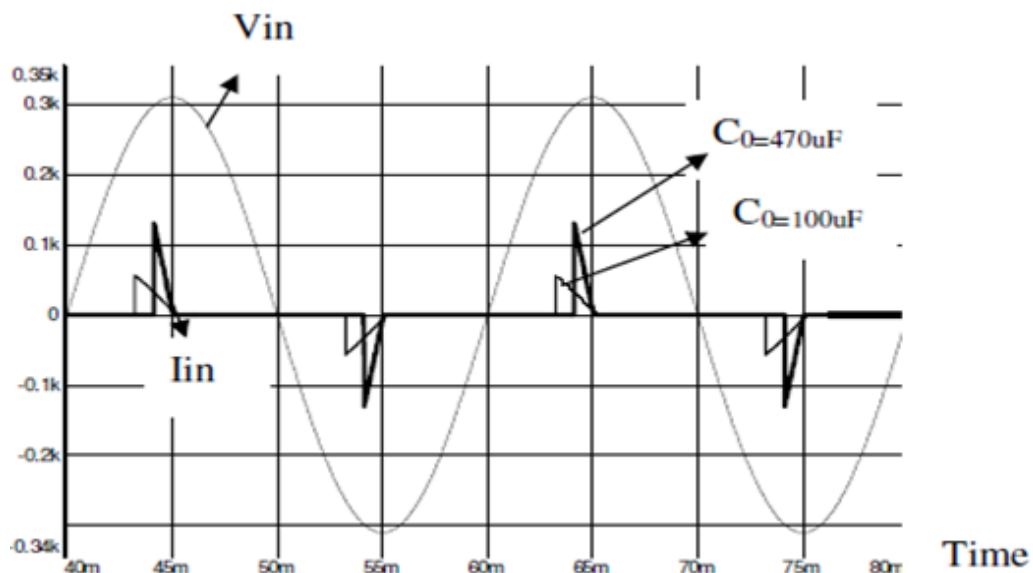


Figure 2.8 Simulated input voltage and current waveforms with capacitive filter.

This solution can be applied if the load accepts a largely pulsating DC supply voltage and it is used, for example, in some hand held tools. (Redl, R. and ELFI S.A., “An Economical Single-Phase Power-Factor-Corrected Rectifier: Topology, Operation, Extensions, and Design For Compliance” PEC’98, pp.454-460) A single-phase diode bridge rectifier with capacitive filter is simulated for different values of output capacitor filter. The filter capacitor is selected for two different values, 0.5 $\mu\text{F}/\text{W}$ and 2.35 $\mu\text{F}/\text{W}$. A 200-W constant power loaded single-phase rectifier is simulated by SIMPLORER simulation tool. The input current waveforms and output voltage waveforms are shown in Figures 2.8 and 2.9.

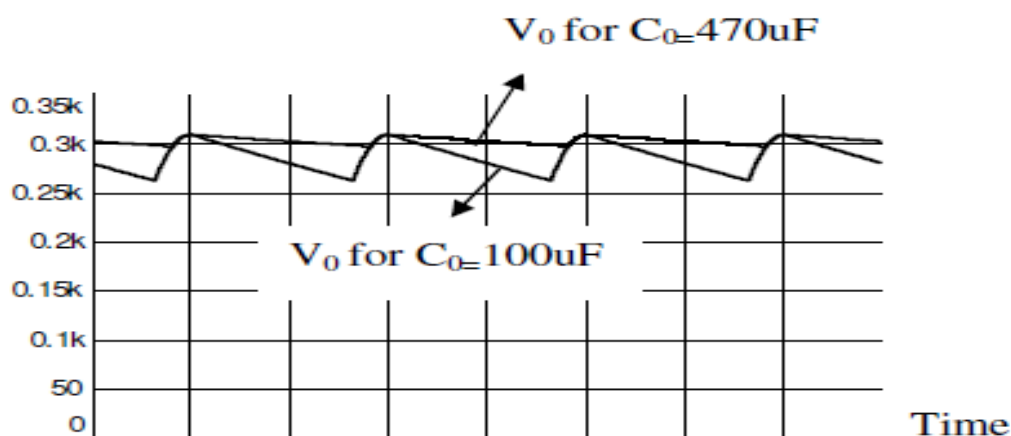


Figure 2.9 Simulated output voltage ripple with capacitive filter.

It can be seen from these figures that, when output capacitor is reduced, input current conduction interval increases, however output voltage ripple increases also. Usually, this increased output ripple is unwanted in the switch mode power supply applications.

2.4.2.2 Passive Power Factor Correction Methods

Passive power factor correction is implemented by connecting passive elements to the diode bridge rectifier. There are various combinations of passive elements for power factor correction with different circuit topologies. Before the harmonic limiting standards, the investigators have designed passive solutions for better PF and efficiency because there were no limits for current harmonics. After the IEC 61000-3-2 standard was accepted, the designers had to change the previous solutions or design new circuits obeying the standards. In this thesis, three of the various passive power factor correction techniques are investigated in detail and simulation and experimental results are verified. These are

- LC filter
- Series Connected Parallel Resonant Filter

2.4.2.2.1 LC Filter Method. The simplest passive solution to comply with the EN 61000-3-2 standard is LC filter method. Passive LC filter power factor correction can be done by connecting one inductor to the capacitive filtered diode bridge rectifier. Filter inductor can be placed either on the AC side or DC side. When the inductor is connected to the AC side, current harmonic distortion can be reduced by large inductance but voltage drop (reduced output power) in the inductor will be large. By connecting the filter inductor to the DC side, output power will be independent from filter inductance but harmonic limiting capability will be lower than inductor in the AC side.

In this section, the design of single-phase diode bridge rectifier with output LC filter complying with the EN 61000-3-2 standard is given. In the design the following criteria are considered.

- Standard compliance
- Maximum Power Factor
- Minimum Line Current Harmonic
- Cost and Size

Optimum solutions satisfying the above criteria are given. A general single-phase diode rectifier with LC filter is given in Figure 2.10. While designing LC filter, input voltage is assumed as a zero-impedance source and diode rectifier is assumed lossless (ideal diodes). The output power and output voltage are assumed constant (large output capacitor).

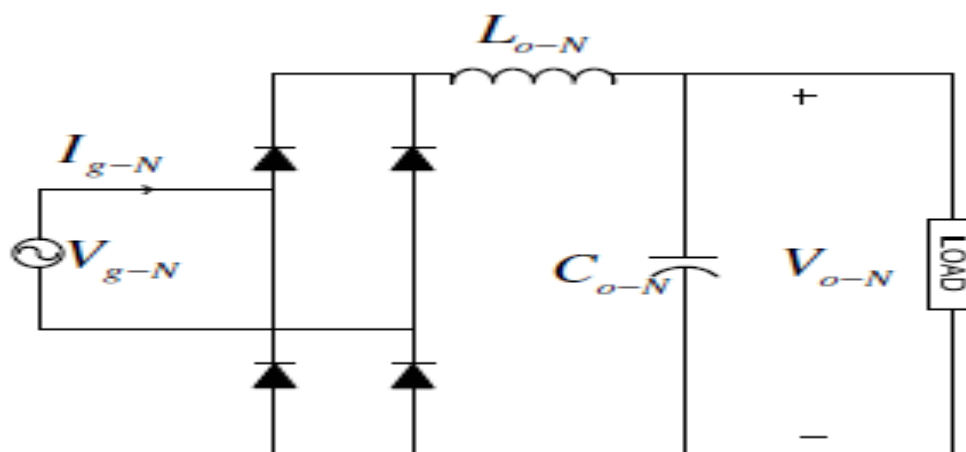


Figure 2.10 Normalized single phase rectifier.

The circuit can be analyzed easily by normalization procedure. The operation modes of the circuit and the current waveforms depending on the output filter inductance can be evaluated using normalization methods. The circuit variables are converted to the normalized values by using reference values. In the rectifier system three main reference values are utilized. These are voltage, current and the time references.

2.4.2.2.2 Series Connected Parallel Resonant Filter. Power factor improvement via reducing input current harmonics for a single-phase rectifier with a capacitive output filter can alternatively be done by using resonant filters. There are different resonant network based passive solutions. Two main resonant solutions are:

- Series connected series resonant band pass filter tuned at line frequency
- Series connected parallel resonant band stop filter tuned at third harmonic

In this section, the series connected parallel resonant filter shown in Figure 2.11 is investigated and verified experimentally, since it requires lower values of reactive elements compared to other solutions.

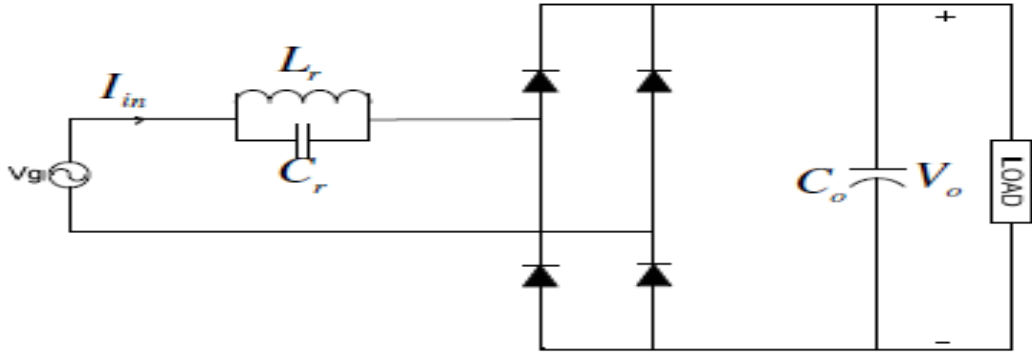


Figure 2.11 Series connected parallel resonant filter.

A single-phase full bridge rectifier with capacitive filter draws higher harmonic currents from line. The most significant harmonic is the third harmonic. If this one is reduced or cancelled, the rectifier will have higher power factor due to lower input RMS current and lower THD. The series connected parallel resonant filter is tuned to 3rd harmonic and, generally, called as a third harmonic filter. The proposed filter in Figure 2.11 has an input LC parallel resonant tank tuned at 3rd harmonic. The inductance and capacitance values of the resonant tank are selected to behave as an infinite (theoretically) impedance to the third harmonic input current component. So the system will eliminate the third harmonic content of the input current. This condition brings lower input rms current value with lower THD. So the system will have higher power factor and efficiency. The n th order equivalent impedance of the resonant tank can be defined by:

$$Z_n = \frac{nX_{Lr} \times \frac{X_{Cr}}{n}}{jnX_{Lr} - j\frac{X_{Cr}}{n}} \quad (2.8)$$

where X_{Lr} , is the impedance of the input resonant inductor L_r at fundamental frequency, X_{Cr} , is the impedance of the input resonant capacitor C_r at fundamental frequency. The third harmonic impedance from (2.8) becomes infinity (theoretically) when;

$$3X_{Lr} = \frac{X_{Cr}}{3} \quad (2.9)$$

Or

$$L_r = \frac{1}{9\omega^2 C_r} \quad (2.10)$$

Where $\omega = 2\pi f_0$

The single-phase rectifier is assumed lossless with no voltage drop in the diodes. The output voltage is assumed ripple free with large output capacitor. The line voltage is assumed sinusoidal and the load is assumed to be a constant power load. The values of the reactive elements in the resonant filters are selected for higher power factor defined in the section 2.4.2.

2.4.2.3 Limitations of Passive PFC Circuits. The simplicity, reliability, insensitivity to noise and surges and the no generation of any high-frequency EMI offered by passive power factor circuits are of significant usefulness. However, the bulky size of these filters, their poor dynamic response, complexity and high cost, the lack of voltage regulation and their sensitivity to line frequency, limits their use to below 200-W applications. Moreover, even though line current harmonics are reduced, the fundamental component may show an excessive phase shift resulting in reduction in power factor.

2.4.3 Active PFC

Active power factor correction techniques are used for high quality rectifiers. Active PFC circuits shape the input current into a sinusoidal form in phase with line voltage. Besides they provide a regulated dc output voltage. These circuits have resistor behaviors at the line side of the converter. Generally power factor of active PFC circuits is close to unity with lower input current THD around 3 %. Active PFC circuits have small size but these systems have higher manufacturing cost and complexity. A DC/DC converter operates as an active shaper in the range of 10 kHz to hundreds of kHz. Active switches are used in conjunction with reactive elements in order to increase the effectiveness of the line current shaping and to obtain controllable output voltage. Higher operation frequency provides smaller size of reactive components such as inductors. (Basu,S.& Undeland, T.M., Fellow, IEEE. “PFC Strategies in light of EN 61000-3-2”. (EPE-PEMC 2004 Conference in Riga, LATVIA, 1- 3 September 2004))

Traditionally, the implementation of power factor correction circuits has been accomplished by using analog controllers. Active PFC can achieve high power factor controlled by analog circuits using several methods. Various analog PFC ICs are available in the electronic markets, which are manufactured by TI/Unitrode, Fairchild, Onsemi and others manufacturers. Complete list of the available PFC ICs and the specifications will be given in the appendix. Analog control is simple and low cost. Continuous operation and higher operating dynamics make the analog control suitable. But analog control has higher element count. Analog control methods are also application dependent. It is hard to adopt a new operating condition when a change is needed. The system should be redesigned from scratch. Recently, power supplies are implemented by digital controllers. Recent developments in digital control techniques and low cost digital control ICs make digital control optimum for power supply applications. It is not easy to maintain the available control methods with digital controllers, because these control methods require high speed calculations and high-speed analog to digital conversions.

The operating frequency and the speed of the digital control devices are limited. New control strategies have been developed suitable for digital operations. Digital systems need lower component count than analog systems, so size of the digital implementations are smaller. Digital systems are flexible and can be operated under different conditions by software based control strategies. The single-phase active PFC techniques can be divided into two categories: the two stage approach and the single-stage approach shown in Figure 2.12.

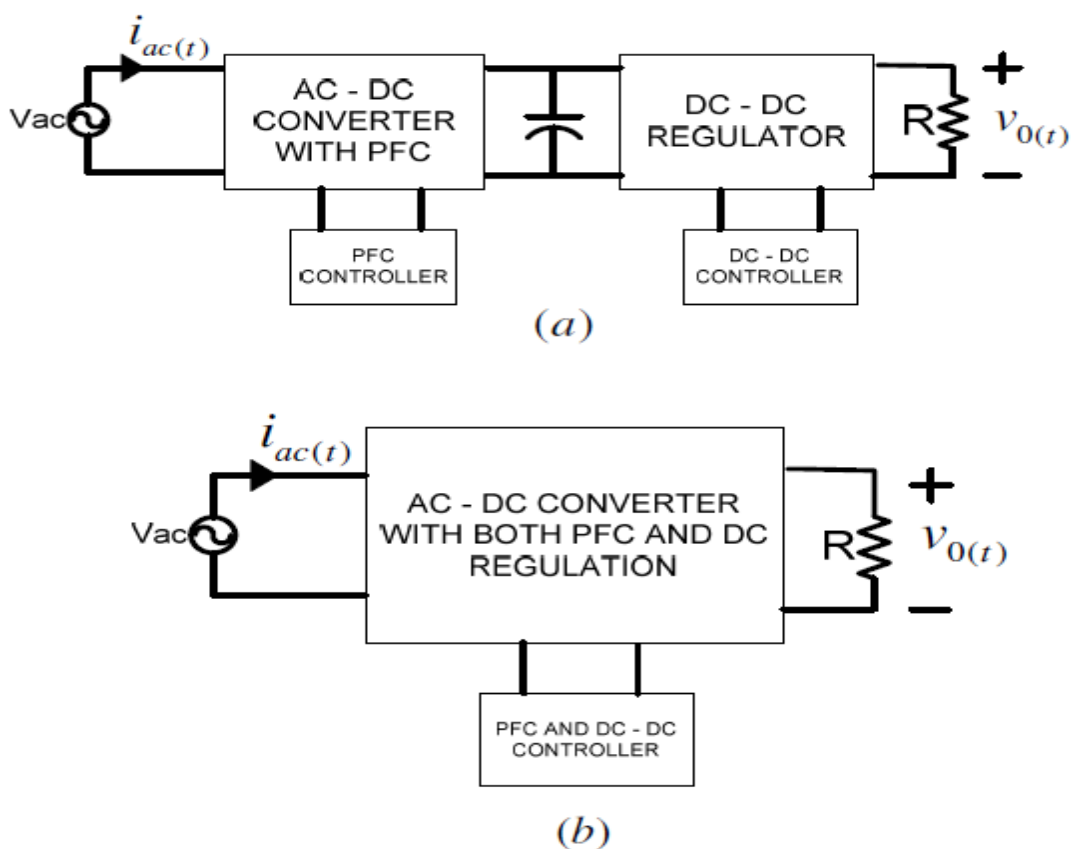


Figure 2.12 a) Two-stage PFC b) Single-stage PFC.

2.4.3.1 Active Two-Stage Approach

The most popular scheme for power factor corrected AC-DC power supplies is the two-stage approach. In this approach, two converters share power factor correction and dc voltage regulation roles. The front-end converter operates as power factor corrector while shaping line current, therefore achieving unity input power factor.

The PFC front-end stage operates as DC/DC converter with regulating output voltage and provides isolation if needed. Both converters are controlled separately. Independent PFC controller provides sinusoidal input current with intermediate regulated output voltage. Second DC/DC controller provides tight regulated output voltage with high bandwidth. The first PFC stage can be a boost, buck/boost or fly back or can assume any other power converter topology. Generally, the boost type topology shown in Figure 2.13 is so far the most popular configuration. It provides input-current shaping with low bandwidth control. With the boost-type topology, the system has some advantages such as:

- The inductor current and the input current have the same waveform so it is easy to apply current mode control over boost inductor.
- The system has lower EMI with the help of series boost inductor with the ac line.
- Input current can be continuous or discontinuous.
- The switching element such as MOSFET or IGBT is parallel to the power line. The system has better efficiency and low noise. But it requires extra protection to input- output short circuit and start-up spikes.

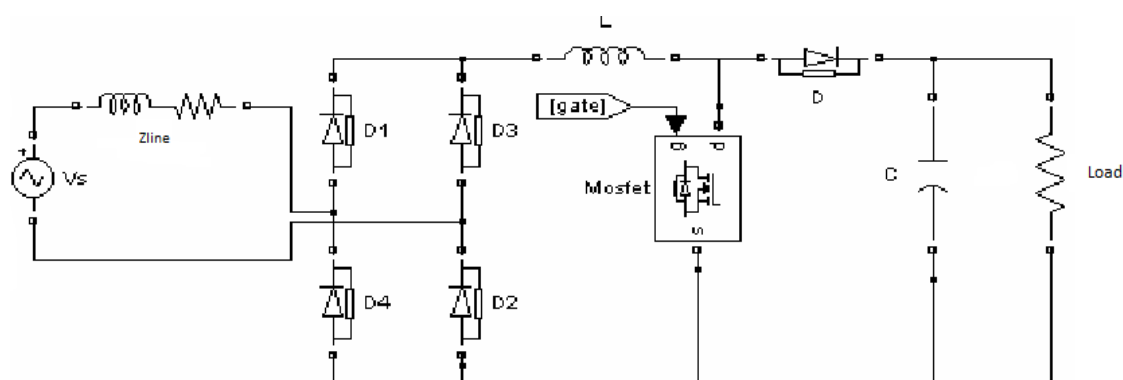


Figure 2.13 Boost type active PFC.

The boost-type PFC can be operated in continuous-conduction-mode (CCM), discontinuous-conduction-mode (DCM), variable-frequency critical (boundary) conduction mode.

There are several control methods for high power and low current THD. This thesis is concerned with the control methods of boost type active PFC which are implemented experimentally. Popular control methods are explained and the results are given by computer simulations and experimentally.

In summary, the active two-stage PFC converter has good input power factor and can be used in wide ranges of input voltage and output power. However, the two-stage approach suffers from an increased circuit complexity since it requires two switches and two controllers with associated circuitry. It is very undesirable for low-power supplies used in consumer electronic products. In the high power applications, the two-stage system seems the best solution.

2.4.3.2 Active Single-Stage Approach

If the aim for designing PFC solution for an available AC-DC converter is only meeting the harmonic standards with lower harmonic quality and lower manufacturing cost, the single-stage systems are suitable methods for power factor correction. In the single-stage approach, PFC and dc voltage regulation are made by one controller. Most single-stage topologies combine the input current shaping with the DC/DC down-conversion in a single stage. Single-stage solution with single switch seems to be the right solution at lower power levels (< 200 W), because reduced component count and cost of the PFC stage provide a cheaper solution than two stage systems. The only controller is the DC/DC controller, which focuses on the tight regulation of the output voltage. The input power factor of a single-stage converter is not unity, but its input current harmonics are small enough to meet the specifications, such as the IEC 61000-3-2 class D. Generally, the active single-stage approach offers a performance (THD and PF) which is better than the corresponding performance of the passive solution, but not as good as that of the active two-stage approach.

The primary advantages of this approach are lower part count and cost than two-stage PFC topologies. With these technologies, the PF is typically >0.75 and THD is typically $<80\%$. The major deficiency of any single-stage circuit is that the voltage of the internal energy-storage (bulk) capacitor varies with the line voltage and load current. Because of all process is done by single controller, the system has higher control complexity.

2.4.4 Comparison of PFC Solutions

The above mentioned three solutions for power factor correction have advantages over the other according to application and usage. A summary of the three methods is given below:

Passive harmonic line current reduction

- Simple and not complex circuit
- Large and bulky low frequency reactive elements
- Less costly than active PFC
- Redesign needed for wider operation range

Active harmonic line current reduction

- High power factor (close to unity) and lower THD of line current
- Higher cost and component count
- Complex to control and design
- Increased noise such as EMI, RFI

In Figure 2.14, the input voltage and current waveforms are shown for three operations.

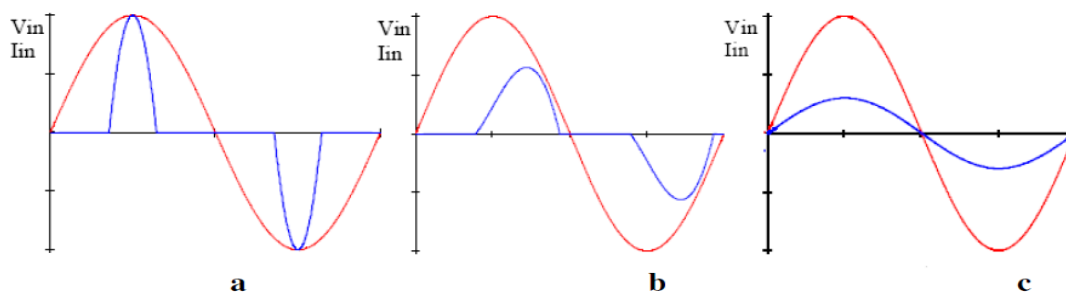


Figure 2.14 Waveforms without/with PFC (a) Without PFC b) passive PFC c) active PFC.)

According to the above evaluation, the designer can choose best solution for power factor correction considering selection criteria, especially power level for single phase power conversion. If the output power is less than 200 W, single-stage PFC and the passive PFC are valid options. Above 200 W, the conventional two-stage PFC seems to be the best choice. If the purpose is to obtain a sinusoidal line current, the classical two-stage approach is the best option mainly if universal line voltage operation is required. Passive solutions are adequate in low power for simplicity. Single-stage solutions are a good option to meet the low frequency harmonic regulations in low power applications with low cost a comparison chart is given in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Comparison table of three solutions

	PASSIVE	ACTIVE TWO-STAGE	ACTIVE SINGLE -STAGE
THD	High	Low	Medium
POWER FACTOR	Low	High	Medium
EFFICIENCY	High	Medium	Low
SIZE	Medium	Large	Small
WEIGHT	Very High	Low	Low
BULK CAP VOLTAGE	Varies	Constant	Varies
CONTROL	Simple	Complex	Simple
COMPONENT COUNT	Very Low	High	Medium
POWER RANGE	< 200-300W	Any	< 200-300W
DESIGN DIFFICULTY	Low	Medium	High

CHAPTER THREE

AVERAGE CURRENT CONTROL MODE OF BOOST CONVERTER

3.1 Description of Average Current Control Mode of Boost Converter

This chapter deals with the average current mode control of a single-phase boost PFC (Dixon, L. H. *High Power Factor Preregulators for Off-Line Power Supplies*, Unitrode Power Supply Design Seminar Manual SEM600, 1988) A detailed theoretical analysis of the average current mode control of PFC will be reviewed and supported by hardware implementation. The PFC IC, NCP1379, will be used to implement this strategy and design and functional description of the circuit will be explained.

The block diagram of the PFC circuit is given in Figure 3.1. The circuit consists of a single-phase rectifier with a cascaded boost converter that provides active wave shaping of the input current and regulation of the output voltage. Active power factor correction is achieved by the power switch duty cycle.

The switching frequency of the converter is higher than line frequency such as 100 kHz for 50-Hz power system. When the switch is turned on, the boost inductor stores energy from input. At the same time, the output rectifier diode is reverse biased and the load is supplied by the output capacitor. When the switch is turned off, the output capacitor and the load are supplied by the input over the boost inductance.

The average current controlled PFC system has two control loops. The system has fast inner current loop that enables the input current to follow the reference current. The reference current is multiplication of the reference shape and reference amplitude.

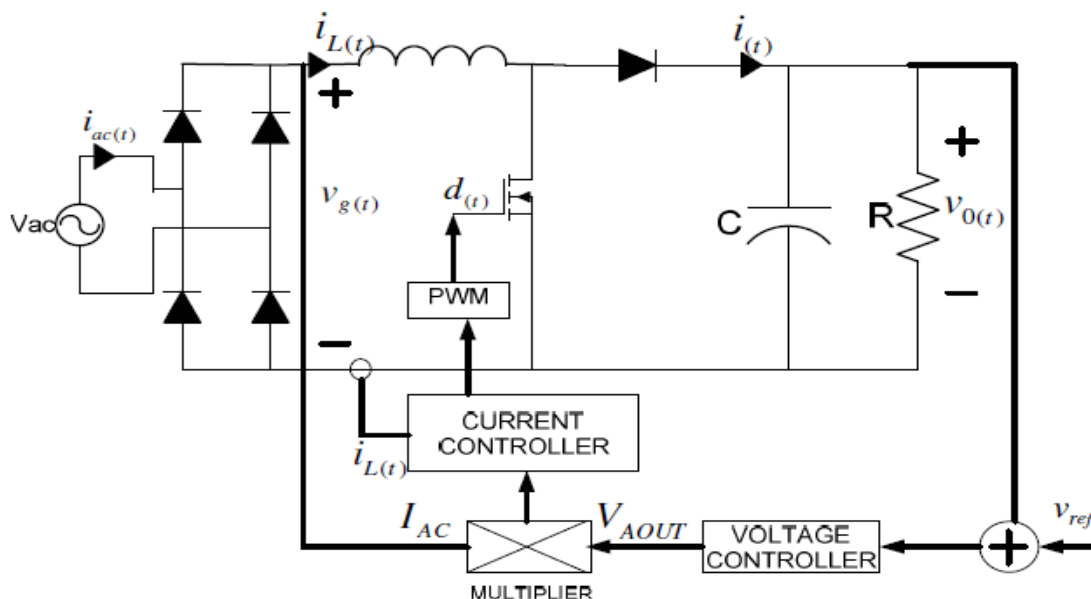


Figure 3.1 Average current mode control of PFC

The reference current gets the sinusoidal shape of the input voltage. The amplitude of the reference current is defined by the outer voltage loop. The system has a low bandwidth outer voltage loop which programs the required input current reference magnitude according to the power consumption of the load. This function is done by using an output voltage regulator control circuit.

The inner current loop operates in average current mode that controls the average input current. The input current $i_L(t)$ is compared with I_{ref} per switching cycle and passed through an error amplifier that produces a control voltage v_c . This control voltage is then compared with constant frequency saw tooth waveform to produce required duty cycle of the power switch. The saw tooth waveform defines the switching frequency. The bandwidth of the current loop is very high such as decade of the switching frequency. The higher bandwidth current controller allows the input current to follow reference current with lower noise.

The output loop has an output voltage controller for regulating the output voltage. The output voltage $v_0(t)$ is compared with reference voltage v_{ref} . The voltage controller consists of a voltage error amplifier that produces error voltage V_{AOUT} according to the variations in the output voltage. This error voltage V_{AOUT} programs the current reference magnitude. High power factor operation is obtained by average current mode control. The input current follows the sinusoidal reference. Finally, the input current and the voltage of the PFC system will have the same waveform and phase.

3.2 Power Balance Analysis of the Circuit

In a converter system, the output voltage should be regulated to the required level by a voltage controller in a closed system. Generally, the output voltage is constant in DC/DC converter. The constant dc output voltage $v_0(t) = V$ is obtained by a wide bandwidth voltage controller. If the converter has constant load, the instantaneous load power is also constant.

$$p_0(t) = P_0 = v_0(t) \times i_0(t) = VI \quad (3.1)$$

Generally, the load of a PFC system is a DC/DC converter. This load draws constant power. But the instantaneous input power $p_{ac}(t)$ is not constant.

$$p_{ac}(t) = v_g(t) \times i_g(t) \quad (3.2)$$

where $v_g(t)$ and $i_g(t)$ are input ac voltage and current, respectively. The instantaneous input power can be written according to resistor emulation concept by using the peak input voltage value.

$$p_{ac}(t) = \frac{V_M^2}{R_e} \sin^2 \omega t = \frac{V_M^2}{R_e} (1 - 2\cos \omega t) \quad (3.3)$$

The input power varies with time. The output capacitor provides power balance to maintain the input-output power balance. The difference between input and output power flows through output electrolytic capacitor.

So the power on the output capacitor can be written:

$$p_c(t) = p_{ac}(t) - p_o(t) = \frac{d(\frac{1}{2}CV_c^2(t))}{dt} \quad (3.4)$$

where $v_c(t)$ is output capacitor voltage. When $p_{ac}(t) > p_o(t)$ than energy flows into output capacitor and $v_c(t)$ increases. When $p_{ac}(t) < p_o(t)$, the capacitor voltage $v_c(t)$ decreases. So the capacitor voltage increases and decreases for power balance action. The changes of input power and capacitor voltage are shown in Figure 3.2.

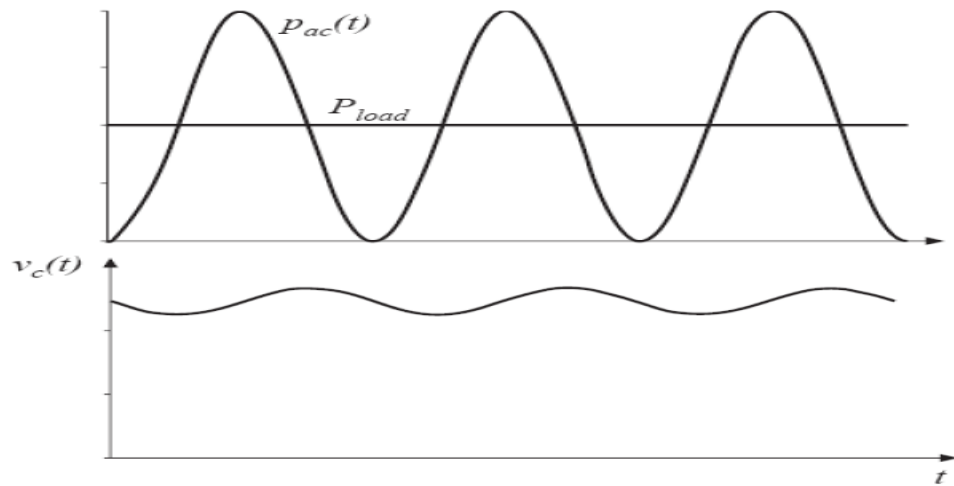


Figure 3.2 Variation on the capacitor voltage.

The output voltage regulation is achieved by comparing the actual output capacitor voltage with reference voltage. The error voltage amplifier provides enough amplitude information for current reference for power balance operation. A block diagram of the outer voltage loop is shown in Figure 3.3.

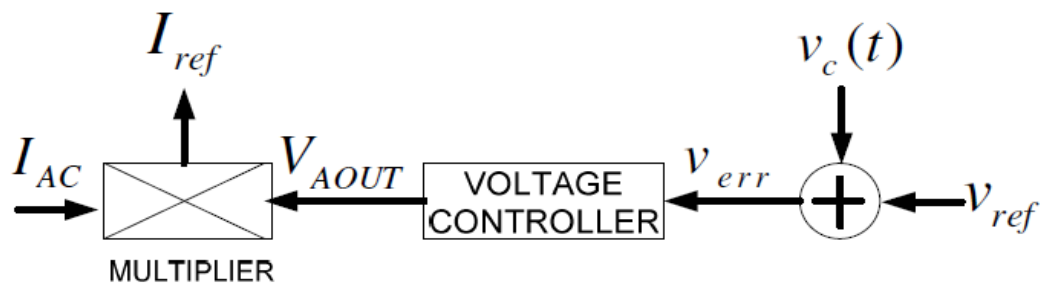


Figure 3.3 Multiplier based control.

$$v_c(t) = V + v_{\text{ripple}}(t) \quad (3.5)$$

where $v_{\text{ripple}}(t) = V_{\text{ripple}} \cos(2\omega t)$ is second harmonic voltage ripple due to second harmonic current component of the output current. This ripple voltage lags the ripple current by 90° . It is assumed that reference voltage v_{ref} is equal to the DC component of $v_c(t)$.

$$v_{\text{ref}} = V \quad (3.6)$$

So the error voltage v_{err} is equal to only second harmonic component of the capacitor voltage.

$$v_{\text{err}}(t) = V_{\text{ripple}} \cos(2\omega t) \quad (3.7)$$

Assume that the voltage controller compensator has wide bandwidth so 2nd harmonic component feeds back through the voltage error amplifier. A general equation for the output of the voltage error amplifier V_{AOUT} can be written as:

$$V_{\text{AOUT}}(t) = kV_{\text{ripple}} \cos(2\omega t) \quad (3.8)$$

In a multiplier based system shown in Figure 3.3, the current reference I_{ref} is obtained by the multiplication of the current reference waveform I_{AC} with the output of the voltage error amplifier V_{AOUT} .

$$I_{\text{ref}} = I_{\text{AC}} V_{\text{out}} \quad (3.9)$$

It is known that waveform component I_{AC} of the current reference evaluated from the rectified input voltage has only sinusoidal waveform information. So a general equation for this component I_{AC} can be written as:

$$I_{\text{AC}}(t) = k_2 \sin(\omega t) \quad (3.10)$$

So the reference current I_{ref} can be written as:

$$I_{ref} = I_{AC}V_{out} = k_2 \sin(\omega t) \times k_1 \cos(2\omega t) \quad (3.11)$$

The equation can then be rearranged as:

$$I_{ref} = I_{ref} = I_{AC}V_{out} = k_2 k_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} V_{ripple} \sin(\omega t) + \frac{1}{2} V_{ripple} \sin(3\omega t) \right) \quad (3.12)$$

It is shown in the equation above that, the 2nd harmonic distortion on the output voltage distorts the input current reference I_{ref} . The second order harmonic component of the output voltage adds a 3rd harmonic component to reference current with a half magnitude of the second harmonic component.

So in average current mode controlled PFC system, the input current is forced to follow input current reference. If a distortion occurs in reference current also actual input current distorts. This 3rd harmonic distortion in the input current lower PF.

The solution for lowering this distortion is to configure the output voltage error amplifier to block the second harmonic component of the output voltage. This is done by using an error amplifier that has lower bandwidth. The bandwidth of this controller should be lower than 2nd order frequency of the line voltage such as 20 Hz. But lower bandwidth means slower response. The slower transient response makes the dc regulation worse. A designer should consider the trade-off between lower THD and faster transient response. (Dixon, L. H. *Optimizing the Design of High Power Factor Switching Preregulator*, Unitrode Power Supply Design Seminar Manual SEM700, 1990) Generally, the load of PFC system is a second DC/DC converter that has a tight output voltage regulation. So the designer should choose better input current waveform. But if the second DC/DC converter needs a narrow range input voltage, the designer should consider transient response. There are some strategies to get better voltage loop response as given in literature. But the solution is inside the application. Detailed analyses of the voltage loop are given in the control circuit description section.

3.3 Input Voltage Feed-Forward

It was mentioned that a power factor pre-regulator is generally the first stage of a two-stage power supply system. The second stage is the load of the PFC stage and composed of a constant power DC/DC converter. So PFC stage has a constant power load that does not change with the input rms voltage. The PFC stage maintains a fairly constant output voltage and the load draws constant power regardless of the variations of output voltage of the PFC stage. In a high efficient PFC circuit, if the output load power is constant, the input power drawn from line does not change with rms line voltage. So if there is a change in input rms voltage, the input rms current should change inversely proportional to the rms input voltage. But it is known that the reference current is directly proportional to the input line voltage in an average current controlled PFC in Figure 3.1. There is a conflict between power balance and control circuit when operated in universal line (90-270 Vac).

Basically, the current reference I_{ref} is obtained by multiplication of the input voltage waveform information signal I_{AC} and the output voltage error signal V_{AOUT} . It is assumed that the PFC circuit operates with 120Vac input voltage V_{IN} with constant output power. The waveforms for the input voltage V_{IN} and the corresponding input current I_{IN} for 120-Vac operation are shown in Figure 3.4.

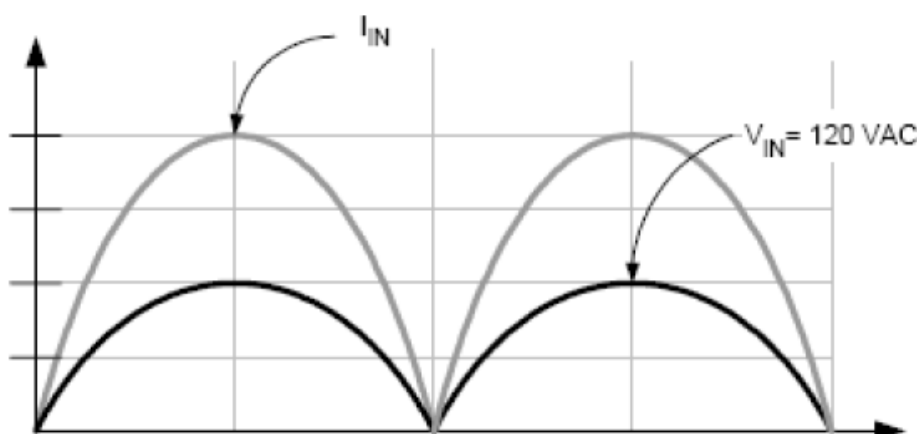


Figure 3.4 Rectified line voltage and current for 120-Vac line voltage.

The multiplier inputs I_{AC} and V_{AOUT} are shown in Figure 3.5 for 120-Vac operation.

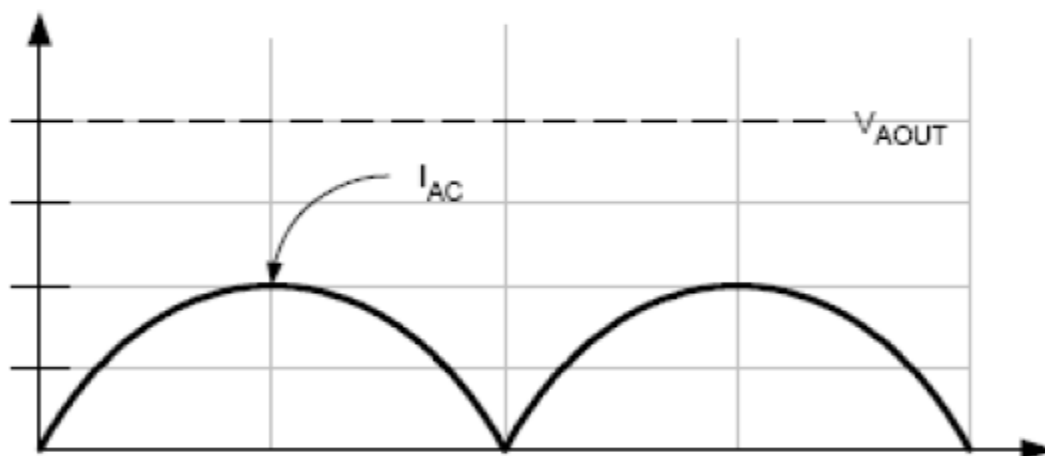


Figure 3.5 Multiplier inputs I_{AC} and V_{AOUT} at 120-Vac line voltage.

Assume PFC is operating in universal input line and the input voltage V_{IN} is doubled from 120 Vac to 240 Vac. When input voltage V_{IN} is doubled, input current I_{IN} should be halved in order to maintain constant power to the load. The waveforms for the input voltage V_{IN} and the corresponding input current I_{IN} for doubled input voltage operation are shown in Figure 3.6.

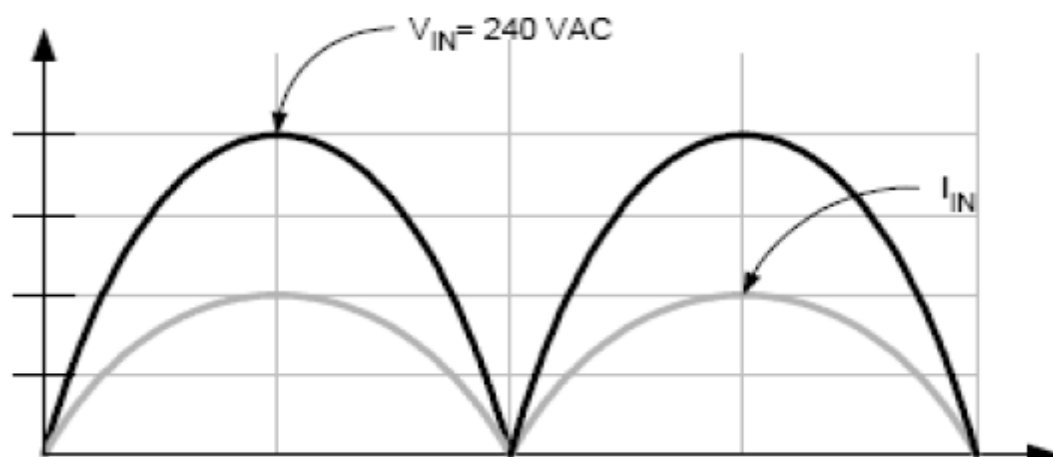


Figure 3.6 Rectified line voltage and current for 240-Vac line voltage.

The multiplier input I_{AC} is directly proportional to the input voltage V_{IN} . When V_{IN} is doubled, I_{AC} is also doubled. The multiplier output I_{ref} is current reference for the actual input current I_{IN} , has to halve, that can only be accomplished by reducing voltage error amplifier voltage V_{AOUT} by factor four.

The multiplier inputs I_{AC} and V_{AOUT} are shown in Figure 3.7 for 240-Vac operation.

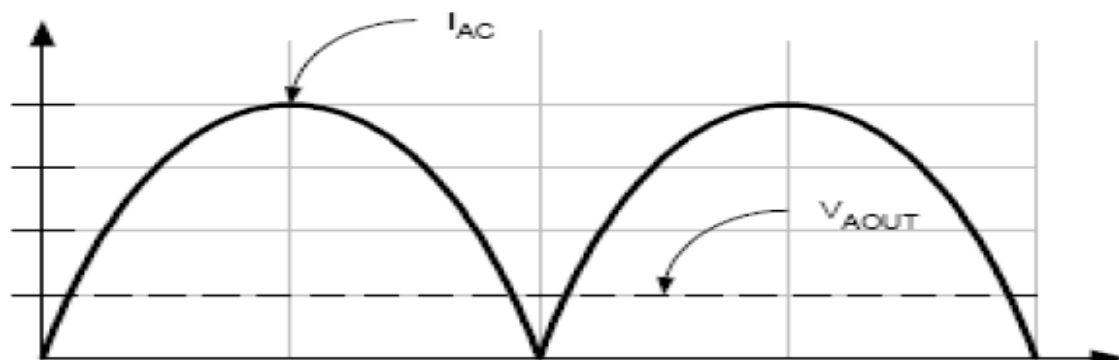


Figure 3.7 Multiplier inputs I_{AC} and V_{AOUT} at 240-Vac line voltage.

So the optimum PFC performance is obtained by fast response voltage loop controller in a universal power line operation. But the voltage loop limitation problem has already been mentioned in the previous section. The outer voltage loop controller should have small bandwidth in order to remove the second harmonic component in the voltage feedback circuit. The output of the voltage feedback controller should be constant in the half cycle of line frequency. If the voltage loop controller has small bandwidth, the control circuit should be independent of the line voltage in order to solve the problems due to the variations of the line voltage. The solution is called as input voltage feed-forward. (Williams, J. B. "Design of Feedback Loop in Unity Power Factor AC to DC Converter", PESC Conf. Proc., 1989, pp. 959-967.)

The input voltage feed-forward makes the control circuit independent from the input line voltage by modifying the multiplier concept. A new signal proportional to the input voltage is added to the input of the multiplier. This signal is called as feedforward and represented by V_{FF} . The feed-forward signal V_{FF} is squared and inversed so V_{FF} signal becomes as a divider factor ($1/V_{FF}^2$). The modified average control system with input voltage feed-forward is shown in Figure 3.8.

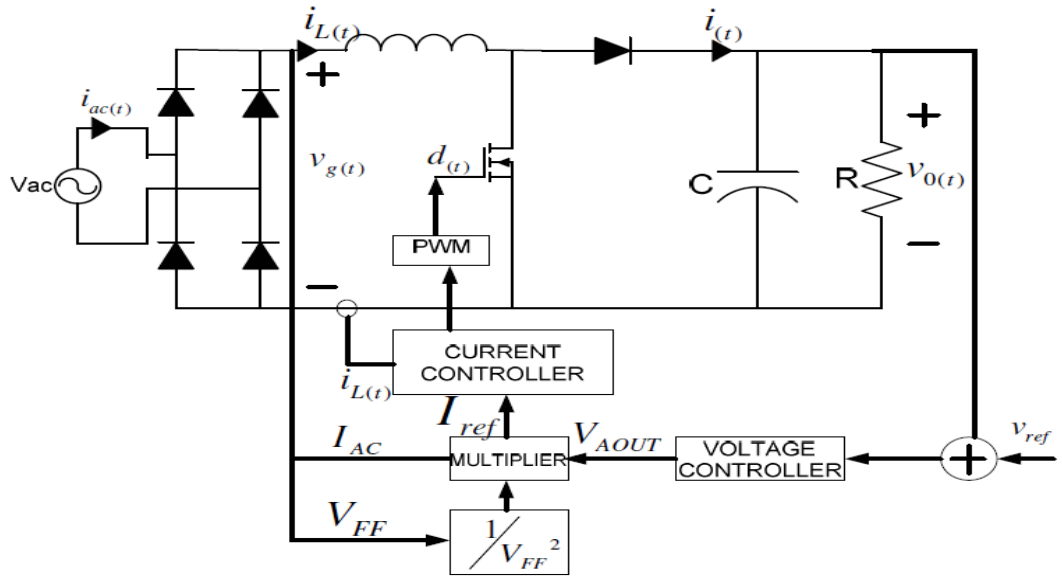


Figure 3.8 Block diagram of the average current PFC with feed-forward.

The new control strategy provides independent operation of voltage error controller to the input voltage variations. In fact, the output voltage error amplifier is only dependent on the output power. If the input voltage doubles, the doubled I_{AC} signal is divided by factor four by the new input feed-forward signal ($1/V_{FF}^2$). So the new current reference I_{ref} is equal to half of the original signal before doubling line voltage without any change in V_{AOUT} . The new equation for the current reference I_{ref} can be written as:

$$I_{ref} = k \frac{I_{AC} V_{AOUT}}{V_{FF}^2} \quad (3.13)$$

The control system with input voltage feed-forward has all the capabilities for high power factor application for universal input line. The current reference I_{ref} is the combination of I_{AC} that has the waveform of the rectified input voltage and V_{AOUT} that is proportional to the output power. And it is mentioned that the output voltage loop has smaller crossover frequency and the output V_{AOUT} is constant during line cycle. The other input I_{AC} of multiplier is derived by a resistor dividing circuit of rectified input voltage so I_{AC} varies during line cycle. The third input of the multiplier is the feed-forward signal V_{FF} . Now the design of the feed-forward application will be considered.

Since the feed-forward signal V_{FF} consists of the rms input voltage information, this signal can be obtained by resistor divider connected to the dc side of bridge rectifier. Since the rectified input voltage has large 2nd harmonic component, the feed-forward signal V_{FF} should be filtered.

This averaging network is done by low pass filter. The first order averaging low pass filter for the feed-forward signal V_{FF} is shown in Figure 3.9. The capacitor averages the rectified input voltage waveform and reduces the 2nd harmonic ripple. The time constant of the filter network defines the amount of the 2nd harmonic ripple in the input of the multiplier.

If time constant (RC) is smaller, the feed-forward compensation network will have a faster response but 2nd harmonic ripple will be high.

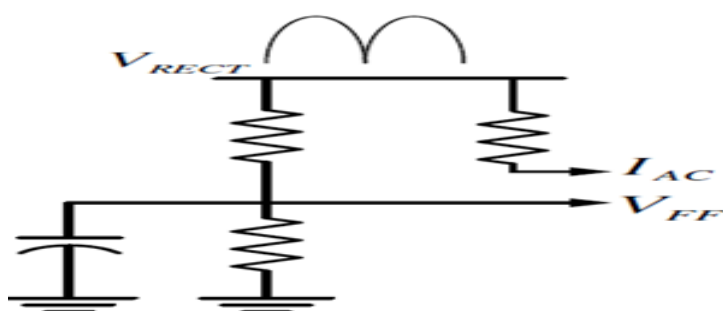


Figure 3.9 First order input voltage feed-forward sensing scheme

This will reduce power factor. If the time constant is larger, there will be too much feed-forward delay resulting in worse transient response such as higher overshoots. The transient response can be increased with lower 2nd order ripple distortion and can be achieved by a second order low pass filter as shown in Figure 3.10.

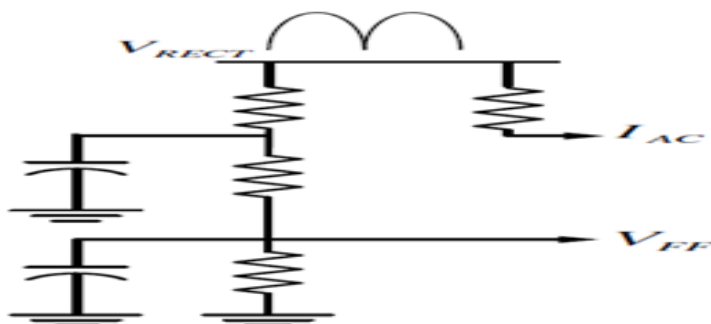


Figure 3.10 Second order input voltage feed-forward sensing scheme.

A second order low pass filter network can increase the complexity and manufacturing cost. In fact, input voltage does not change instantaneously so fast transient response is not really required.

Some new generation IC's combines the evaluation of I_{AC} and V_{FF} . The feed-forward signal V_{FF} is obtained by mirroring I_{AC} signal so a second resistor divider circuit is removed. The new voltage feed-forward sensing schemes is shown in Figure 3.11.

The amount of ripple on the feed-forward signal V_{FF} distorts the input current. The low pass filter attenuates most of 2nd order harmonic but some 2nd order harmonic exists in feed-forward signal. The distortion is the same as the voltage loop distortion explained in the previous section. 2nd harmonic ripple in the feed-forward signal causes 3rd harmonic distortion in the line current. But the amplitude of the 3rd harmonic distortion is equal to the 2nd harmonic ripple amplitude in the feed-forward signal due to squaring process. On the other hand, distortions due to feed-forward sensing scheme and voltage loop have the same phase and are multiplied as the inputs of the multiplier. (Noon, J.P. & Dalal, D. *Practical design issues for PFC circuits*, IEEE APEC 1997.)

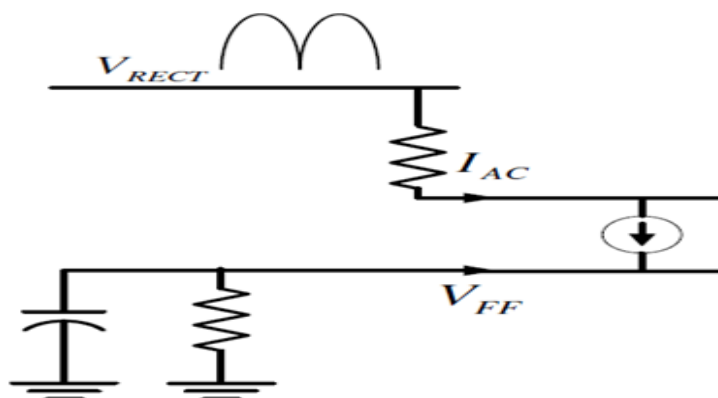


Figure 3.11 First order input voltage feed-forward sensing scheme

3.4 Control Loop Design

In average current controlled PFC application, there are two control loops that provide a sinusoidal input current in phase with input voltage.

The design of the voltage and current loops has significant effects in the system performance, such as amount of THD and PF. The control circuit has inner current loop that ensures the form of I_{ref} based on the input voltage. The outer voltage loop determines the amplitude of the current reference I_{ref} based on the output voltage feedback. The outer voltage loop adjusts the inductor current amplitude to bring the output voltage to the reference voltage. The block diagram of the control loops for an average current controlled PFC is shown in Figure 3.12.

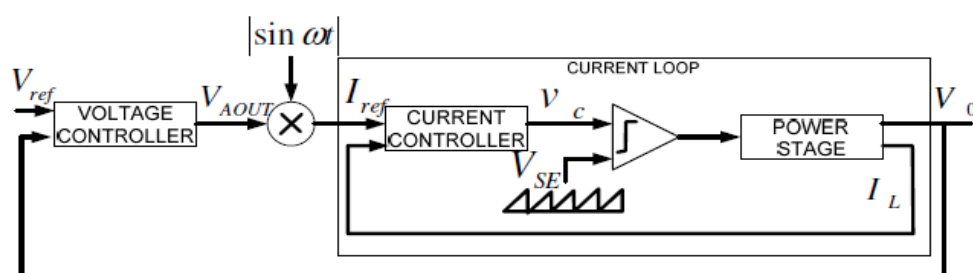


Figure 3.12 PFC control loops.

The control loops are designed separately. The inner current loop has higher bandwidth. The voltage loop has lower bandwidth due to distortion factors.

3.4.1 Current Loop Design

Inner current loop of average current controlled PFC needs inductor current sensing. The sensed current via shunt resistor or current transformer is compared with reference current that is output of the multiplier. The error between actual inductor current and the reference current is amplified with a properly designed current compensator. The output of the compensator is compared with a saw tooth waveform to produce required duty cycle for the PFC boost operation.

The main feature of the average current control is the presence of the current error amplifier (compensator) that provides controlling the average inductor current. The inner current loop block diagram can be built with the combination of the current sensing circuit, current error amplifier, PWM generator and power stage of the PFC boost converter as shown in Figure 3.13.

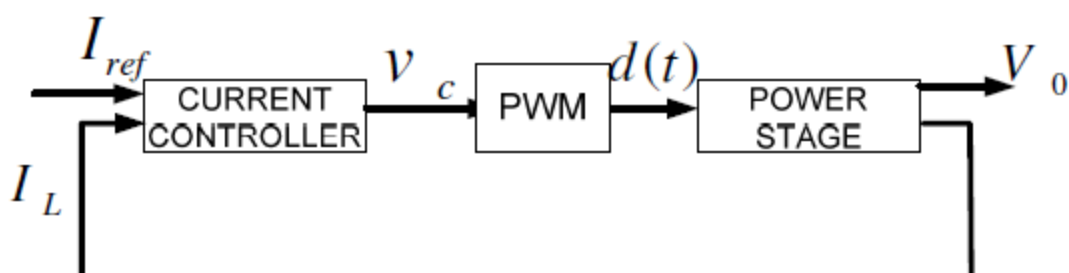


Figure 3.13 PFC current loop.

The inner current loop has large bandwidth around one decade of the switching frequency. A small signal model of the inner current loop is needed to design a proper compensator with optimum performance and stability. A Laplace domain of the inner current loop is shown in the figure 3.14.

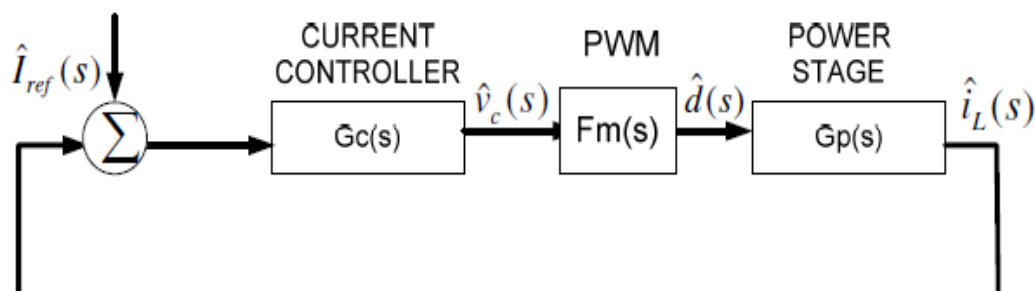


Figure 3.14 Laplace domain block-schema of the current loop

The open loop transfer function of the inner current loop can be written as:

$$T_i(s) = F_m(s)R_sG_p(s)G_c(s) \quad (3.14)$$

where $F_m(s)$ is modulator gain of the PFC controller, R_s is the current sensing resistor, $G_p(s)$ is power stage transfer function, and $G_c(s)$ is current compensator transfer function.

The transfer function of the modulator is dependent on the peak value of the ramp voltage in the PWM controller. So the transfer function of the modulator can be written as:

$$F_m(s) = \frac{1}{V_{SE}} \quad (3.15)$$

where V_{SE} is equal to the peak-to-peak amplitude of the external ramp. A small signal model of the power converter is needed for the design of the current compensator.

The averaged small-signal model of the converter defines the dependence of the average input current on the duty cycle. When the converter operates at steady-state, the output voltage has small variations around a steady-state component. The output voltage can be expressed as:

$$\langle V_o(t) \rangle_{TS} = V + \hat{v}(t) \quad (3.16)$$

The averaged small signal model of the PFC boost converter with dynamically changed variables is shown in Figure 3.15. The linearization and the perturbation procedure are used for completing the small signal model of the converter.

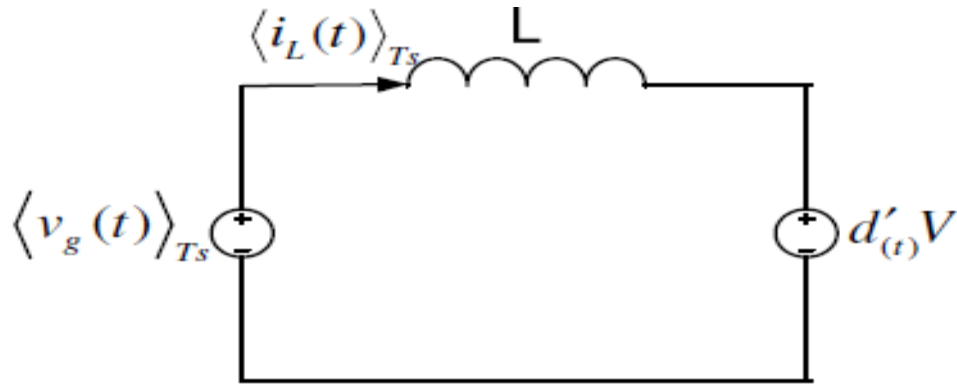


Figure 3.15 Linearized model of the PFC boost converter.

The average inductor voltage of the PFC boost converter can be written as:

$$L \frac{d\langle i_L(t) \rangle}{dt} = \langle V_g(t) \rangle_{T_s} - d^1(t)(V + \hat{v}(t)) \quad (3.17)$$

The nonlinear term $dV(t) + \hat{v}(t)$ in the equation (3.17) is much smaller than the linear term $d^1(t)V$. Therefore, this nonlinear term can be discarded. The average inductor voltage can be obtained as:

$$L \frac{d\langle i_L(t) \rangle}{dt} = \langle V_g(t) \rangle_{T_s} - d^1(t)V \quad (3.18)$$

The equivalent circuit given in Figure 3.15 is used to obtain control-to-input transfer function by using the equation (3.18) and found by setting the independent inputs to zero and solving the inductor current I_g . The simplified small signal transfer function of the PFC boost converter $G_p(s)$ is written as

$$G_p(s) = \frac{i_L(s)}{d(s)} = \frac{V}{sL} \quad (3.19)$$

The open loop transfer function of the current loop without the current compensator $G_{id}(s)$ can be written as the combination of the power stage, sensing resistor and PWM modulator.

$$G_{id}(s) = F_m(s) R_s G_p(s) \quad (3.20)$$

The complete open loop transfer function of the current loop with current compensator $T_i(s)$ is

$$T_i(s) = G_{id}(s) G_c(s) \quad (3.21)$$

The current compensator is designed according to the behavior of the converter without the current compensator. The current compensator should be designed for optimal performance and stability for overall current loop. The Bode plot of the $G_{id}(s)$ is a good reference for the design of the current compensator. The Bode plot of the $G_{id}(s)$ with arbitrary chosen values ($L = 1\text{mH}$, $V_0 = 400\text{V}$, $V_{SE} = 4\text{V}$) is shown in Figure 3.16.

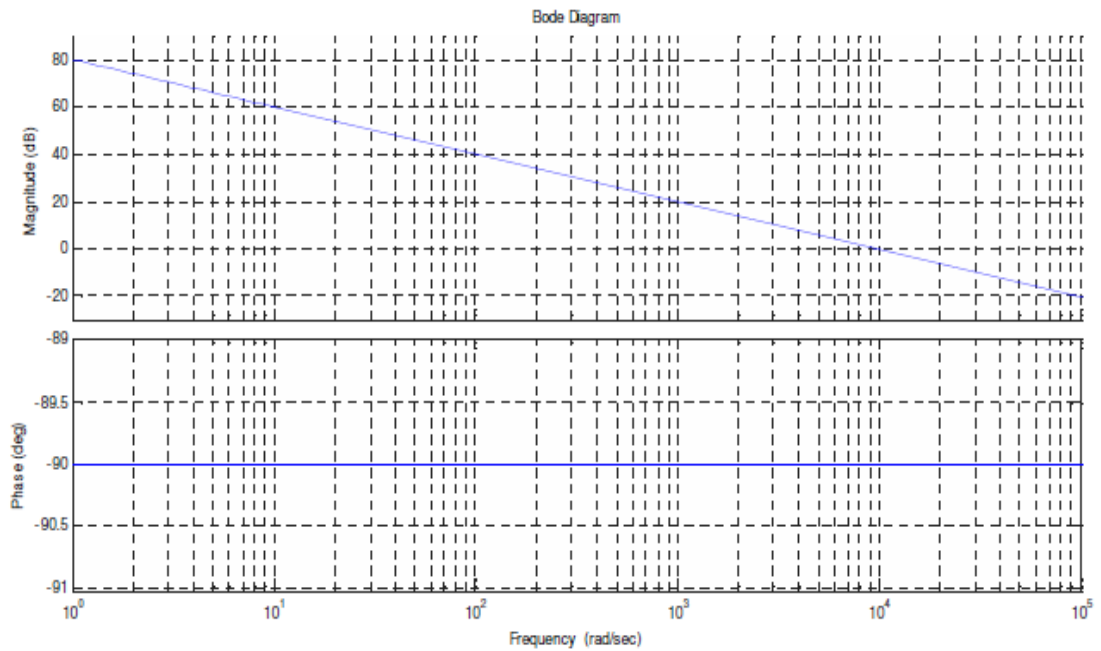


Figure 3.16 Magnitude and phase plots of the converter transfer function $G_{id}(s)$.

It can be seen from Figure 3.16 that the power stage transfer function has a single pole response at the usual frequencies. A two-pole, single-zero error amplifier can be used as a current compensator in the average current control method. A pole placed at the origin provides a higher loop dc gain and zero dc steady-state error in the current controller transfer function $G_c(s)$.

The zero is placed to achieve the desired phase margin for stability purposes. The other pole is placed generally at one half of the switching frequency to filter the switching noise. A general equation for a two-pole, single-zero current compensator is given below:

$$G_c(s) = \frac{W_i (1 + s/w_z)}{s (1 + s/w_p)} \quad (3.21)$$

The construction of a two-pole, single-zero current compensator and a general gain response are shown in Figures 3.17.a and 3.17.b, respectively.

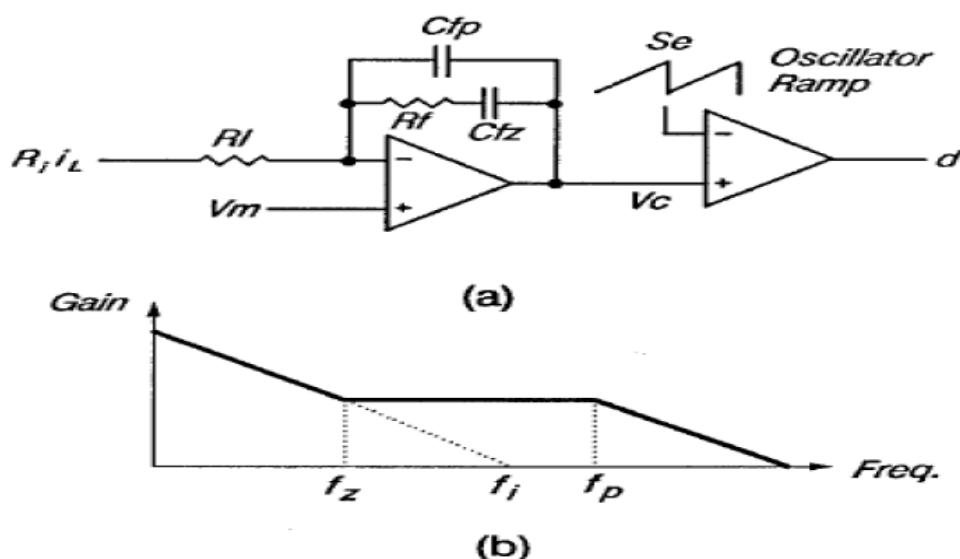


Figure 3.17 (a) Circuit Diagram (b) Gain response of current compensator.

It is shown that, if the high frequency pole is placed at or after half of the switching frequency to filter out the switching ripple of the sensed inductor current, it has no effect on the gain and the phase of the current – loop gain before the half of the switching frequency. Only the pole placed at the origin (acting as integrator) and the zero affect the current loop gain below half of the switching frequency. The current loop should be designed to have maximum low frequency gain and acceptable phase margin at the crossover frequency to minimize the input current distortions. The overall current loop transfer function can be written as:

$$T_i(s) = \frac{V_{R_s}}{SLV_{SE}} \frac{W_i (1 + s/w_z)}{s (1 + s/w_p)} \quad (3.22)$$

The compensated current loop transfer function has the following gain and phase responses shown in Figure 3.18.

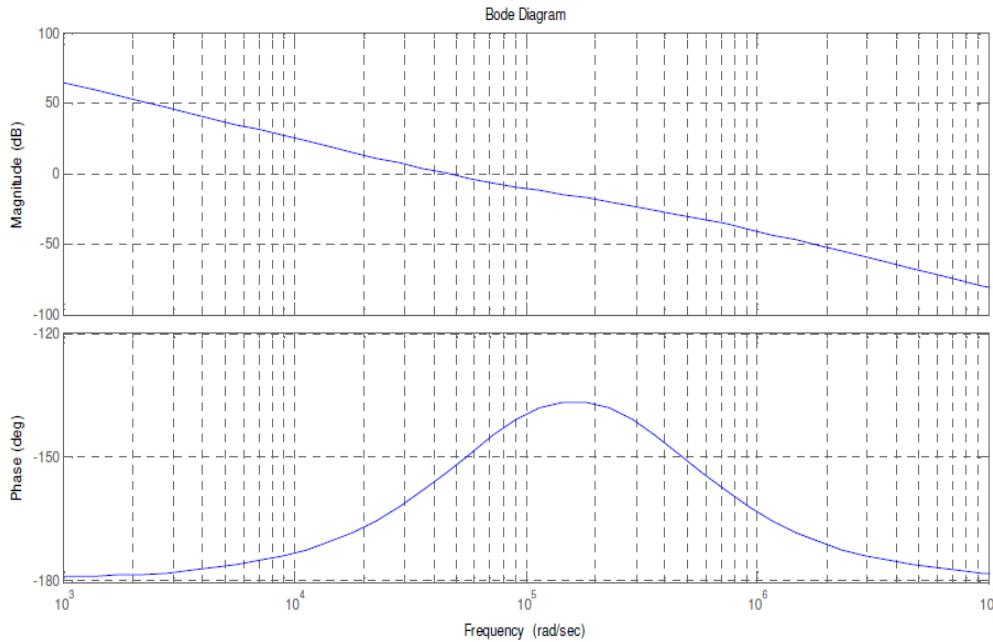


Figure 3.18 Compensated loop gain and phase plots of the inner current loop.

3.4.2 Voltage Loop Design

The outer voltage loop determines the required amplitude of the current reference due to the requirement for the power balance operation. On the other hand, it was mentioned that the outer voltage loop should have limited bandwidth, less than half of the line frequency, for minimum distortion in the line current. This limited bandwidth brings slower transient response. The outer voltage loop should be designed for optimal transient response with minimal input current distortion due to the 2nd harmonic component in the output capacitor voltage. The block diagram of the outer voltage loop can be constructed with closed current loop as shown in Figure 3.19.

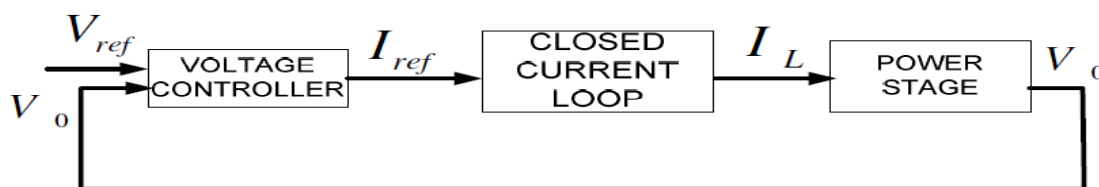


Figure 3.19 Voltage control loop.

Assuming the inner current loop is well designed, it provides a good current regulation according to the predefined current reference. It can be assumed that the closed current loop has no effect in the outer voltage loop, simply behaves as a unity gain block in the block diagram of the voltage loop shown in Figure 3.19. So the only thing is the design of the voltage error amplifier. This voltage compensator should be designed according to low frequency behavior of the power stage of the PFC. Because the outer voltage loop has smaller crossover frequency around 20 Hz, a small signal model of the power stage accurate at frequencies below 100 Hz should be used. (Dixon, L. H. *High Power Factor Preregulators for Off-Line Power Supplies*, Unitrode Power Supply Design Seminar Manual SEM600, 1988) The small signal model of the PFC converter consists of a controlled power source modeled as a current source shunted by a resistor as shown in Figure 3.20.

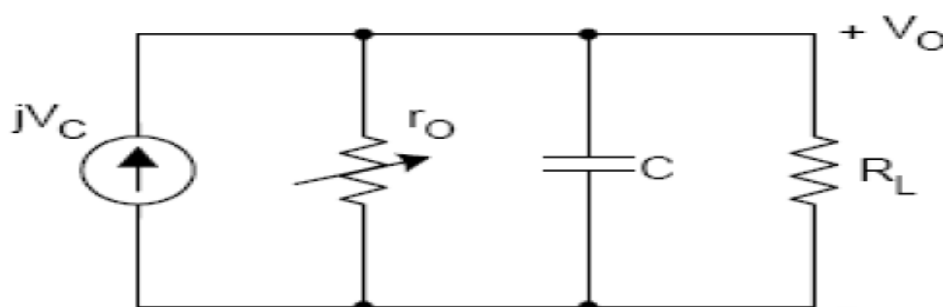


Figure 3.20 Small signal model of outer loop.

The variable source resistance r_o is equal to the load resistance R_L . r_o changes when R_L changes. The load can be a resistive load or a constant power load such as a DC/DC converter.

In the case of resistive load, r_o is equal to the load resistance R_L and the parallel combination of these variables defines the single pole response of the transfer function. However, in the case of the constant power load, it has a negative small signal resistance ($-R_L$). The negative resistance is equal and opposite in sign to the dc resistance and parallel combination approaches infinity.

So the model becomes a current source driving a dc capacitor. So the power stage transfer function will have a single pole response that is placed at 0 Hz. The power stage transfer function can be written by using this simple circuit, current source driving the dccapacitor, by using the power changes in the output capacitor.

$$G_{PS}(s) = \frac{P_{in}}{SCV_0\Delta V_{aout}} \quad (3.23)$$

Where $SCV_0\Delta V_{aout}$ is equal to the voltage ripple in the capacitor voltage.

The voltage compensator should have a pole at the origin to achieve zero steady state error. This integral compensation adds another 90 degrees of the phase shift at low frequency, since the transfer function of the power stage has single pole roll-off. A zero is needed to achieve optimal phase margin and placed before the loop crossover frequency. The location of the zero should be chosen as high as possible in frequency considering a zero will be a dominant pole in the closed loop system. So a high frequency zero provides better transient response in the closed loop system. The second pole is placed at the loop crossover frequency. A two-pole, single-zero voltage compensator is the best choice for better transient response and low current distortion. The general definition for the voltage controller is given in the equation (3.24).

$$G_v(s) = \frac{W_i (1 + s/w_z)}{s (1 + s/w_p)} \quad (3.24)$$

The voltage loop is designed according to chosen output capacitor value, output voltage ripple and allowable input current distortion.

3.5 Simulation of Average Current Control Mode of Boost Converter

Single Phase average current mode controlled PFC circuit is simulated by SIMPLORER simulation tool and simulation results are verified. The simulated circuit and control blocks are shown in Figure 3.21.

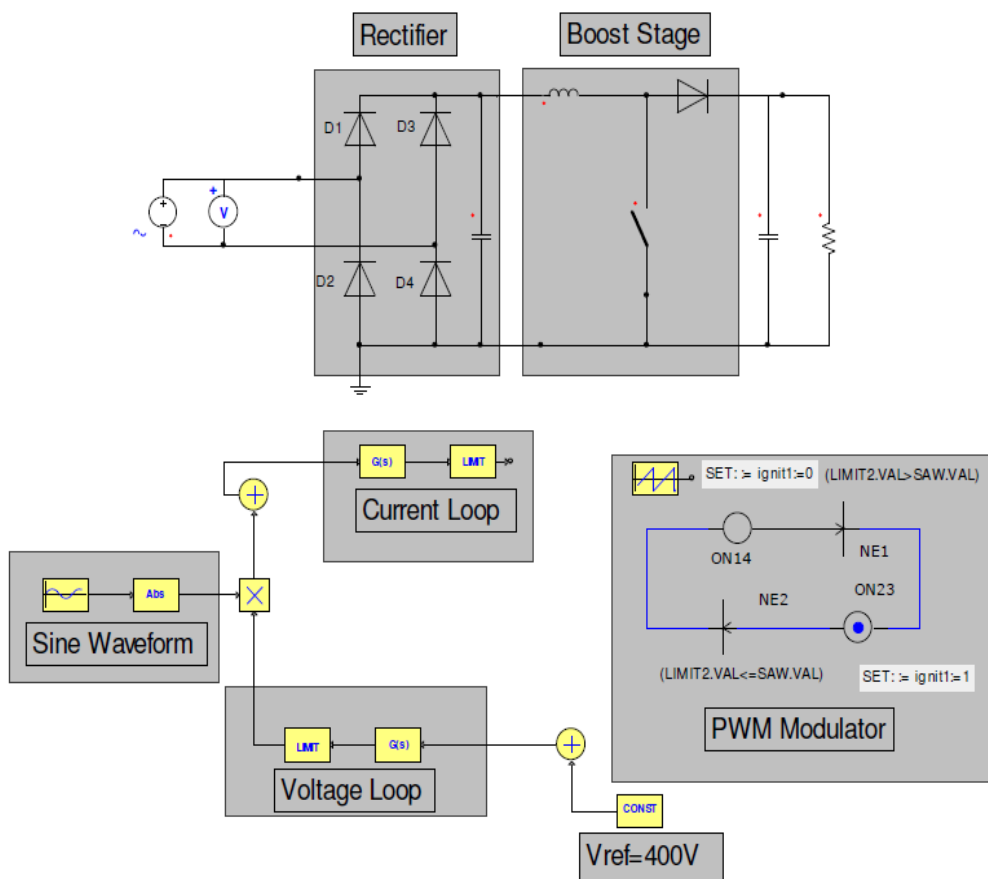


Figure 3.21 Simulation block diagram of average current mode PFC.

The performance analyses of average current controlled PFC is done by simulation methods. The input current and output voltage simulation waveforms are illustrated and analyzed. The current waveform behavior for different input voltages and the output voltage differences at step load conditions are verified. The circuit is simulated with the following simulation parameters given in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Simulation parameters of average current mode PFC

Output Power, P_0	250 W
Input Voltage, V_{in}	90- 265V
Input Voltage Frequency	50Hz
Switching Frequency	100 kHz
Output Voltage, V_0	400V
Boost Inductor, L	1mH
Output Capacitor, C_0	330uF
Integration Formula	Euler
Minimum Step Time	0.1u

The control loops for average current mode control is implemented by s-block subcircuit in the simulation system. The output voltage controller is chosen as a low bandwidth error amplifier. The output voltage controller has two poles and one zero characteristics with 20 Hz crossover frequency. A pole is placed at origin where the other pole is placed at crossover frequency. The zero is placed before the crossover frequency for stability reasons. The current controller is also implemented by s-block sub-circuit. The current controller has two poles and one zero with one decade of switching frequency crossover (10 kHz). The zero is placed at crossover frequency and the pole is placed at half of the switching frequency to filter the higher switching frequency noises. (Ridley, R. B. "Average Small-Signal Analysis of the Boost Power-Factor-Correction Circuit", VPEC Seminar Proc., 1989, pp. 108-120.) The used parameters for the voltage controller (GS1) and current controller (GS2) are shown in Figure 3.22.

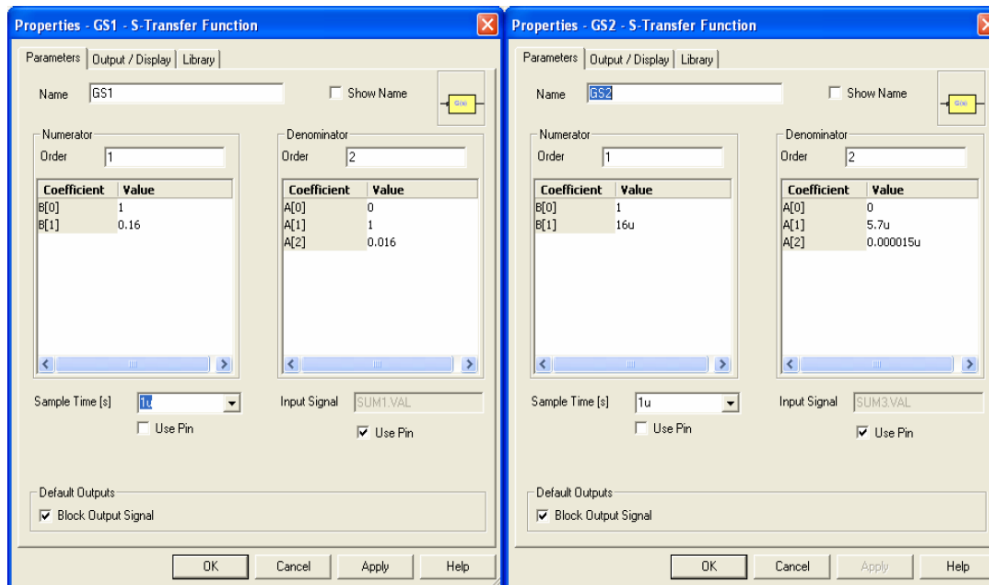


Figure 3.22 S-Transfer function for the voltage and current controller used in simulation

The simulation results for the input voltage and the input current for 220-V input voltage at full-load is shown in Figure 3.23.

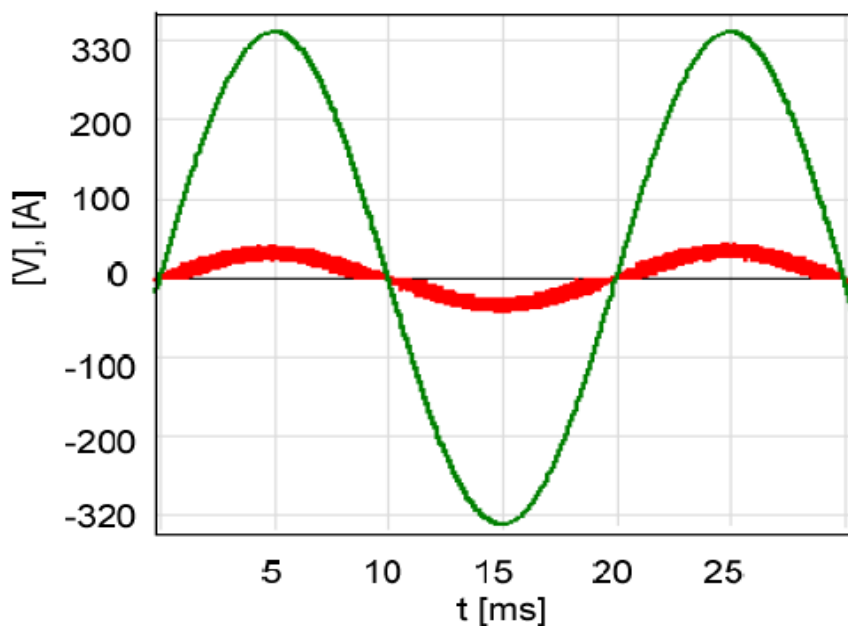


Figure 3.23 Line voltage and line current simulation waveforms for 220-V input voltage at 250-W PFC system (current scale: 10x).

The output voltage reference is defined as 400 Vdc. The output voltage and input current simulation waveforms are at steady state for 220 V input voltage and fullload output power is shown in Figure 3.24.

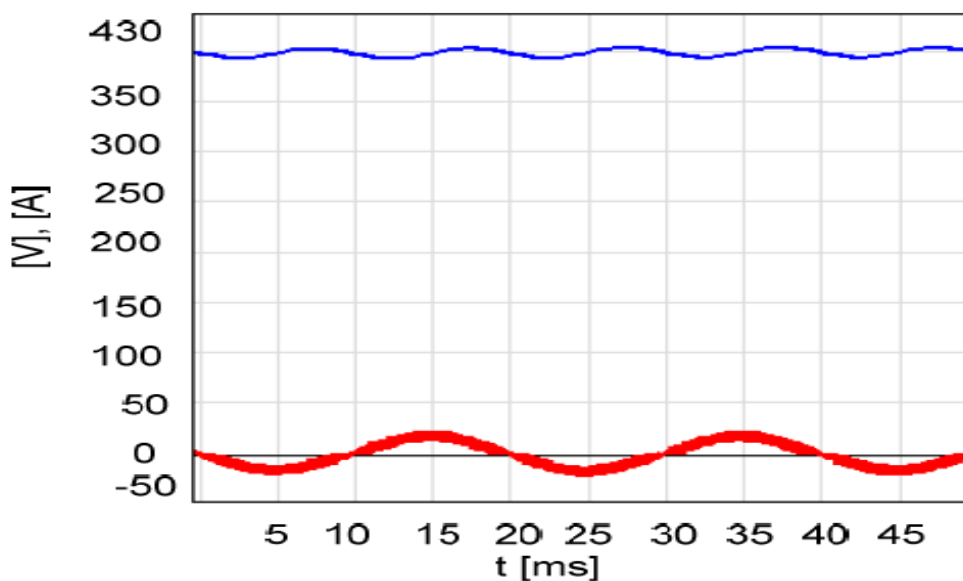


Figure 3.24 Output voltage and input current simulation waveforms for 220 V input voltage at 250-W PFC system (current scale: 10x).

The system is simulated for the lower input voltage conditions. The input voltage is lowered to 120 Vac and the corresponding current and output voltage waveforms are simulated. The input voltage and input current simulation waveforms for 120 Vac at full-load power are shown in Figure 3.25.

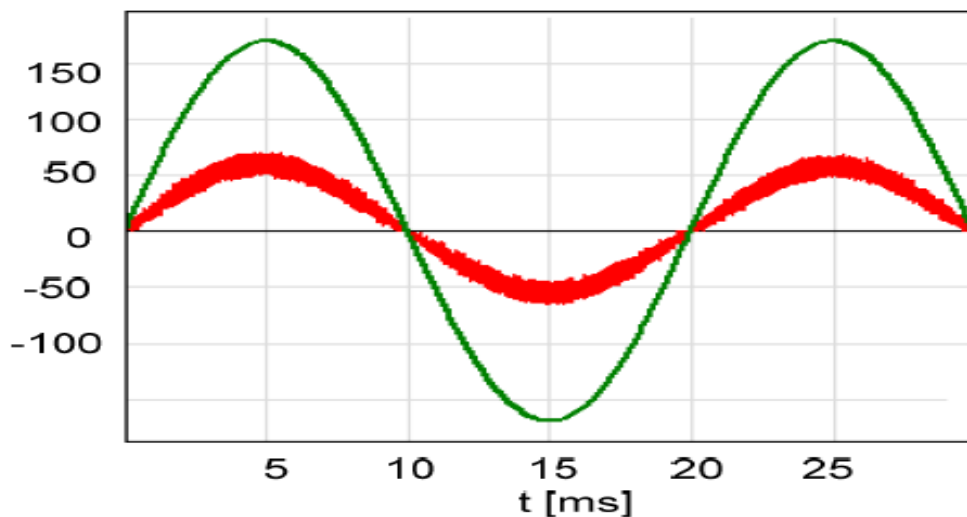


Figure 3.25 Line voltage and line current simulation waveforms for 120 V input voltage at 250-W PFC system (current scale: 10x).

The output voltage and input current simulation waveforms for 120 V input voltage at full-load are shown in Figure 3.26.

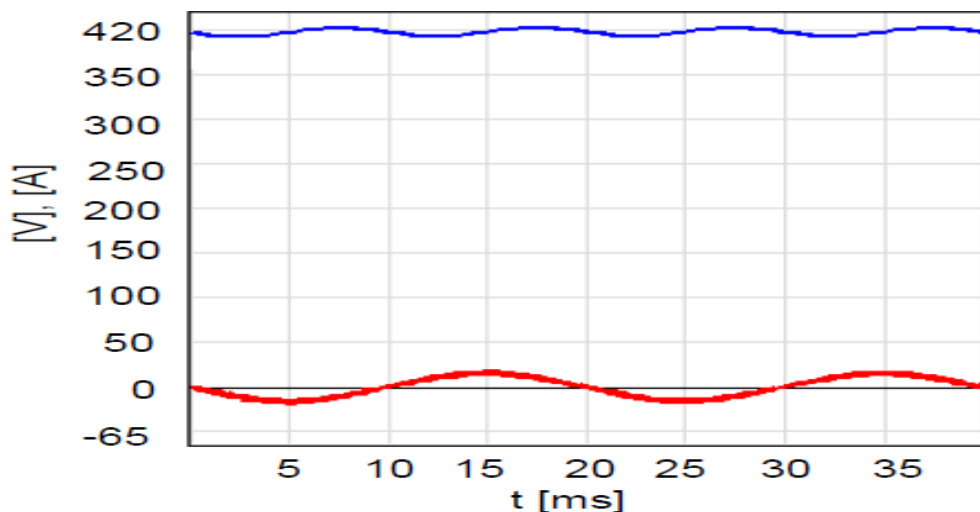


Figure 3.26 Output voltage and input current simulation waveforms for 120V input voltage at 250W PFC system (current scale: 10x).

The transient response for the outer voltage control loop is satisfied with the simulation. The load is increased from half load to full load at steady-state and the corresponding changes at the output voltage and input current are illustrated by the simulation. The step response for the output voltage and input current is shown in Figure 3.27.

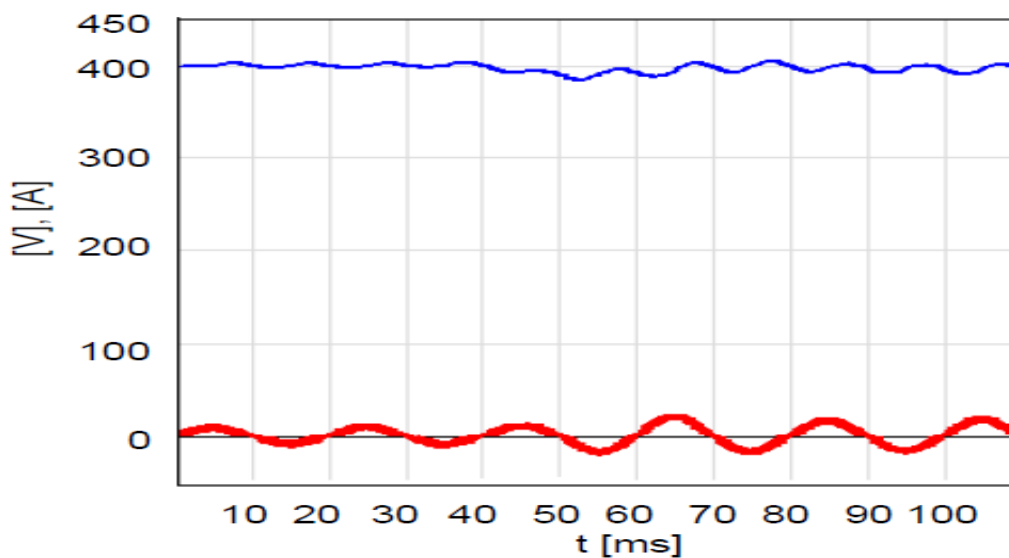


Figure 3.27 Step response for output voltage and input current simulation waveforms for 220 V input voltage at half-load to full-load step (current scale: 10x).

In the above simulation results, it is shown that a sinusoidal input current waveform is achieved for different input voltage values by the average current mode controlled PFC. There are some distortions in the input current at the zero crossings of the input voltage due to the lower inductor voltage at these regions. The lower inductor voltage cannot provide enough inductor current to track reference waveform. In the case of the lower input voltage such as 120 Vac, these distortions are smaller. The output voltage controller has limited bandwidth and shows slower response to transient situations. But it is seen from Figure 3.27 that the voltage and current controller shows optimum response for load changes without any distortions or overshoots.

3.6 Hardware Implementation of Average Current Control Mode of Boost Converter

This section describes the general specifications of the power circuit and control circuit elements of an average current controlled converter system. It is known that the single-phase PFC is shaped from a single-phase diode rectifier and a cascaded DC/DC boost converter. The types of the components in the power circuit with their general specifications are summarized briefly in the subsection 3.6.1. The analog smps controller IC, NCP1379, is chosen to implement average current mode smps application. The general parameters and the block diagram of the controller are given in the subsection 3.6.2.

3.6.1 Functional Description of the Power Circuit

The power circuit consists of input bridge rectifier, filtering ac capacitor after bridge, boost inductor, boost switch, boost diode and output capacitor. A current sensing resistor series to power line is placed to sense the inductor current for average current mode control. An inrush current limiter NTC is placed at the input of the rectifier to limit the startup current. This inrush current limiter has cold resistance at start-up and a small resistance when the rated current flows through it.

A glass fuse is placed at the input of the power line to protect the circuit from high input currents.

A diode is placed between the output of the rectifier and the output capacitor in order to protect the circuit elements during the start-up. It is known that output electrolytic capacitor draws higher currents during initial charging at the start-up so boost diode can saturate at this current level and can damage the circuit elements such as boost diode. This parallel diode conducts only at the start-up because the output voltage is smaller than the input voltage. At steady-state, output voltage will be higher than the input voltage due to boost operation.

Input bridge rectifier is selected according to required ratings of the system. This bridge rectifier is followed by a filtering capacitor. This filtering capacitor reduces the noise in the output of the bridge rectifier and provides a good reference waveform for the current reference. A displacement factor occurs, if the value of this capacitor is high. The boost inductor, power switch and diode form the boost pre-regulator operation. The boost inductor is made of ferrite core with appropriate ratings. The power switch is selected as a power MOSFET with a small on-resistance. The output diode has fast switching capability with soft recovery characteristics.

The output capacitor is one of the main elements in the power circuit. The value of this electrolytic capacitor affects the output voltage ripple, performance of the voltage error amplifier, hold-up time, and start-up inrush current. A small current sensing resistor with higher power rating is used to sense the inductor current. This is the easiest way to sense the inductor current but some power dissipation occurs in the sensing resistor. As the system has low power level, current sensing is a good and cheap solution. In high power applications current sensing transformers or Hall-effect devices should be used to sense the current. But these methods need extra circuit to amplify the sensed current to the appropriate value for the controller.

3.6.2 Functional Description of the Control Circuit

The control circuit is implemented with the OnSemi integrated circuit NCP1379 and the required external circuit elements. The NCP1379 controller IC provides average current mode.

The controller IC needs external passive components chosen according to the application. The IC has internal reference voltage generator, current and voltage error amplifiers, saw tooth oscillator, gate drive circuit with soft start and peak current limiting features. The block diagram of the controller IC is shown in Figure 3.28.

The controller IC operates with constant 12-Vdc power supply. the controller prevents valley-jumping instability and steadily locks out in selected valley as the power demand goes down. Once the fourth valley is reached, the controller continues to reduce the frequency further down, offering excellent efficiency over a wide operating range.

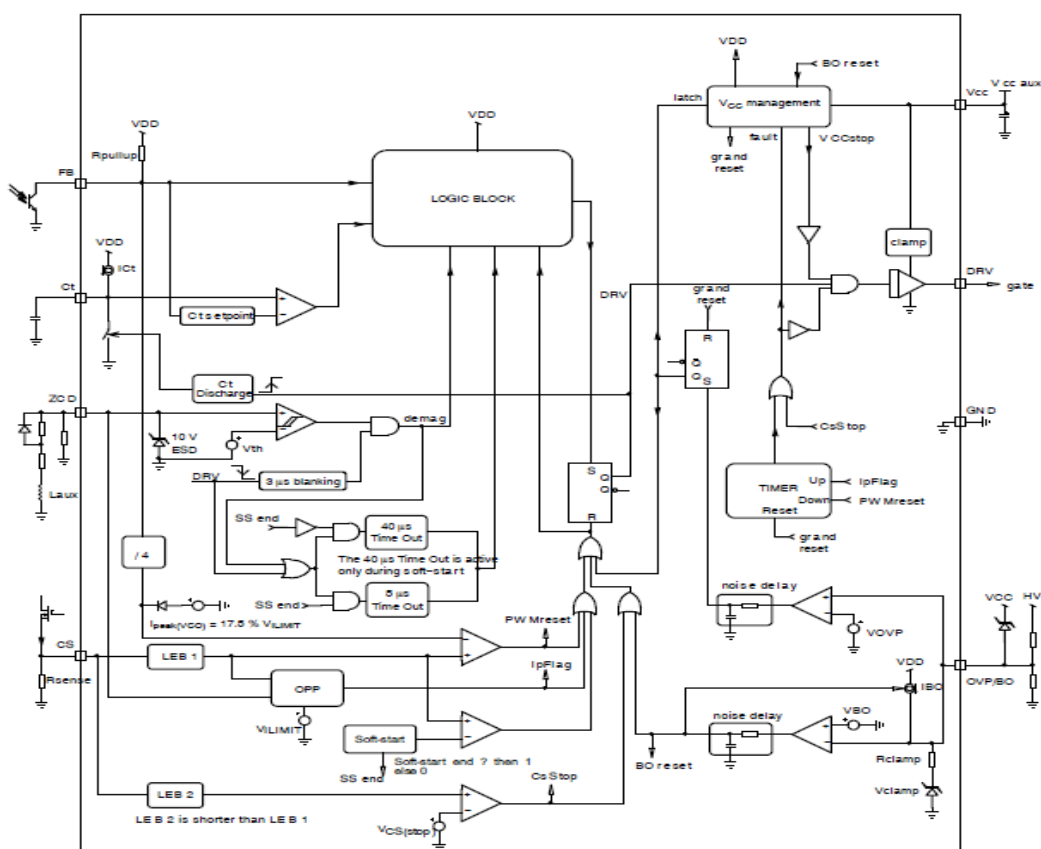


Figure 3.28 Block diagram of the NCP1379 controller IC.

Due to a fault timer combined to an OPP circuitry, the controller is able to efficiently limit the output power at high-line. NCP1379 optimizes the efficiency by switching in the valley of the MOSFET drain-source voltage. Due to a proprietary circuitry, the controller locks-out in a selected valley and remains locked until the output loading significantly changes. This behavior is obtained by monitoring the feedback voltage.

When the load becomes lighter, the feedback setpoint changes and the controller jumps into the next valley. It can go down to the 4th valley if necessary. Beyond this point, the controller reduces its switching frequency by freezing the peak current setpoint.

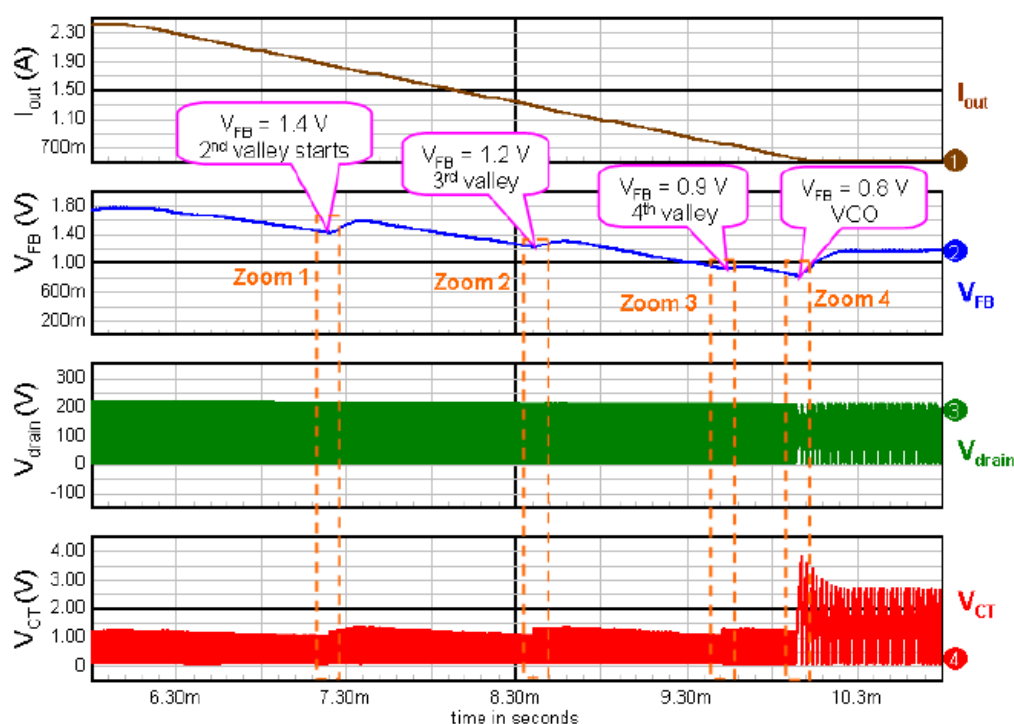


Figure 3.29 Output Load is Decreased from 2.4 A to 0.5 A at 120 Vdc Input Voltage

3.7 Design of the Average Current Controlled Circuit

In this section, design procedure for implementing average current mode controlled PFC with NCP1379 IC is presented. First, the design specification for the circuit is defined as given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Design parameters of 250W average current PFC

Output Power, P_0	250 W
Input Voltage, V_{in}	90-270V
Input Voltage Frequency	50Hz
Switching Frequency	100 kHz
Output Voltage, V_0	385V
Input current THD	3%
Efficiency	90%
Hold-up time	50ms
Inductor Current Ripple	20%

The design process is realized by using following procedure.

- 1) Power stage considerations
- 2) Selection of the switching frequency f_s
- 3) Selection of the boost inductor L
- 4) Selection of the output capacitor C_0
- 5) Selection of the power switch elements, MOSFET and PFC diode

Average current mode controlled PFC with NCP1379 controller IC is implemented with the selected external elements. The schematic diagram of the hardware is shown in Figure 3.30.

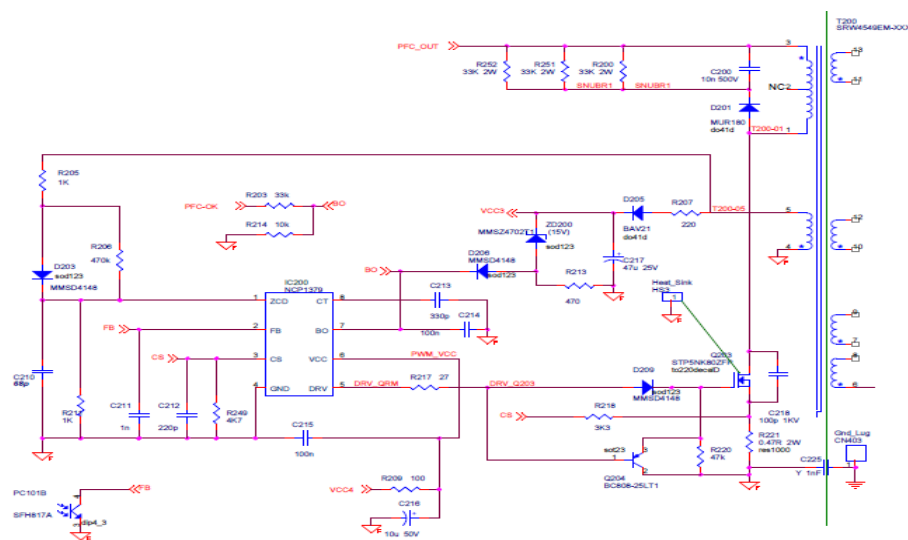


Figure 3.30 Schematic diagram of Primary side the 250-W, average current controlled PFC.

1) Power Stage Considerations: A 250-W single-phase power factor correction circuit is implemented and tested in the laboratory conditions. The average current mode control has no limit for the power level of the PFC system. Traditionally, the SMPS has lower power levels that are used in commercial equipments. So, 250-W PFC is a good example to show the basics of the average current mode controlled PFC circuit. The PFC circuit is designed to operate anywhere in the world (universal input line).

The first issue to design the power stage is defining the output voltage level. The output voltage should be greater than the peak of the maximum input voltage. In this example, output voltage reference is selected as 385 Vdc. The main elements of the circuit are boost inductor, power switch, boost diode and output capacitor. The boost inductor is designed for the inductor ripple current at the worst case operation of the circuit. The selection of the power switch is done by considering the rms value of the switch current. The boost diode should have fast reverse recovery characteristics for CCM operation. Both power switch and diode should be rated at about 20 % above of the output voltage. The output capacitor should be selected by considering the output voltage ripple and hold-up time.

2) Selection of the switching frequency f_s : Switching frequency should be high enough to reduce power component size but low enough to reduce the power losses. So selection of the switching frequency is defined by the trade-off between size and switching losses. The controller provides wide range of switching frequency (20 kHz-250 kHz). In this example, 21,439 kHz switching frequency is selected for better utilization and smaller circuit elements.

$$I_{in,peak(max)} = \frac{\sqrt{2}P_0}{\eta V_{in,rms(min)}} = \frac{\sqrt{2} \times 250W}{0.9 \times 85V} = 4.52 A \quad (3.25)$$

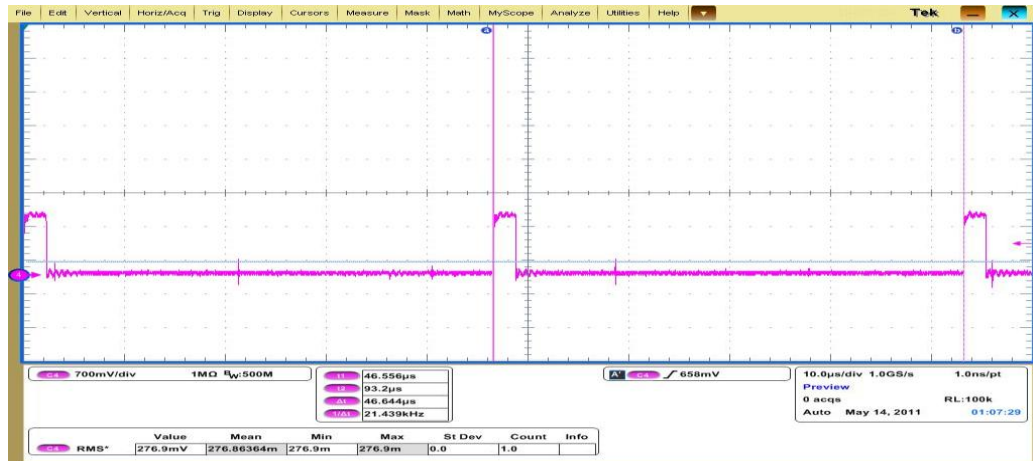


Figure 3.31 Switching frequency measurement

3) Selection of the boost inductor L: The boost inductor determines the high frequency ripple for the inductor current. Inductor is designed to handle maximum peak current and defined current ripple. First, the maximum peak current that occurs in operating at minimum input voltage has to be defined. The maximum input peak current $I_{in,peak(max)}$ is ;

The peak to peak ripple current is defined as 20% of the maximum input peak current. So the high frequency ripple current is:

$$\Delta I = 0.2 \times I_{in,peak(max)} = 0,9A \quad (3.26)$$

The value of the inductor is selected at the maximum input current and low input voltage with corresponding duty ratio, D.

$$D = \frac{V_0 - V_{in,peak(min)}}{V_0} = \frac{385 - \sqrt{2} \times 85}{385} = 0.69 \quad (3.27)$$

where D is the duty cycle, f_s is the switching frequency and I is the inductor current ripple. A 900 uH, ferrite core, high frequency inductor is used with 6-A current handling capacity.

$$L = \frac{V_{in,peak(min)} \times D}{f_s \times \Delta I} = \frac{120V \times 0.69}{100kHz \times 0.9A} = 0.9mH \quad (3.28)$$

4) Selection of the Output Capacitor C_0 : The capacitance and the rated voltage value should be designed according to predefined output voltage, output voltage ripple and hold-up time for the output voltage. Total current through the output capacitor is the rms value of the high frequency ripple current and second harmonic of the line current. The capacitor with voltage and current ratings greater than the normal operating point values with smaller ESR is selected. Hold-up time is the other selection criterion for the selection of the capacitance. Hold-up time is the length of the time where the output voltage remains within the specified range after input voltage is turned off. In this example hold-up time is selected as 20 ms. Calculating the capacitance is done according to the equation (3.29).

$$C_0 = \frac{2 \times P_0 \times \Delta t}{(V_0^2 - V_{0,min}^2)} = \frac{2 \times 250W \times 20ms}{(385^2 - 320^2)} = 200\mu F \quad (3.29)$$

where Δt is the hold-up time. 220 μ F, 450-V electrolytic capacitor with lower ESR is chosen for 385-V output voltage and 250-W output power.

5) Selection of the power switches elements, MOSFET and PFC diode: The selection of the switch elements, power switch and boost diode, depends on the voltage and current ratings, and switching losses. The power switch and diode should have sufficient operation ratings. Power losses should be considered while selecting power switch. Total power loss is the sum of the switching loss and conduction loss.

Choosing a switch with minimum gate charge and switch capacitance reduces the turn-on and turn-off losses. A small on-resistance will reduce the conduction losses. A power MOSFET with current rating higher than the maximum peak current of the inductor and voltage rating greater than the output voltage is chosen as power switch.

3.8 Experimental Results

The Boost converter has been designed to support general types of TV applications with up to 3 output voltages which can be selected by transformer design with adapted turn's ratio of each secondary winding. The first application that has been developed supports the most common application working with 5 V and 12 V, with 50 W continuous power, up to 70 W peak with up to 4 A on each of the 2 outputs. The third output could be used for a 24 V most likely dedicated to Audio amplifiers with lower current capability limited to 1 A or 2 A peak.

Connected to the auxiliary winding through R205, the ZCD / pin 1 detects the core reset event such that the controller will always drive the system with full demagnetization. The value of the small capacitor C210 (with both R205 and R211) will set the delay to switch by the minimum voltage and reduce as much as possible switching losses and EMI. This will be true even by the fourth valley when the output power is low.

Also, injecting a negative voltage smaller than 0.3 V on this pin during the conduction of the power MOS will perform over power protection defined by R206. The diode D203 allows both ZCD and OPP individual adjustment.

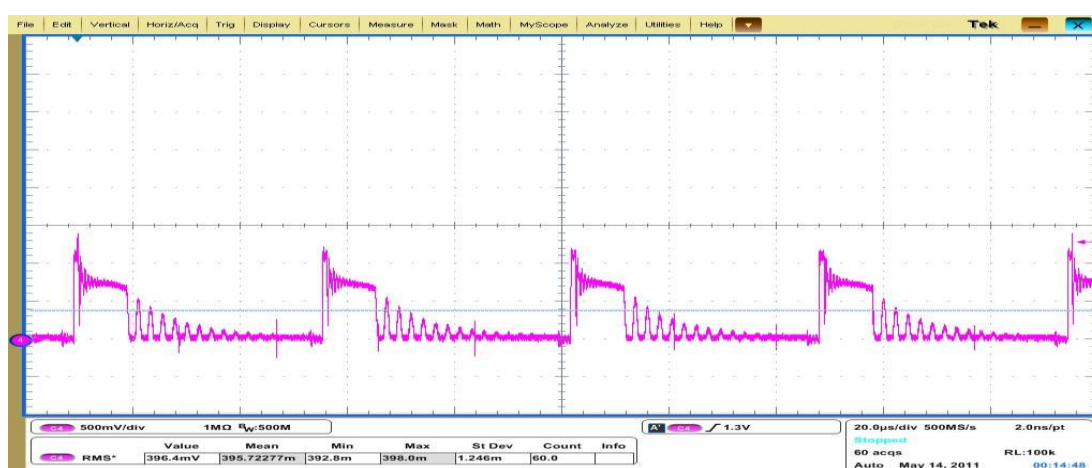


Figure 3.31 Experimental measurement of ZCD pin of IC NCP1379.

The secondary feedback opto coupler collector connected to the FB / pin 2 will allow regulation via primary current regulation, lower voltage on this pin will immediately reduce the output power.

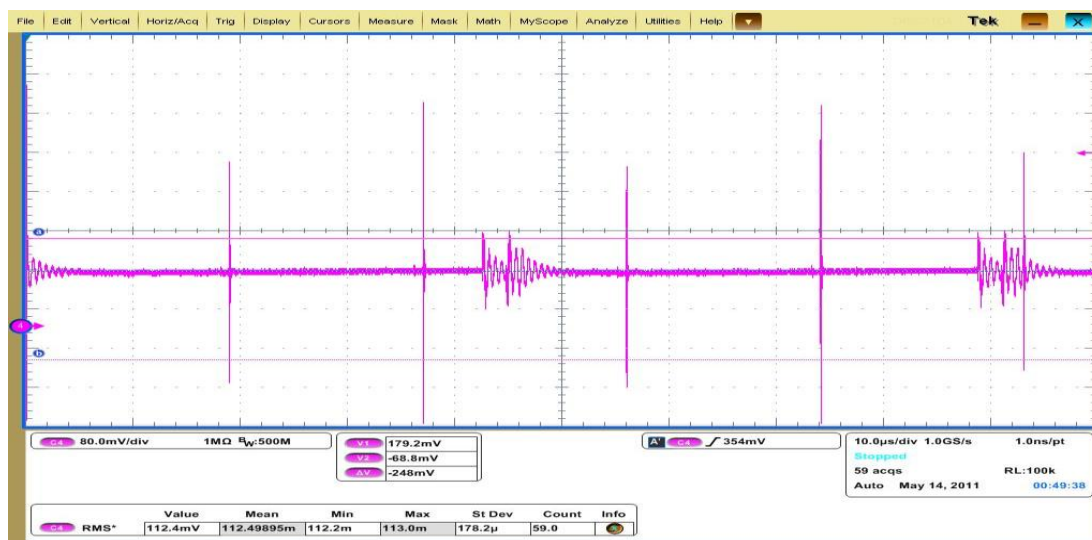


Figure 3.32 Experimental measurement of FB pin of IC NCP1379.

The CS / pin 3 monitors the primary peak current going through the Power MOS Q203 and the primary of the transformer. If the first level of 0.8 V limits the current cycle by cycle and start the internal timer, the second level of 1.2 V (150%) will switch OFF immediately and latch the IC as this is the result of strong secondary diode short circuit. The GND / pin 4 is connected to the primary ground.

The DRV / pin 5 is the driver's output which directly drives the gate of external Power MOS Q203. Although the IC is designed to directly drive large Power MOS, an added external PNP transistor Q204 is used to reduce current loop and possible EMI related to the high di/dt necessary to switch OFF the Power MOS in a small amount of time.

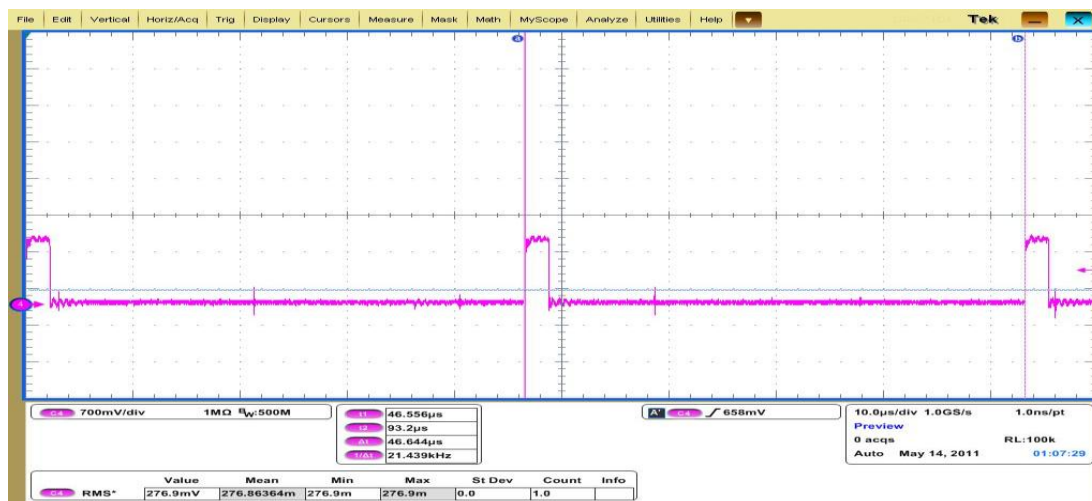


Figure 3.33 Experimental measurement of DRV pin of IC NCP1379

The Vcc / pin 6 is the supply pin of the IC connected to the general supply Vcc4 through a dedicated filter (R209), after standby switch Q101 with energy coming from Standby (Vcc1) or Boost (Vcc3) SMPS.

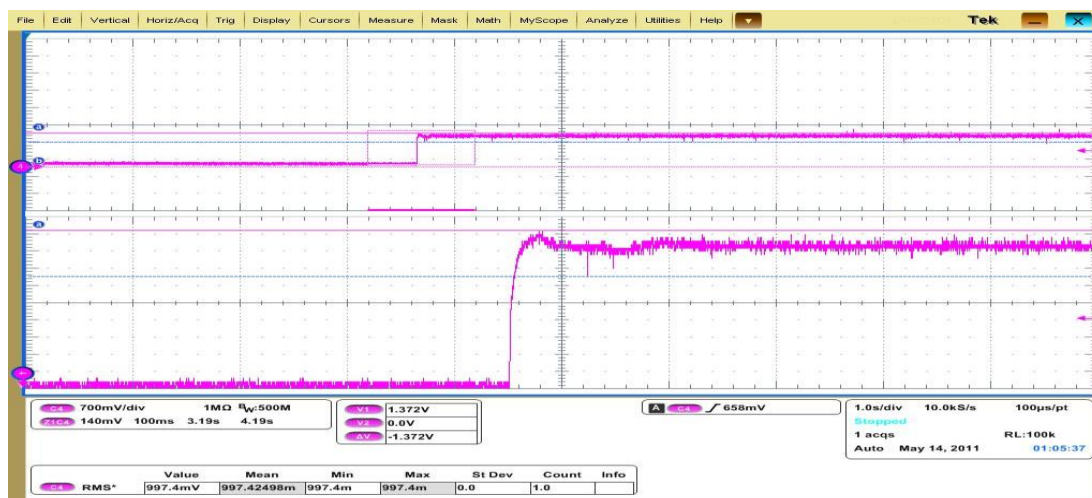


Figure 3.34 Experimental measurement of Vcc pin of IC NCP1379

To avoid direct impact of output power through leakage inductance on the primary auxiliary voltage Vcc3, a large resistance R207 has been inserted in series to the rectifier diode to get the closest voltage to the plateau which is the image from output regulated voltage. This voltage Vcc3 is also used to detect over voltage and acts to latch the IC through the BO pin protection.

The BO / pin 7 observes the HV rail or the voltage coming from PFC OK (through the divider R203 and R214) to allow starting phase only when PFC-OUT supply line is correct. It also offers a way to latch the circuit in case of over voltage event through the diode D206 when the zener diode ZD200 is switch ON (Open regulation loop protection) and provide 2.5 V to pin 7.

A capacitor connected to the CT / pin 8 acts as the timing capacitor in foldback mode and adjusts the frequency in VCO mode. As for general Boost application, a voltage clamp is used to reduce the Max voltage on the Power MOS linked to the leakage inductance of the transformer. To avoid over temperature, up to 3 power resistances R200, R251 and R252 can be used.

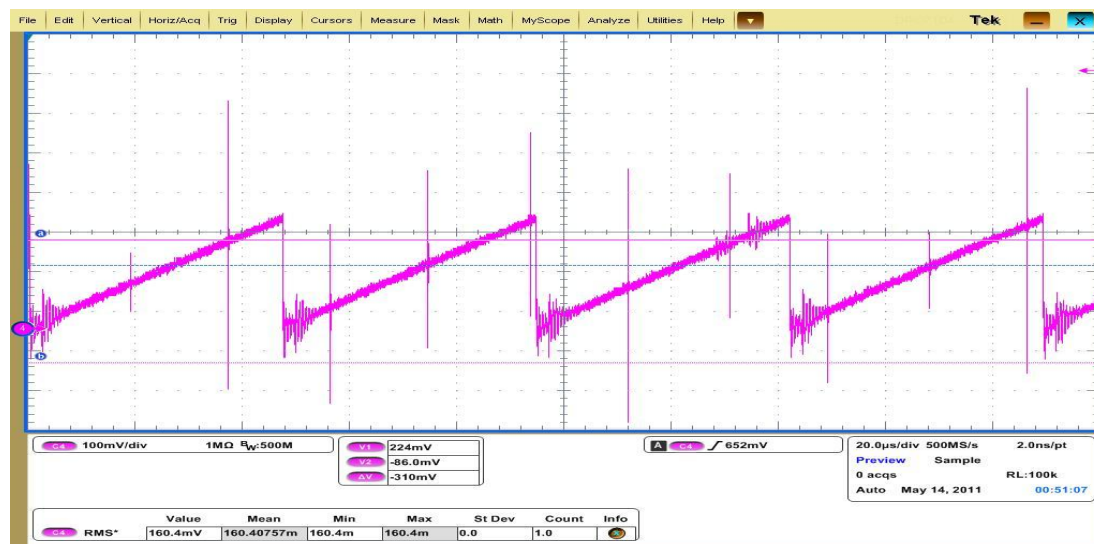


Figure 3.35 Experimental measurement of CT pin of IC NCP1379

3.9 Summary

The average current mode control PFC circuit is analyzed theoretically and simulation and experimental results are verified. It is shown that the average current mode control seems attractive for active power factor correction circuit. However, there is too much design procedure making the system complex. Also the number of elements used in the circuit is high. In the following chapters, another active PFC control method will be analyzed and verified experimentally.

CHAPTER FOUR
FREQUENCY CLAMPED CRITICAL CONDUCTION MODE
CONTROL OF PFC

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, firstly the analysis of single-phase active power factor correction circuit operated in the critical conduction mode is presented. The critical conduction mode is also called as boundary conduction mode or transition mode control. The word “boundary” comes from the operation characteristics of the proposed control method. In the boundary conduction mode control (BCM), the inductor current operates at the boundary of continuous conduction mode (CCM) and discontinuous conduction mode (DCM). After that in section 4.5 gives detail information about interleaving method which operates frequency clamped critical conduction mode (FCCrM). (Balogh L. & Redl R. Power-factor correction with interleaved boost converters in continuous inductor current mode. In: Proc IEEE APEC’93 conf, San Diego, CA; March 1993. p. 168–74.)

Critical conduction mode operation is the most popular solution for the low power applications due to the following reasons:

- ❖ The control topology needs few external components and serves simple design process
- ❖ Low cost solution to achieve near unity power factor application
- ❖ Smaller magnetic element sizes due to the CCM operation
- ❖ Lower switching losses and stress on the power switch elements in the application.

- ❖ The power switch turns-on at zero current and the reverse recovery loss of the boost diode is minimized.

However, the switching frequency of the boundary conduction mode is not constant and varies over a line cycle. The switching frequency at the zero crossing of the line is higher in contrary, lower in the peak of the line cycle. So this large switching frequency variation causes distortions in the input current. Because the inductor current peak value is twice of the input current peak value, boundary conduction mode is not suitable for high power applications.

This chapter describes the basics of a PFC boost converter operating at the critical conduction mode. Operation principle and derivation of circuit parameters are discussed. Steady-state characteristics, switching frequency derivation, input and inductor current properties are explained throughout the chapter. Simulation and experimental results are verified and compared.

4.2 Operation of Critical Conduction Mode

PFC boost converter such as in average current mode control is used to analyze the basics of the critical conduction mode. A typical critical conduction mode control is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

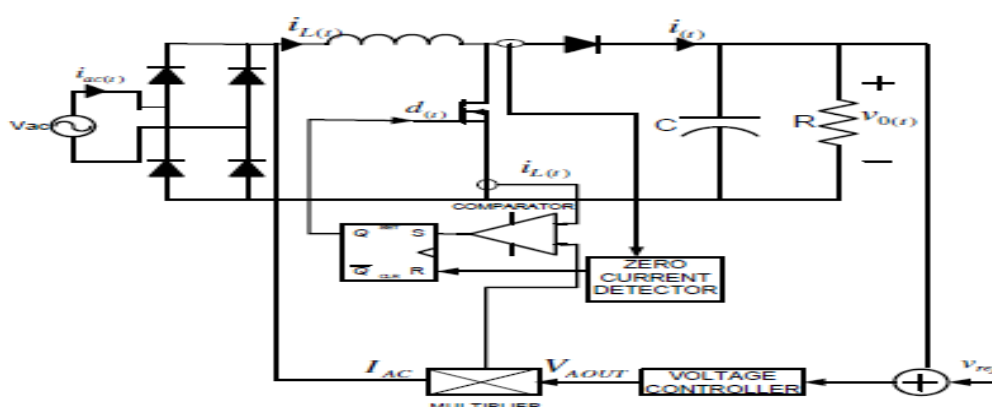


Figure 4.1 Block diagram of a BCM boost converter.

The reference current is obtained by the same method as in the average current mode control scheme. The sensed sinusoidal waveform is multiplied with the output

of the voltage error amplifier and required current reference is built. The switch current is sensed. The power switch is turned on when the inductor current drops to zero. The power switch is turned off when the inductor current reaches the reference current.

Thus inductor current has a triangular waveshape with a sinusoidal envelope. An input filter capacitor is used to average the triangular waveshape thus providing a sinusoidal input current. The resulting waveforms of inductor current i_L , averaged input current i_{AC} and reference current i_{REF} are shown for a half line cycle in Figure 4.2.

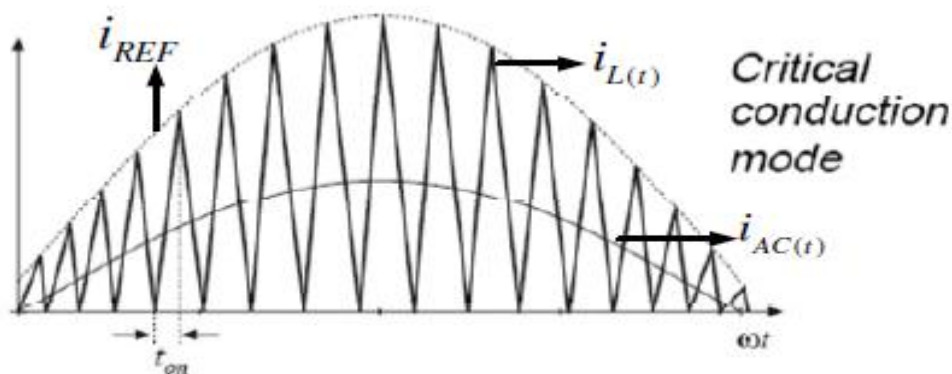


Figure 4.2 Current waveforms during half of an AC line cycle

In critical conduction mode, boost converter operates in two modes. The inductor current builds up linearly with the slope (V_{in}/L) during on time. Theoretically, the on-time duration of the power switch is constant. However, due to finite switching frequency, the switch on time varies throughout the entire cycle. Second mode begins with the turning-off of the power switch. The inductor current decreases linearly with the slope $(V_0 - V_{in} / L)$. This switching sequence repeats at every zero crossing of the inductor current. So the inductor current is zero when the switch is turned on. This provides a zero current turn-on, hence minimizes the switching losses. These conduction modes are illustrated in Figure 4.3.

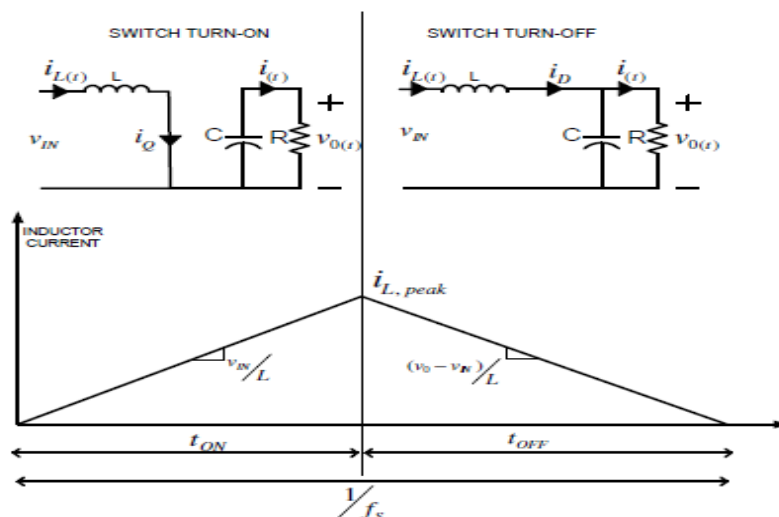


Figure 4.3 Switching sequences of PFC Stage

The critical conduction mode control eliminates the inner current controller. A simple on-off control with a zero current detector block is enough to implement a boundary conduction mode control. In addition only switch current is sensed.

As a result, the inductor peak current is twice of the line peak current at the boundary conduction mode. This control topology requires smaller boost inductor but requires input filtering capacitor to smooth the current and minimize the EMI. Design procedure is simple and low cost. It is suitable for low power applications due to higher peak currents and variable switching frequency. (Elmore MS. "Input current ripple cancellation in synchronized, parallel connected critically continuous boost converters". In: Proc IEEE APEC'96 conf, San Jose, CA; March 1996. p. 152 8.)

4.3 Analysis of Switching Characteristics Critical Conduction Mode

In this section, steady-state characteristics, switching-on and -off time, duty cycle, switching frequency and their dependency on ac input voltage and power level are discussed.

The BCM boost converter operates as a power factor pre-regulator so the input voltage and input current of the system have sinusoidal waveform without any

displacement. Thus the sinusoidal equations for the input voltage $V_{in}(t)$ and input current $I_{in}(t)$ can be expressed as follows:

$$V_{in}(t) = \sqrt{2} \times V_{in,rms} \times \sin(\omega t) \quad (4.1)$$

And

$$I_{in}(t) = \sqrt{2} \times I_{in,rms} \times \sin(\omega t) \quad (4.2)$$

The operation of the BCM control is explained in section 4.2. Actual and averaged inductor currents with corresponding gate signals are illustrated in Figure 4.4.

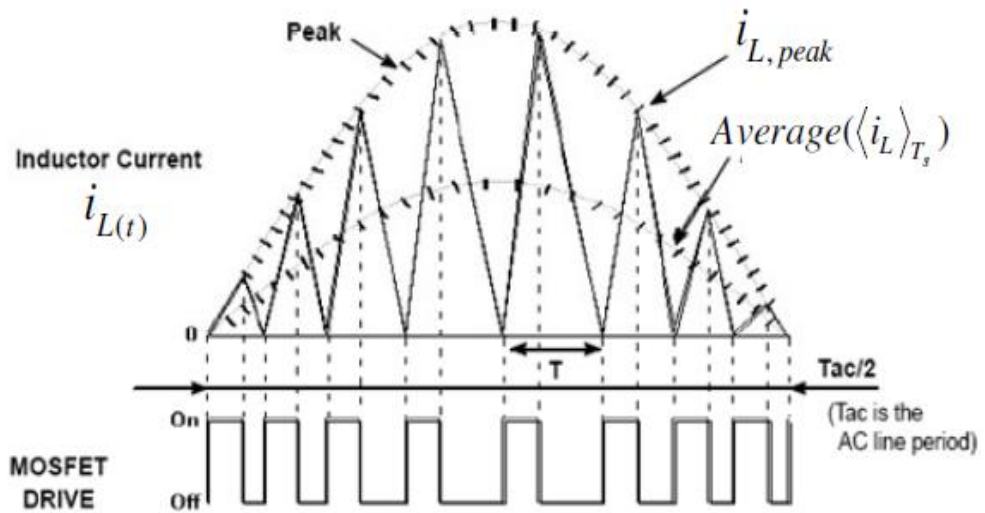


Figure 4.4 Inductor Current and Corresponding Gate Signals

The input current I_{in} is equal to the averaged inductor current I_L that is half of the peak value of the inductor current $I_{L,peak}$.

$$I_{in}(t) = \langle I_L \rangle_{T_s} = \frac{I_{L,peak}}{2} \quad (4.3)$$

where T_s is the switching period. So peak inductor current can be written by using equation (4.4) as:

$$I_{in}(t) = 2 \times \sqrt{2} \times I_{in,rms} \times \sin(\omega t) \quad (4.4)$$

The basic input power definition can be used for the derivation of the peak inductor current. The averaged input power is equal to the product of the rms values of the input voltage and current. Averaged input power can be expressed as:

$$\langle P_{in} \rangle_{TS} = V_{in,rms} \times I_{in,rms} \quad (4.5)$$

Peak inductor current is a function of averaged power and rms value of input voltage

$$I_{L,peak} = 2 \times \sqrt{2} \times \frac{\langle P_{in} \rangle}{V_{in,rms}} \times \sin(\omega t) \quad (4.6)$$

The BCM converter operates with variable switching frequency as illustrated in Figure 4.3. As already stated, the inductor current consists of two phases. During the on time of the power switch, the inductor voltage is equal to the input voltage and inductor current increases with a V_{in}/L slope. The inductor current in the on time can be expressed as:

$$I_L(t) = \frac{V_{in}(t)}{L} \times t \quad (4.7)$$

At the end of the on-time duration, the inductor current I_L is equal to the peak inductor current $I_{L,peak}$. Thus

$$I_{L,peak} = \frac{V_{in}(t)}{L} \times t_{on} \quad (4.8)$$

The on time is then expressed by using equation (4.1) and (4.6) as:

$$t_{on} = \frac{I_{L,peak} \times L}{V_{in}(t)} = \frac{2 \times \sqrt{2} \times \frac{\langle P_{in} \rangle}{V_{in,rms}} \times \sin(\omega t) \times L}{\sqrt{2} \times V_{in,rms} \times \sin(\omega t)} = \frac{2 \times \langle P_{in} \rangle \times L}{V_{in,rms}^2} \quad (4.9)$$

It is clear from equation (4.9) that, the on time t_{on} is constant during line cycle. The on-time duration depends on power level, inductance and input rms voltage. The

off time duration can be explained by using the second phase of the inductor current. During this second phase, inductor current flows through the output diode and feeds the output capacitor and load.

The inductor voltage becomes negative and inductor current decreases with a linear $(V_0 - V_{in})/L$ slope. The inductor current is equal to the peak value at the beginning of the off-time duration and drops to zero at the end of this second phase. The variation in the inductor current in the second phase can be written as:

$$I_L(t) = I_{L,peak} - \left[\frac{V_0 - V_{in}(t)}{L} \times t \right] \quad (4.10)$$

This second phase ends when the inductor current reaches zero, and the off time is given by the following equation:

$$t_{off} = \frac{I_{L,peak} \times L}{V_0 - V_{in}(t)} = \frac{2 \times \sqrt{2} \times \frac{\langle P_{in} \rangle}{V_{in,rms}} \times \sin(\omega t) \times L}{V_0 - \sqrt{2} \times V_{in,rms} \times \sin(\omega t)} \quad (4.11)$$

Off-time duration is not constant and varies during each half cycle. Total switching period is the sum of t_{on} and t_{off} . Thus

$$T_s = t_{on} + t_{off} \quad (4.12)$$

The equation for the switching period T_s can be expressed by using equation (4.1) and (4.6) as:

$$T_s = 2 \times L = \frac{\langle P_{in} \rangle \times V_0}{V_{in,rms}^2 \times (V_0 - V_{in}(t))} \quad (4.13)$$

Thus the switching frequency f_s is the inverse of the switching period T_s .

Consequently,

$$f_s = \frac{V_{in,rms}^2}{2 \times L \times \langle P_{in} \rangle} \times \left[1 - \frac{\sqrt{2} \times V_{in,rms} \times \sin(\omega t)}{V_0} \right] \quad (4.14)$$

This equation shows that, the switching frequency consists of a constant component that has a value dependent on the operating point and a variable component that makes the switching frequency vary within AC line cycle. The following figure illustrates the variations of the switching frequency within a half AC line cycle.

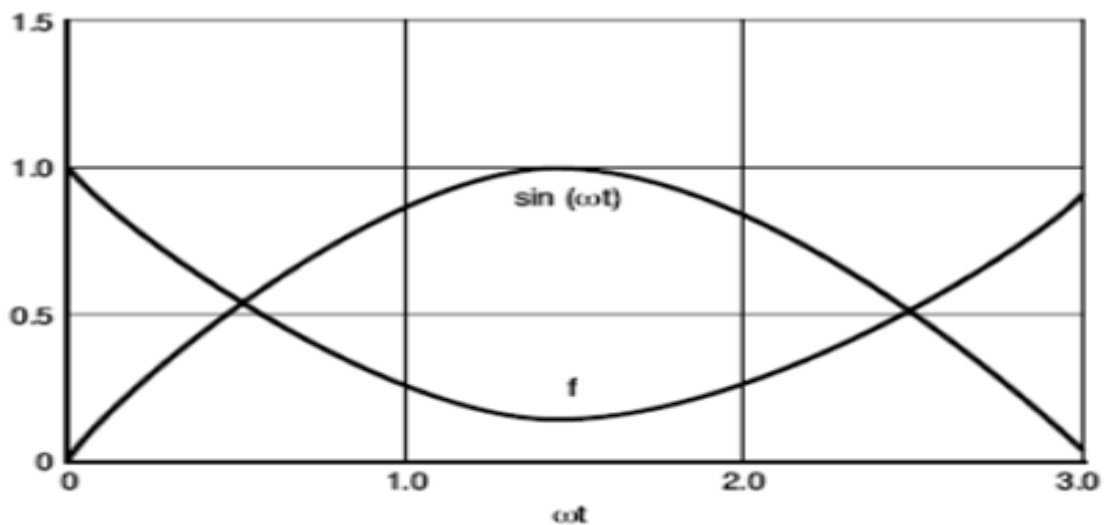


Figure 4.5 Switching frequency over the AC line cycle

The switching frequency is high near the zero crossings of the line cycle where the inductor current has lower amplitude. Besides, the switching frequency is approximately divided by five at the top of the sinusoid, where the inductor current has higher amplitude. In actual implementation, the rectified input voltage is filtered with a high frequency AC capacitor to provide a clean reference waveform. The output voltage error amplifier determines the amplitude of the current reference.

The turn-on time is controlled by the comparison of the reference and the actual inductor current. The power switch is turned on when the actual inductor current drops to zero and turned off when actual inductor current reaches the reference. In the next section, computer simulation analysis of a CCM converter will be verified.

4.4 Simulation of Critical Conduction Mode PFC

Single-phase critical conduction mode controlled PFC circuit is simulated by SIMPLORER simulation tool and simulation results are verified. The simulated circuit and control blocks are shown in Figure 4.6.

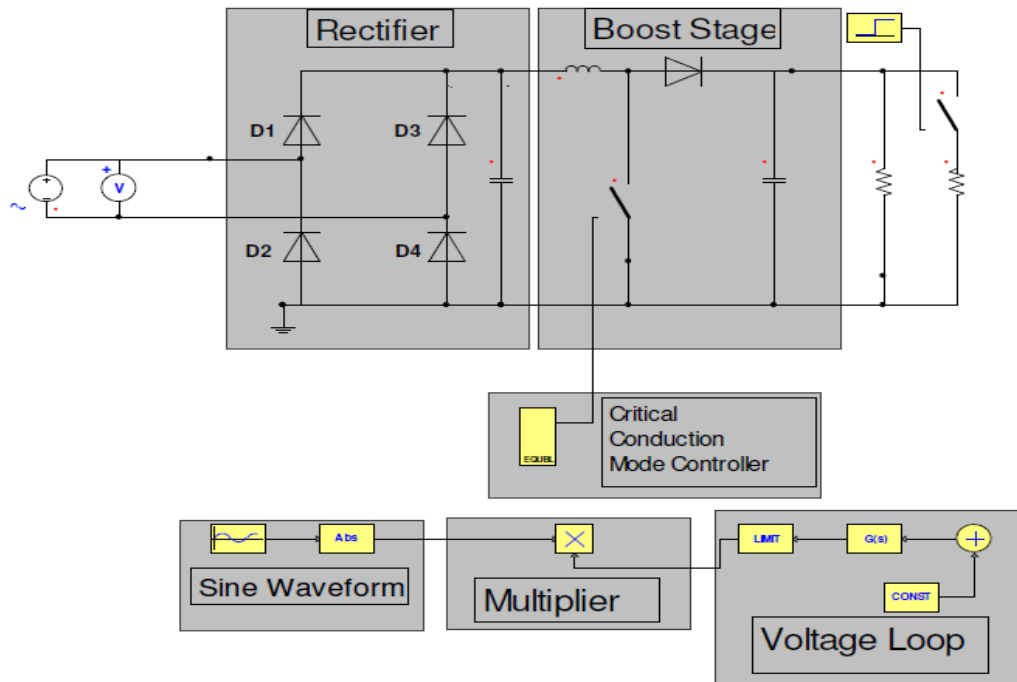


Figure 4.6 Block diagram of simulation circuit

Computer simulation of critical conduction mode control is used for the analysis of circuit parameters and waveforms at different operating points. The input current, inductor current, switching signals and output voltage waveforms are illustrated and analyzed. The current waveform behavior for different input voltages and the output voltage differences at step load conditions are verified. The circuit is simulated with the following simulation parameters given in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Simulation parameters of critical conduction mode PFC

Output Power, P0	150 W
Input Voltage, Vin	90-265V
Input Voltage Frequency	50Hz
Switching Frequency	Variable
Output Voltage, V0	400V
Boost Inductor, L	0.8mH
Output Capacitor, C0	330uF
Integration Formula	Euler
Minimum Step Time	0.1u

The output voltage controller is a low bandwidth voltage error amplifier that is built with s-transfer function block in the simulation tool. The crossover frequency of the voltage controller is chosen as 20 Hz. A 400-V reference voltage is used in the comparator at the input of the voltage error amplifier. There is no inner current controller in the critical conduction mode control. Simply an on-off control is applied in the simulation tool. Inductor current is compared with the switch current. (Lee PW., Lee YS., Cheng DKW., & Liu XC.” Steady-state analysis of an interleaved boost converter with coupled inductors”. IEEE Trans Ind Electron 2000;47(4):787–95.)

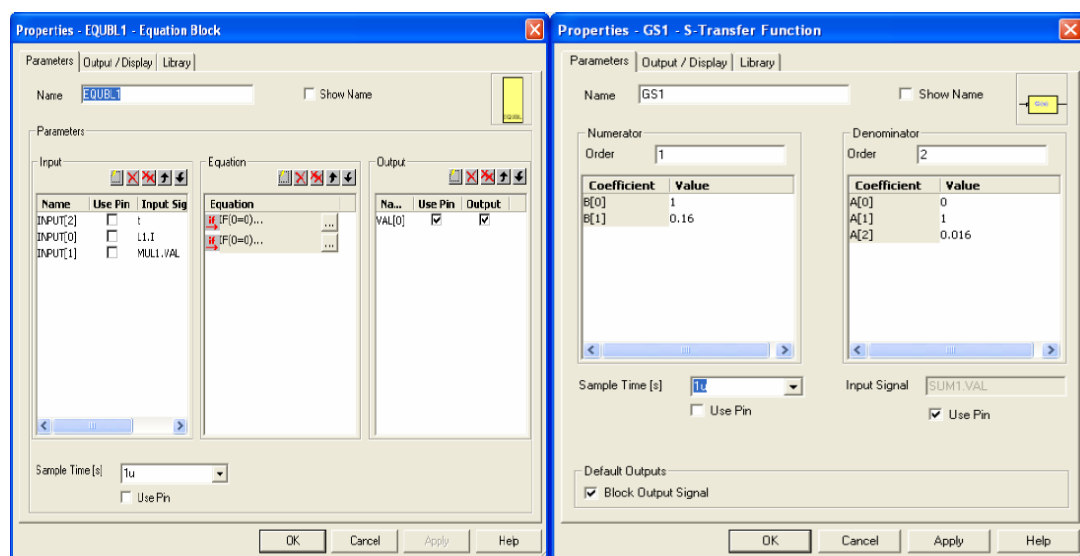


Figure 4.7 S-Transfer function for the voltage and current controller used in simulation

The control algorithm for this type of control is realized by using equation block tool in the simulation. The voltage controller s-transfer function block (GS1) and current control equation block (EQUBL1) are shown in Figure 4.7.

The circuit is simulated for 220 Vac input voltage and 150 W output power. The input voltage, and generated inductor current reference and the actual inductor current waveforms are illustrated in Figure 4.8. The corresponding input current is shown in Figure 4.9.

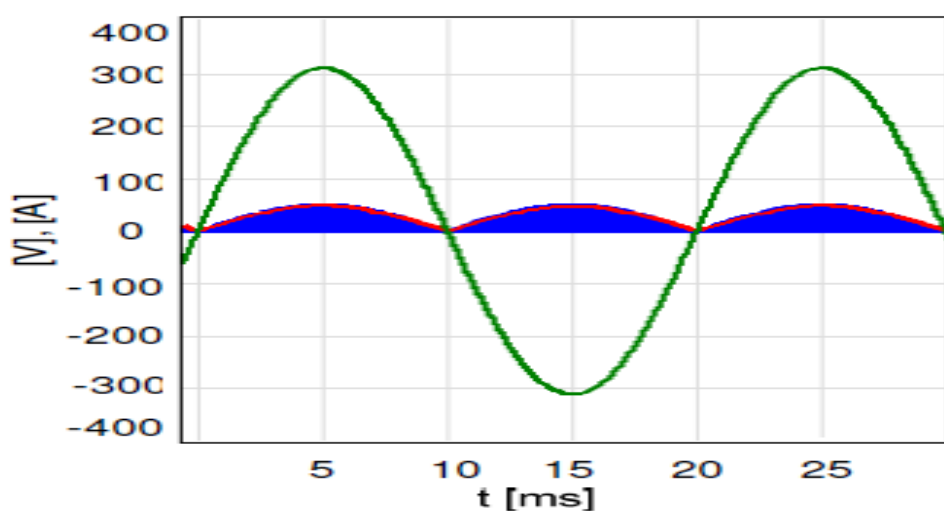


Figure 4.8 Line voltage, reference inductor current and actual inductor currentsimulation waveforms for 220 V input voltage at 150 W PFC (current scale: 40x).

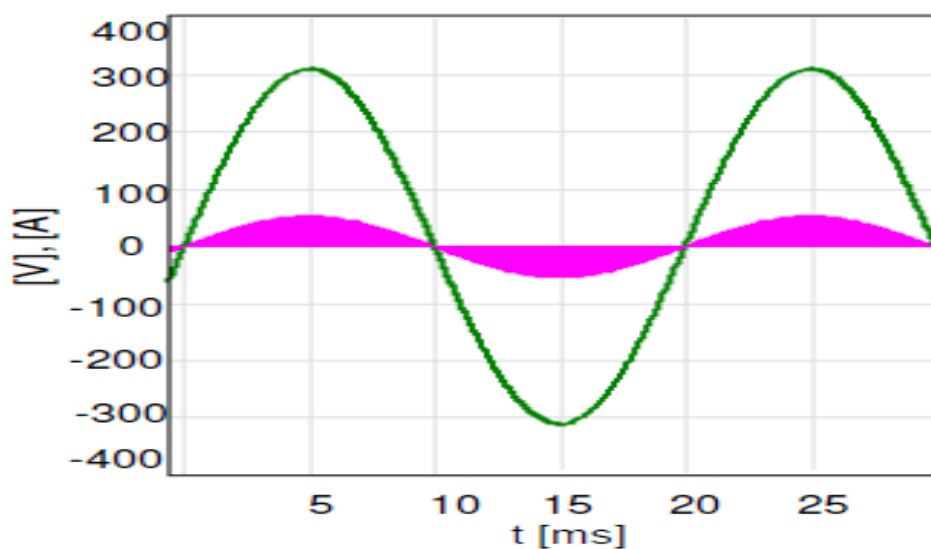


Figure 4.9 Line voltage and input current simulation waveforms for 220 V input voltage at 150 W PFC system (current scale: 40x).

The output voltage reference is set to 400 Vdc level. The output voltage waveform at steady state with the input current is illustrated in Figure 4.10.

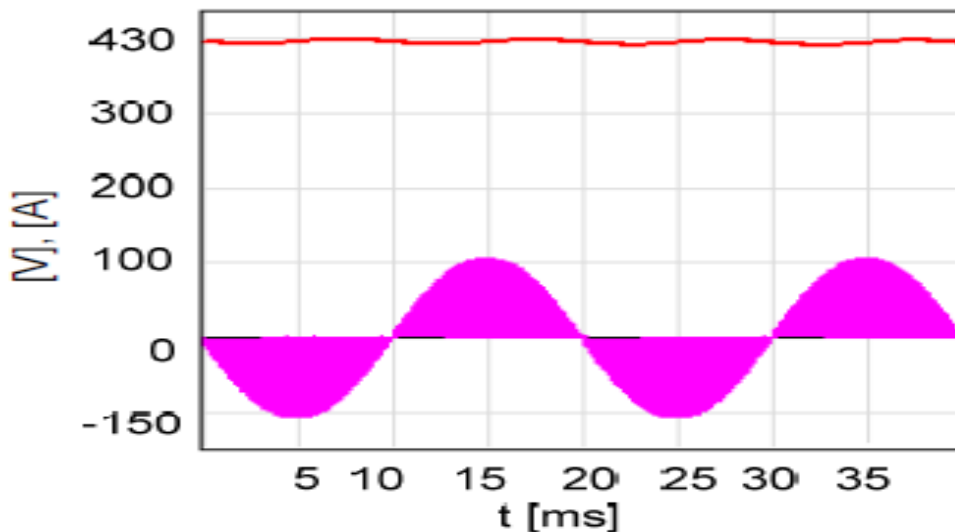


Figure 4.10 Output voltage and input current simulation waveforms for 220 V input voltage at 150 W PFC system (current scale: 100x).

The transient response for the output voltage at the start-up and step load response are verified in the simulation. The load is increased at steady state and corresponding output voltage waveform is illustrated in Figure 4.11.

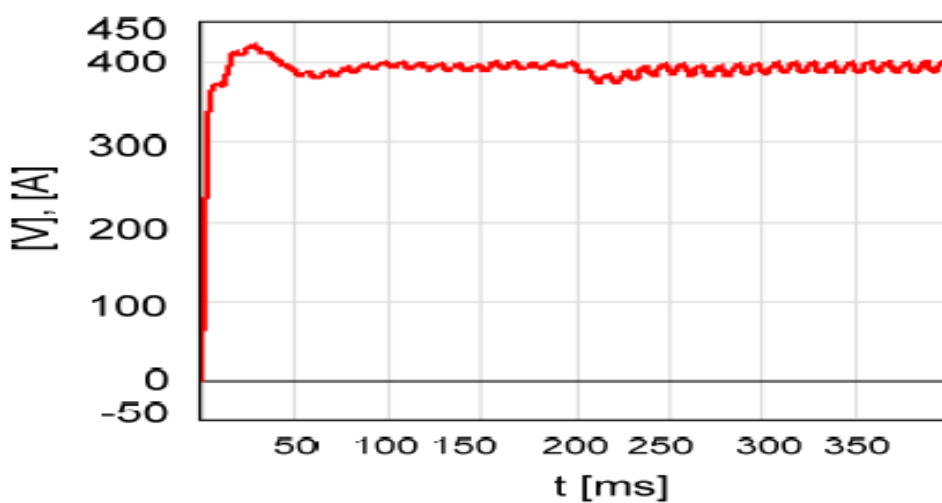


Figure 4.11 Transient response for output voltage simulation waveforms for 220 V input voltage at start-up and half-load to full-load step.

4.5 Operation Interleaved PFC System

In high power applications, interleaved operation (the parallel connection of switching converters) of two or more boost converters has been proposed to increase the output power and to reduce the output ripple. This technique consists of a phase shifting of the control signals of several cells in parallel operating at the same switching frequency.

As a result, the input and output current waveforms exhibit lower ripple amplitude and smaller harmonics content than in synchronous operation modes. The resulting cancellation of low-frequency harmonics allows the reduction of size and losses of the filtering stages. Moreover, a converter employing the interleaving strategy can feature a great power density without the penalty of reduced power-conversion efficiency.

However, current sharing among the parallel paths in continuous inductor current and at average current control is a major design problem because of the mismatch in duty cycle. (Braga HAC., & Barbi I. A “3-kW unity-power-factor rectifier based on a two-cell boost converter using a new parallel-connection technique”. IEEE Trans Power Electron 1999;14(1):209–17.)

Higher power density and faster transient response can be achieved by increasing switching frequency. In Figure 4.12 a general structure for an N-phase interleaved boost converter is given. Mathematically there is no limit for the number of interleaved power branches. But, in practice as the phase number increases, the system complexity increases and maintenance becomes difficult.

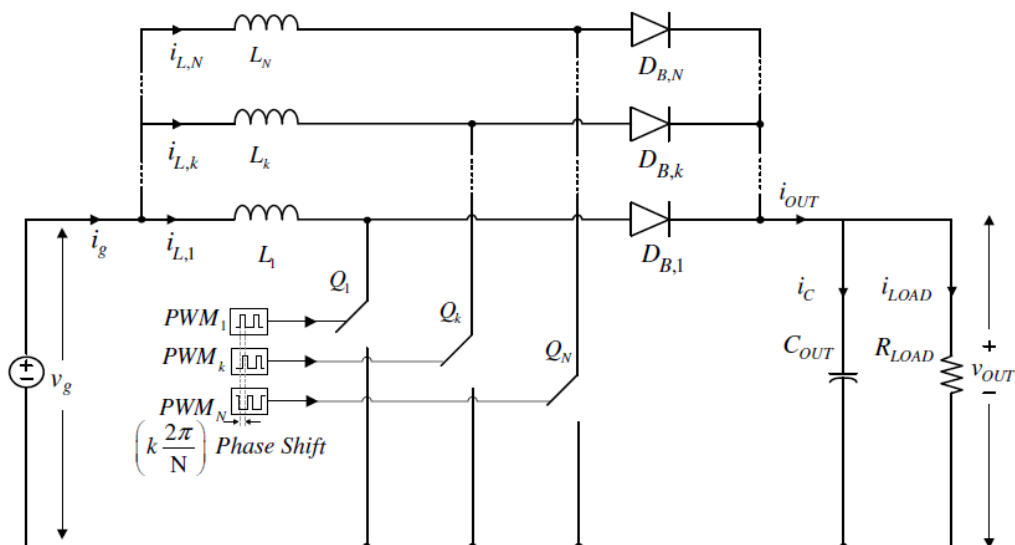


Figure 4.12 N-Phase interleaved boost converter.

Higher switching frequency causes increase in switching losses and a serious electromagnetic interference (EMI) problem in hard switched PWM converters. The switching losses of the boost switches make a significant amount of power dissipation. Therefore, the switching losses of the converter should be minimized to increase the efficiency and power density by using soft switching techniques. These techniques are implemented by passive or active snubber circuits.

Various kinds of soft switching techniques have been proposed in the literature to minimize switching losses of the boost converters. Converters operating at soft switching with passive snubbers are attractive, since there is no need for extra active switches and also the control scheme is simpler. The main problem with these kinds of converters is that the voltage stresses on the power switches are too high and the converter is bulky. The study presented in is an example for this type application in which the active power switches of the converter are turned on at zero voltage switching by which the switching losses are reduced. The auxiliary inductor used in this circuit is very big (nearly half of the main inductors) and this results in a bulky circuit.

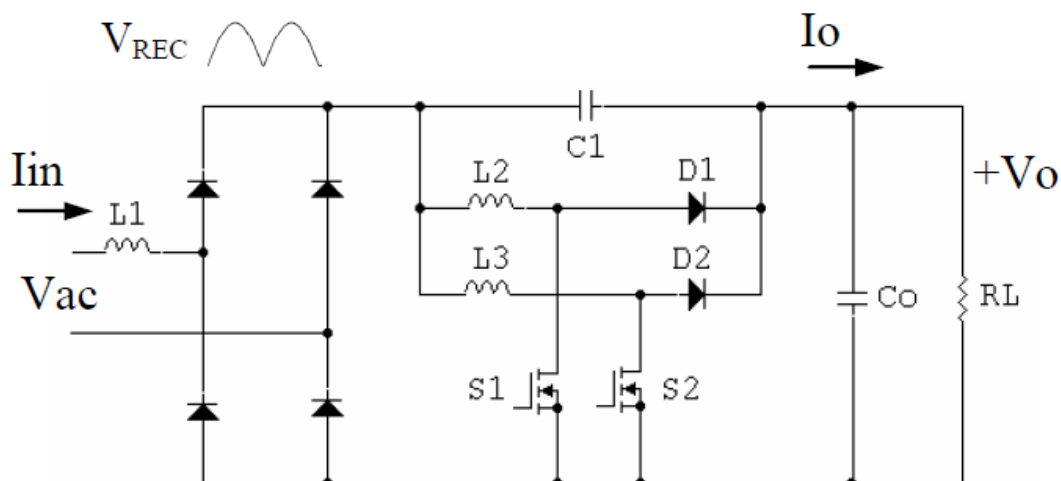


Figure 4.13 The scheme of controller power stage of the proposed topology

Active auxiliary snubbers are also developed to reduce switching losses of boost and interleaved boost converters without having the disadvantages of passive auxiliary circuits. These active snubbers have additional gate circuits for the auxiliary switches to generate their gate pulses and to synchronize them with the main switch.

4.6 Interleaved PFC Technique Analysis of Switching Characteristics

By using the segmentation, phase shifting and merging principles, the output power level is possible to be increased without sacrificing the converter efficiency, as well as high power density can be obtained due to small inductance values with lower operating frequency can be utilized with no penalty in term of input and output current stresses. Moreover, minimum external heatsink and a simple controller in CCM operation can be achieved. Fig. 4 shows a two-cell structure where capacitor C1 can be used together.

Consequently, smaller current stress of this capacitor normally is reduced, as can be seen in Fig. 4(c). It is clear that the interleaving technique also allows significant reduction for inductor L1 without introducing electromagnetic interference (EMI) problem, as shown in Fig. 4(b).

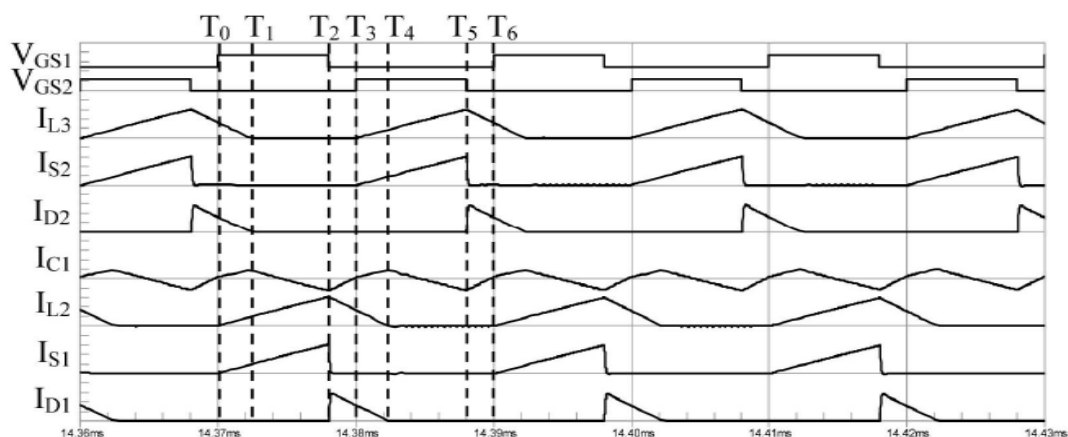


Fig 4.14 Proposed interleaved PFC boost converter system and the operation waveforms

In principle, the switching cycle of the proposed interleaved boost PFC converter system can be divided into six stages:

Stage I:

During interval T_0 -- T_1 , in steady state operation, switch S_1 is on, switch S_2 and diode D_1 are off, and diode D_2 is on. Diode D_2 releases the energy stored in L_3 to the load, and inductor current I_{L2} increases linearly. At the same time, the current flows directly from input to the load through inductor L_1 , diode rectifier and capacitor C_1 . There is a very small voltage drop across inductor L_1 due to zeroripple phenomenon. The voltage stress across C_1 is $V_{C1} = V_O - V_{REC}$

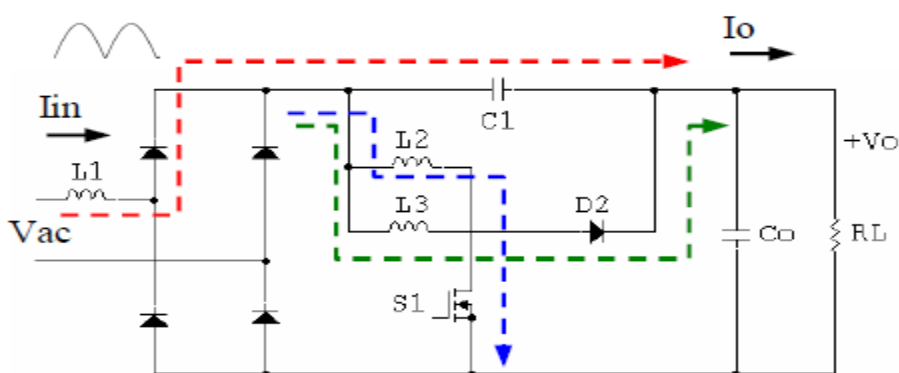


Fig 4.15 Interval T_0 — T_1

Stage II:

During interval $T_1 -- T_2$, due to the CCM operation, there is no energy stored in L_3 . Therefore, diode D_2 is off. In this condition, the energy stored in C_1 is discharged to the load through L_2 and S_1 .

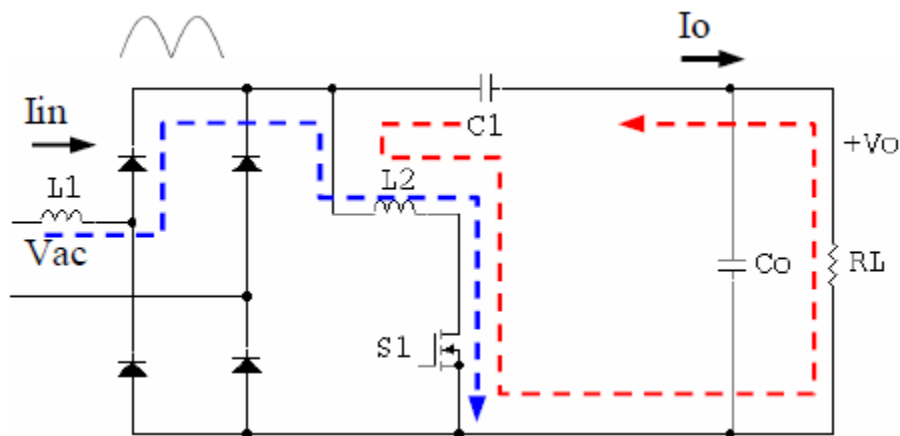


Fig 4.16 Interval T_1--T_2

Stage III:

During interval $T_2 -- T_3$, switch S_1 is off and diode D_1 is forward biased. Thus, the energy stored in inductor L_2 is transferred to the load through diode D_1 . At the same time, the current flows directly from input to the load through inductor L_1 and capacitor C_1 . Hence, C_1 is charged, and $I_{L1} = I_o$.

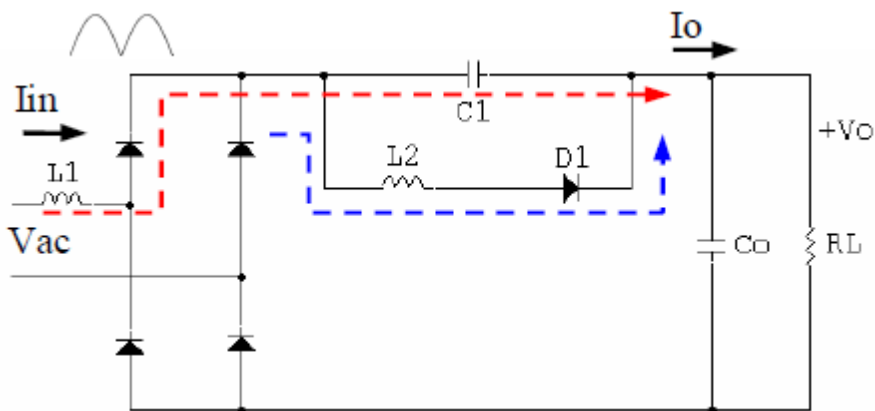


Fig 4.17 Interval T_2--T_3

Stage IV:

During interval T_3 -- T_4 , due to the phase shifting principle, switch S_2 is on, switch S_1 and diode D_2 are off, and diode D_1 is on. In this condition, the current flows from input to L_1 , L_3 and S_2 . Also, the energy stored in L_2 is delivered to the load through diode D_1 . Therefore, inductor current I_{L2} decreases linearly and inductor current I_{L3} increases linearly, but inductor current I_{L1} is always continuous and operates in zero-ripple fashion. At the same time, the current flows directly from input to the load through inductor L_1 and capacitor C_1 . Consequently, capacitor C_1 is charged.

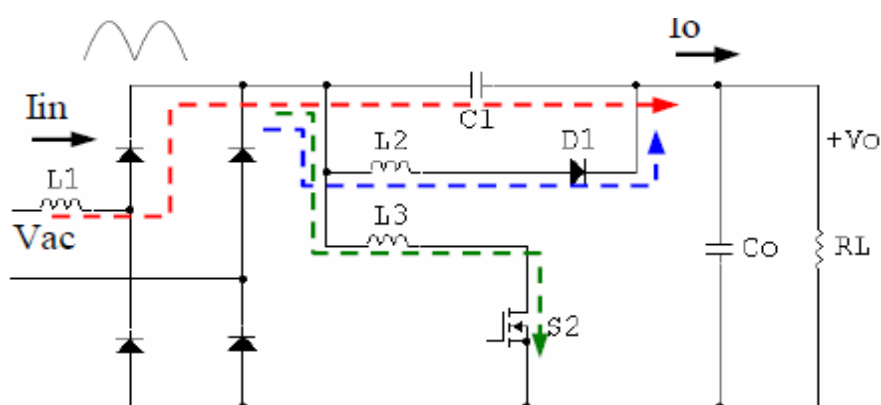


Fig 4.18 Interval T_3 — T_4

Stage V:

During interval T_4 -- T_5 , due to the DCM operation, the inductor current I_{L2} reaches zero at $T = T_4$. It causes diode D_1 off. Switch S_2 is on until $T = T_5$. At the same time, the energy stored in capacitor C_1 is discharged to the load through inductor L_3 and switch S_2 .

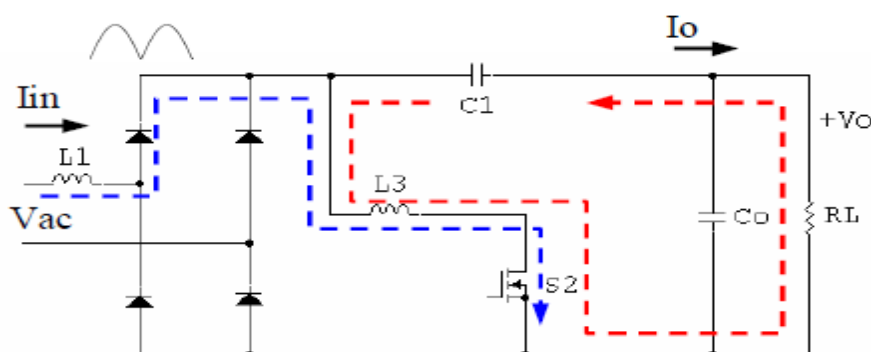


Fig 4.19 Interval T_4 — T_5

Stage VI:

During interval T_5 -- T_6 , switch S_2 is off, switch S_1 and diode D_1 are off, and diode D_2 is on. Thus, the energy stored in inductor L_3 is transferred to the load through diode D_2 . In this condition, the current also flows from input to the load through inductor L_1 and capacitor C_1 . This causes capacitor C_1 is charged again and inductor current $I_{L1} = I_o$. In this case, the current flows from the ac line through inductor L_1 .

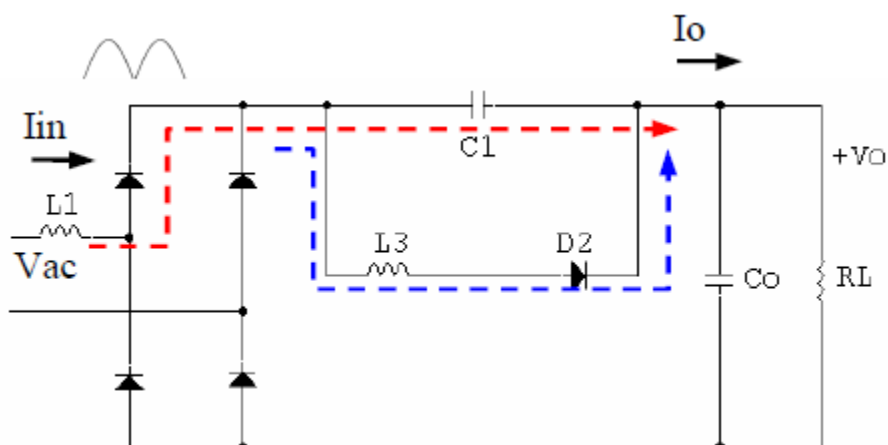


Fig 4.20 Interval T_5 — T_6

It is interesting that the characteristics of the proposed interleaved boost PFC converter system not only ripple-free input current with separate inductors can be obtained, but also the energy transfer mechanism occurs during the main switch both on and off.

4.7 Simulation of Interleaved PFC

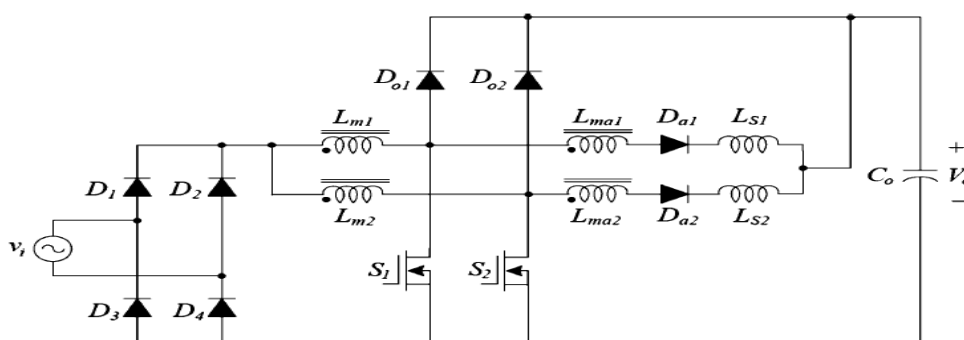


Fig 4.21 Circuit Schematic

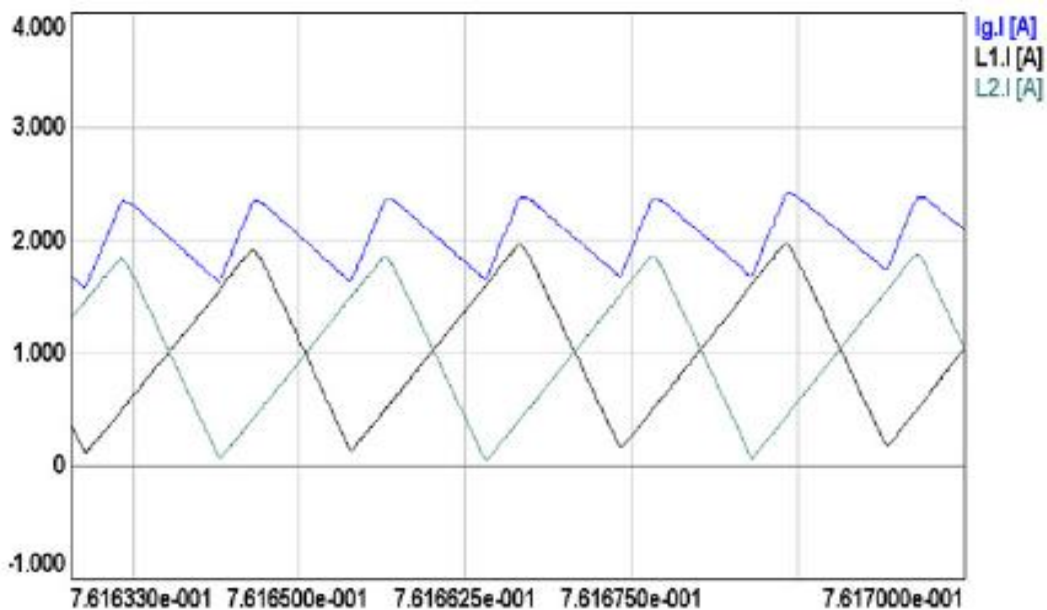


Fig 4.22 Simulation results of $iL1-iL2-ig$ (for $V=230V$)

Figure 4.22 and Figure 4.23 are full load at low line and highline voltage. As expected, the input current has the shape of a CCM current. At low line and high line, the phase shift is well controlled and is 180° . Each branch operates in CRM at low line and in DCM fixed frequency at high line which is called FCCrM structure.

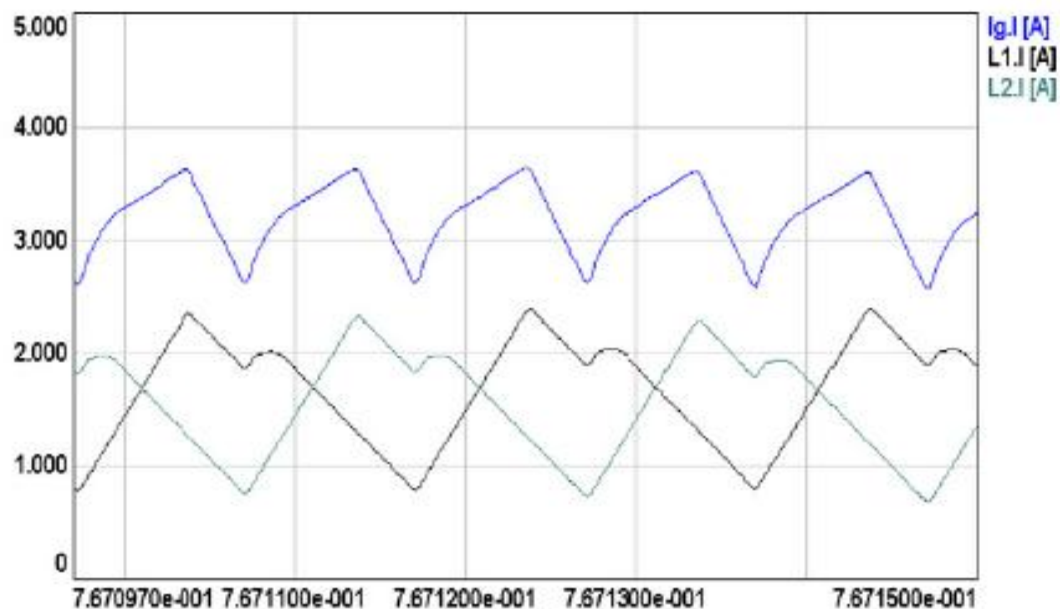


Fig 4.23 Simulation results of $iL1-iL2-ig$ (for $V=90V$)

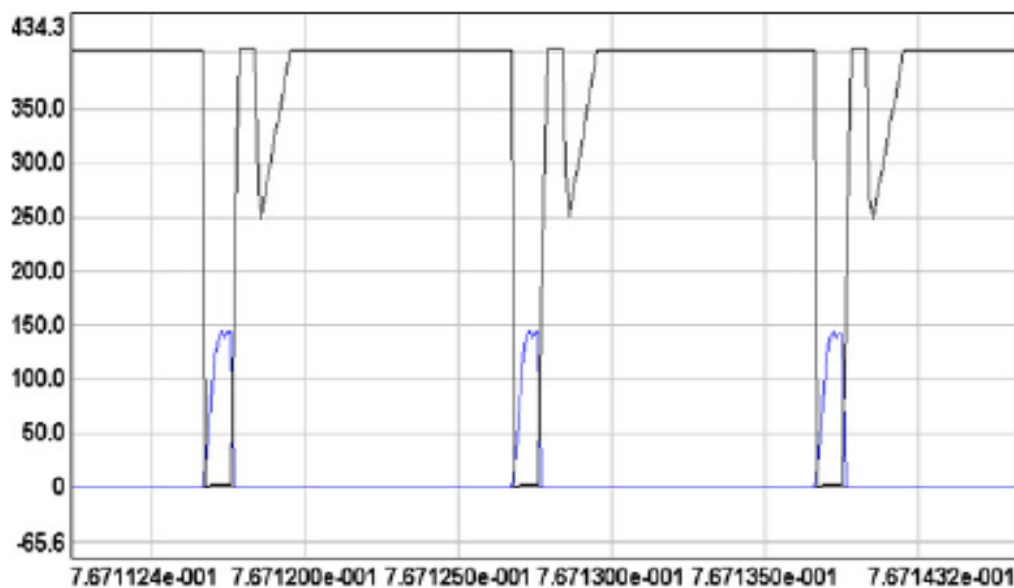


Fig 4.23 Simulation results of V_d & I_d (for $V=90V$)

According to these results, the auxiliary switch is turned on and off under soft switching conditions. Figs 4.23 and 4.24 show the simulation and experimental results of the voltage of resonant capacitor used in the auxiliary circuit. The switching operations of the output and auxiliary circuit diodes are also observed via simulation and experimental studies. It is observed that the output diodes and auxiliary circuit diodes turn on and turn off under soft switching and there is no voltage stress on the diodes. An experimental circuit for conventional hard switched interleaved boost converter is also built up to compare with the proposed soft switched topology.

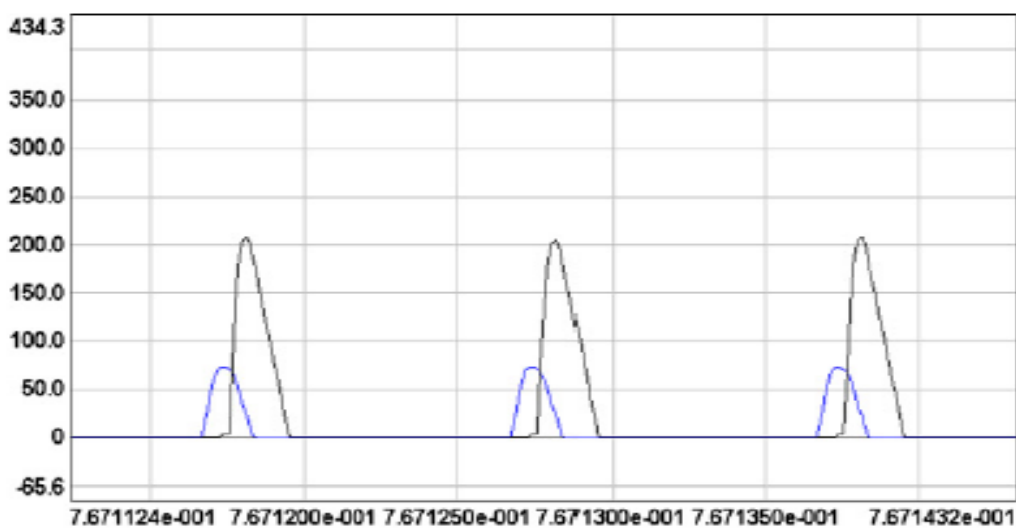


Fig 4.24 Simulation results of V_d & I_d (for $V=230V$)

4.8 Hardware Implementation of Boundary Conduction Mode PFC

In this section, the implementation of the average current mode control boost converter with PFC controller IC is explained. The analog PFC controller IC, NCP1631, is chosen to implement frequency clamped critical conduction mode PFC application. General specifications of the power circuit and control circuit elements of an critical conduction mode power factor correctionsystem is derived. The single-phase PFC is shaped from a single-phase diode rectifier and a cascaded DC/DC boost converter. The types of the components in the power circuit with their general specifications are summarized briefly in subsection 4.4.1. The general parameters and the block diagram of the controller are given in subsection 4.4.2.

4.8.1 Functional Description of the Power Circuit

Single-phase bridge rectifier with a cascaded boost converter is built and critical conduction mode control is applied. The load is chosen as a resistive load. Input is supplied by an isolated variable AC power supply. A high-frequency filtering capacitor is installed after the bridge rectifier to smooth the output of the rectifier. The boost inductor, boost diode, power switch and output capacitor assume the power factor pre-regulator role. The ratings for the switching elements are chosen by considering maximum peak current levels. A fast acting glass fuse and a bypass diode are placed in the circuit to prevent the components in the case over current.

Also an NTC is placed in the input of the circuit to limit the start-up current due to initial charge of the output capacitor. At steady state, the resistance of this NTC is very small, thus provides minimum power loss in the NTC. A sensing resistor with smaller resistance is placed at the source of the power MOSFET to sense the switch current. Auxiliary windings in the boost inductor are used for the zero current detection of the inductor current. Also these windings are used to supply controller IC.

4.8.2 Functional Description of the Control Circuit

Average current control mode is implemented by the ON Semiconductor integrated circuit NCP 1379 with selected passive elements. The NCP1631 controller is the one of the most popular frequency clamped critical conduction mode IC for PFC due to easy design requirements. The controller has internal voltage reference generator, trans-conductance type voltage error amplifier, multiplier, zero current detector, over voltage comparator etc. The block diagram of the controller IC is shown in Figure 4.25

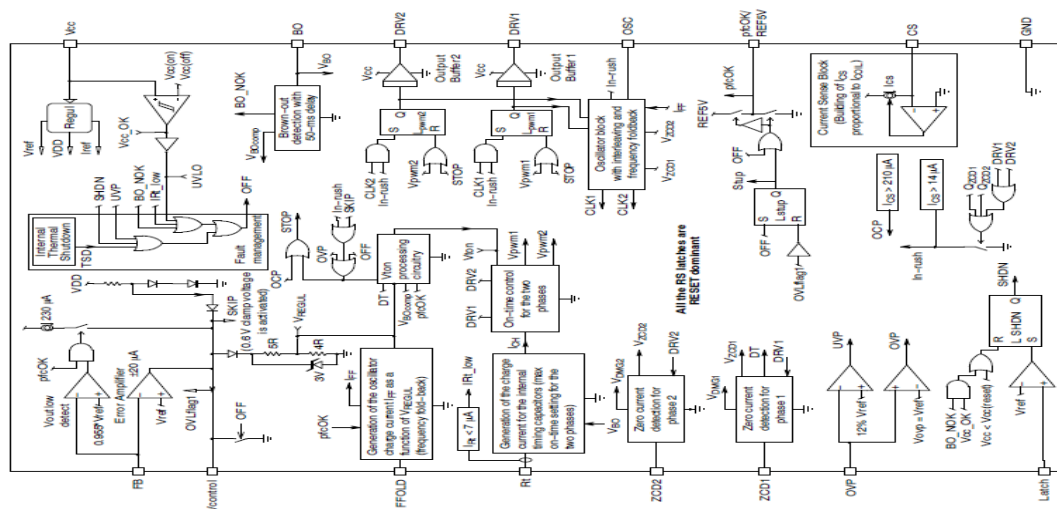


Fig 4.25 Block Diagram of NCP 1631 Interleaved PFC IC

The NCP1631 is designed for use in a pre-regulator in electronic ballasts and off-line power supplies applications. The controller consists of all required control blocks including protection blocks. Also gate drive circuit is adequate to drive any power switch element such as MOSFET or IGBT. The controller has internal output voltage error amplifier. The inverting and output pins of this error amplifier are accessible. The non-inverting input is connected internally to the voltage reference. The output voltage divider feedback should be scaled to this reference level. The error amplifier is a transconductance type, meaning that it has high output impedance with controlled voltage-to-current gain. The gain of transconductance is around 100 mhos.

The transconductance type amplifier provides better performance; also the inverting input of the amplifier can be used for different purposes such as over voltage comparator.

The compensation passive elements are placed between the output of the amplifier and ground. An overvoltage comparator is used to protect the circuit in case of over voltage at the output capacitor. The overvoltage limit is set to 1.08 of the reference output voltage. When this limit is exceeded, the gate is turned off until safety limits are reached again.

The multiplier is the core of the system. The inputs for the multiplier are the output of the voltage error amplifier and current waveform reference. The output of the multiplier is the reference inductor current. The actual inductor current is forced to flow between this reference and zero.

An internal zero current detector is used to turn on the power switch when the inductor current drops to zero. This inductor current information is taken from the auxiliary windings of the boost inductor. The zero current detector initiates the next On time by setting the RS Latch at the instant the inductor current reaches zero. An internal watch dog timer is used to start or restart the converter if the drive output has been off more than 600 usec after the inductor current reaches zero. The control IC is supplied with an auxiliary supply circuit.

There is no need of external power supply. An undervoltage lockout comparator has been incorporated to guarantee that the IC is fully functional before enabling the output stage. In the next section, design of the 150W PFC circuit with NCP1631 is explained.(Bodur H. & Bakan AF. "A new ZVT-ZCT-PWM DC-DC converter". IEEE Trans Power Electron 2004;19(3):676-84.)

4.9 Design of the Frequency Clamped Critical Conduction Mode PFC Converter

In this section, design procedure for implementing frequency clamped critical conduction mode controlled PFC with NCP1631 IC is presented. The circuit is implemented for low power applications. First, the design specifications for the circuit are defined as given in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Design parameters of current conduction PFC

Output Power, P_0	150 W
Input Voltage, V_{in}	85-270V
Input Voltage Frequency	50Hz
Switching Frequency	Variable
Output Voltage, V_0	400V
Input current THD	3%
Efficiency	90%
Hold-up time	50ms

The design process is realized using the following design procedure.

- 1) Power stage considerations
- 2) Switching frequency f_s considerations
- 3) Selection of the boost inductor L
- 4) Selection of the output capacitor C_0

Frequency clamped critical conduction mode controlled PFC with NCP 1631 controller IC is implemented with the selected external elements. The schematic diagram of the hardware is shown in Figure 4.26

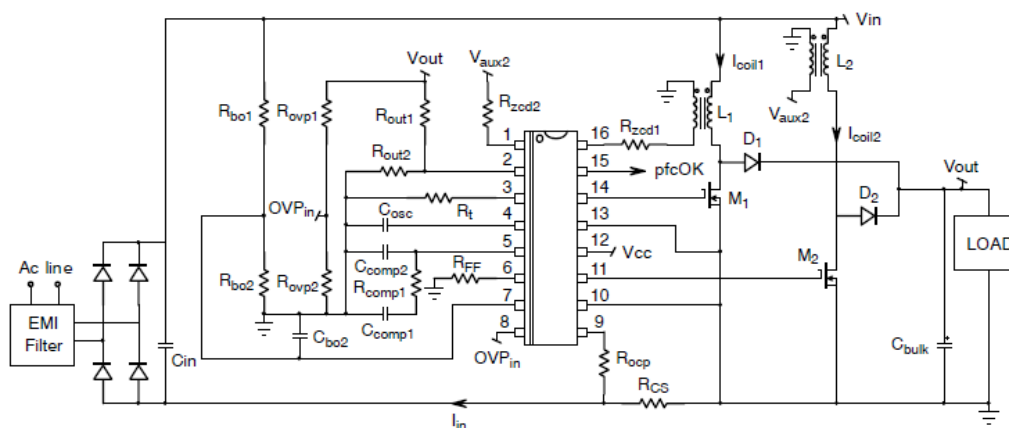


Fig 4.26 Typical Application Schematic Diagram of NCP 1631 Interleaved PFC IC

1) Power Stage Considerations:

A 150-W single-phase power factor correction circuit is implemented and tested in the laboratory conditions. The critical conduction mode control is suitable for the low power applications. The circuit is designed to operate with universal input voltage range. A resistive load or a DC/DC converter can be used as load of the circuit. A resistive load is used to carry out experiments in the laboratory.

The output voltage reference is set to 400 Vdc with 430 Vdc over voltage protection. The main elements of the circuit are boost inductor, power switch, boost diode and output capacitor. The boost inductor is designed with auxiliary windings to be used in the zero current detector. The selection of the power switch is done by considering the rms value of the switch current. The boost diode should have fast reverse recovery characteristics for FCrCM operation. Both power switch and diode should be rated about 20% above of the output voltage. The output capacitor should be selected by considering the output voltage ripple and hold-up time.

2) Switching frequency f_s considerations:

The switching frequency is variable in the critical conduction mode control. The variation of the switching frequency during a line cycle is explained in section 4.3. The switching frequency characteristics for different input level are analyzed by using equation (4.14). The deviations in the switching frequency for the 220 Vac input voltage is shown in Figure 4.27. Figure 4.28 shows the switching frequency variations for 120 Vac input voltage.

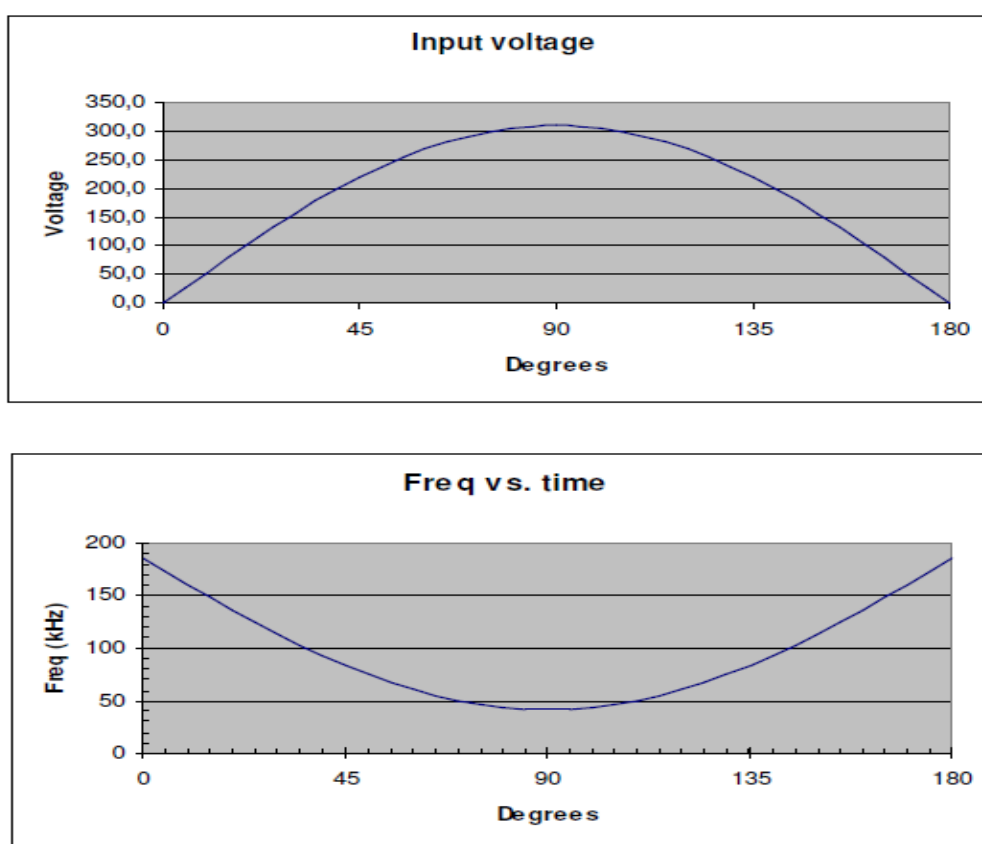


Figure 4.27 Switching frequency for 220VAC line voltage for critical current mode PFC.

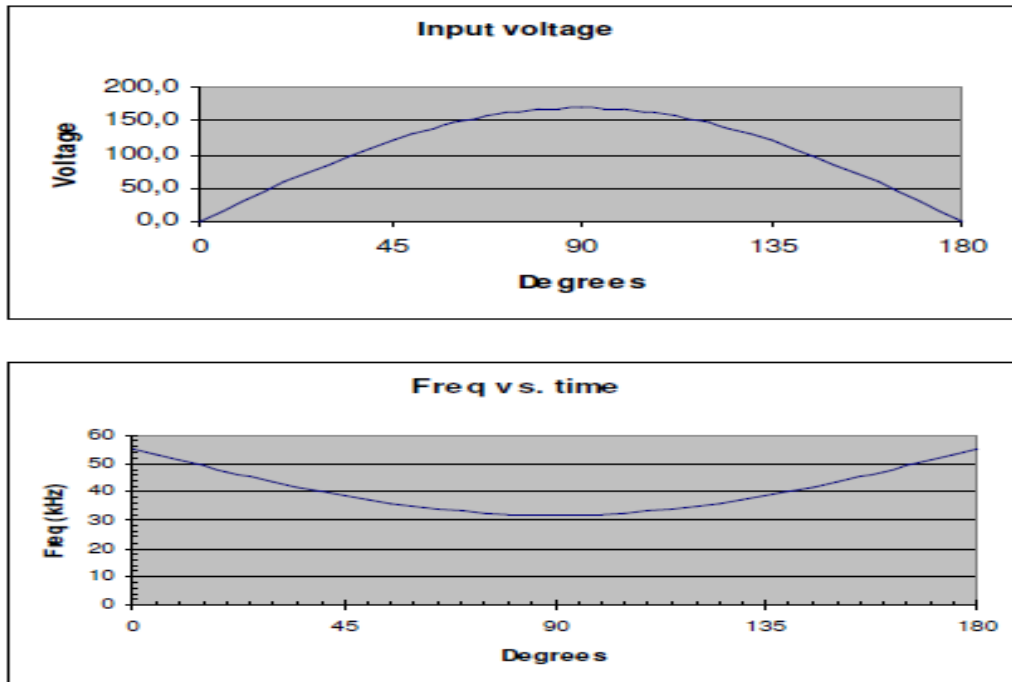


Figure 4.28 Switching frequency for 120VAC line voltage for critical current mode PFC.

3) Selection of the boost inductor L:

The inductance is designed for minimum switching period. Assuming that the minimum switching period is equal to 40 usec for the universal line (85-270), the inductance value can be calculated as:

$$L_P = \frac{t \times \left(\frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2}} - V_{in,rms(low)}\right) \times V_{in,rms(low)}^2}{\sqrt{2} \times V_0 \times P_0} = \frac{40 \text{ usec} \times \left(\frac{400}{\sqrt{2}} - 85\right) \times 85^2}{\sqrt{2} \times 400 \times 150W} = 600 \text{ uH} \quad (4.15)$$

The inductor is built from ferrite core material. The primary of the inductor is measured as 700 uH. 80 turns are placed in the primary of the inductor. Auxiliary windings are placed in the secondary for zero current detection and power supply for the controller IC. 5 turns are placed in the secondary.

4) Selection of the Output Capacitor :

The output capacitor defines the output voltage ripple and hold-up time for the PFC. The capacitance and the rated voltage value should be designed regarding the predefined output voltage, output voltage ripple and hold-up time for the output voltage. The capacitor with voltage and current rating greater than the normal operating point values with smaller ESR is selected. In this example a 330 μF electrolytic capacitor is used and corresponding output voltage ripple is shown in Figure 4.29

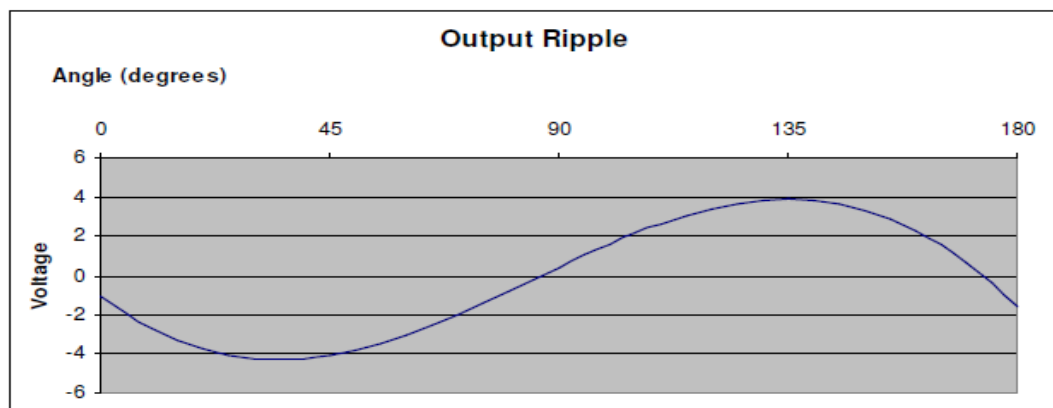


Figure 4.29 Output voltage ripple.

4.10 Experimental Results

The NCP1631 integrates a dual MOSFET driver for interleaved, 2-phase PFC applications. It drives the two branches in so-called *Frequency Clamped Critical conduction Mode* (FCCrM) where each phase operates in *Critical conduction Mode* (CrM) in the most stressful conditions and in *Discontinuous Conduction Mode* (DCM) otherwise, acting as a CrM controller with a frequency clamp (given by the oscillator). According to the conditions, the PFC stage actually jumps from DCM to CrM (and vice versa) with no discontinuity in operation and without degradation of the current shape.

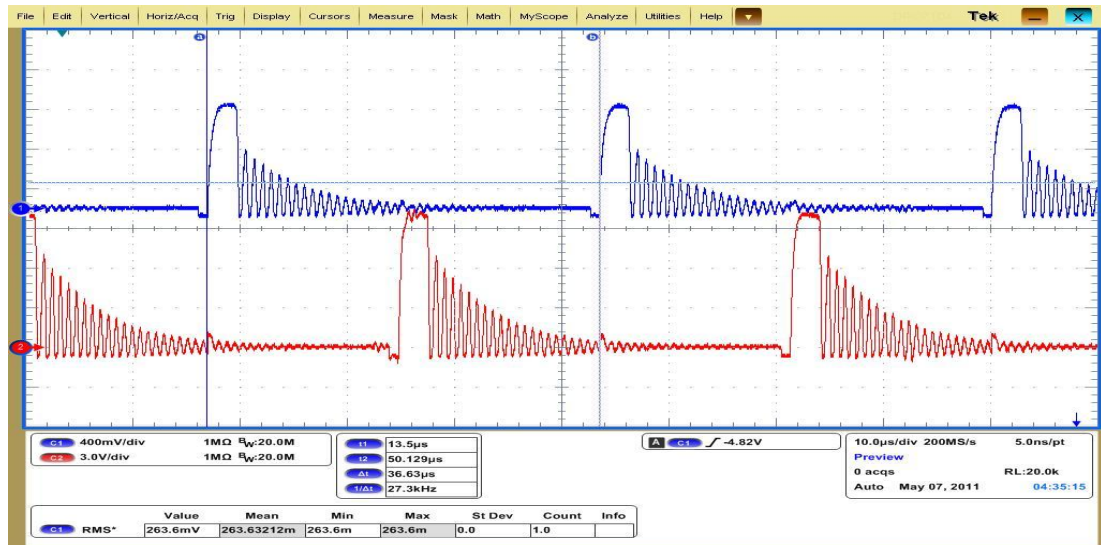


Figure 4.30 Interleaved PFC Controller Zero Current Detection Pin. (probe10x)

At Figure 4.30 the zero current detection pin for phase 1 and phase 2 of the interleaved PFC stage. Apply the voltage from an auxiliary winding to detect the core reset of the inductor and the valley of the MOSFET drain source voltage.

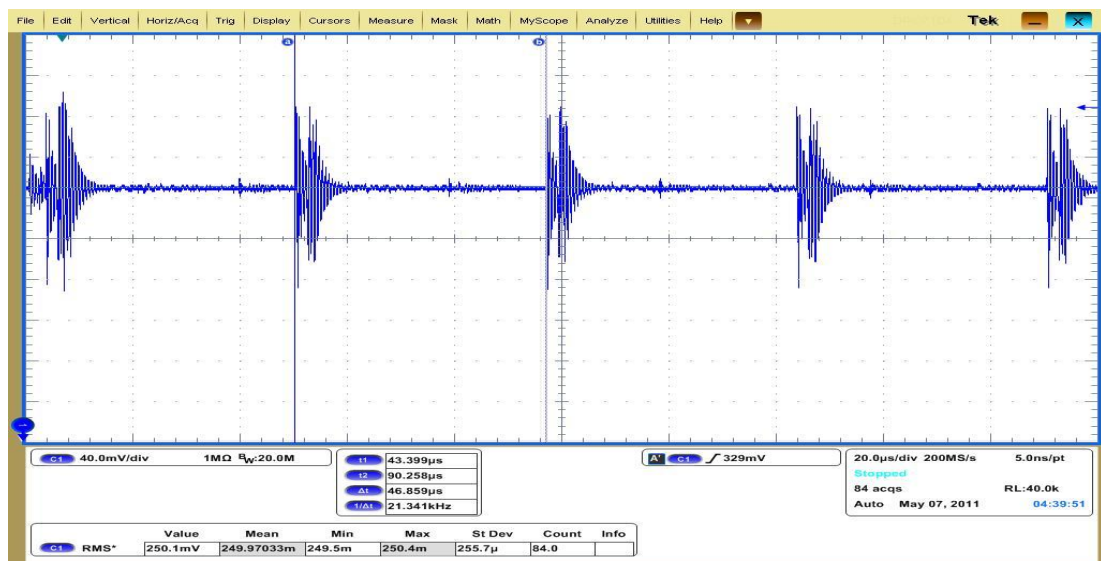


Figure 4.31 Interleaved PFC Controller Feedback Pin. (probe10x)

At Figure 4.31 receives a portion of the pre-converter output voltage. This information is used for the regulation and the “output low” detection (VOUTL) that drastically speed-up the loop response when the output voltage drops below 95.5% of the wished level.

At Figure 4.32 Connect a capacitor to set the clamp frequency of the PFC stage. If wished, this frequency can be reduced in light load as a function of the resistor placed between pin 6 and ground (frequency fold-back).

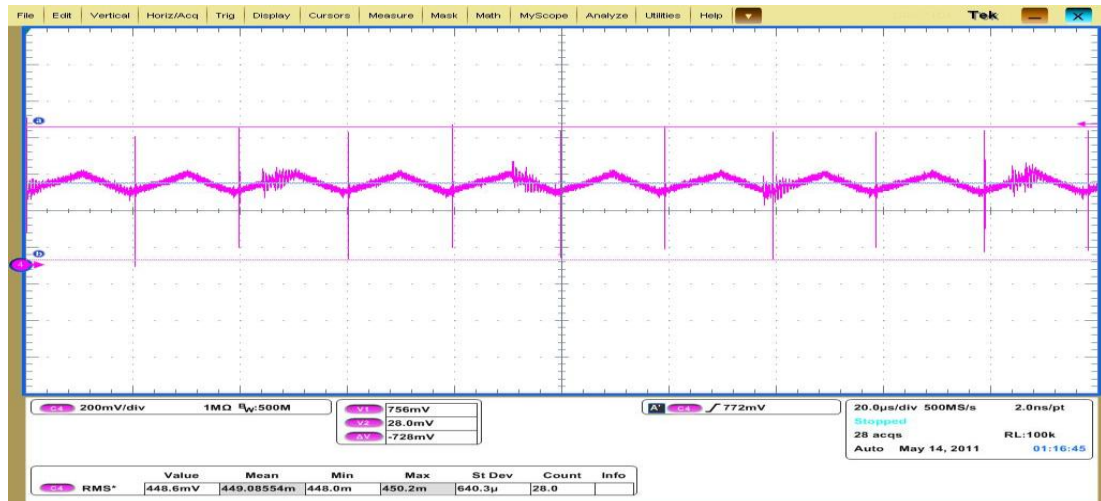


Figure 4.32 Interleaved PFC Controller Oscillator Pin. (probe10x)

If the coil current cycle is longer than the selected switching period, the circuit delays the next cycle until the core is reset. Hence, the PFC stage can operate in Critical Conduction Mode in the most stressful conditions.

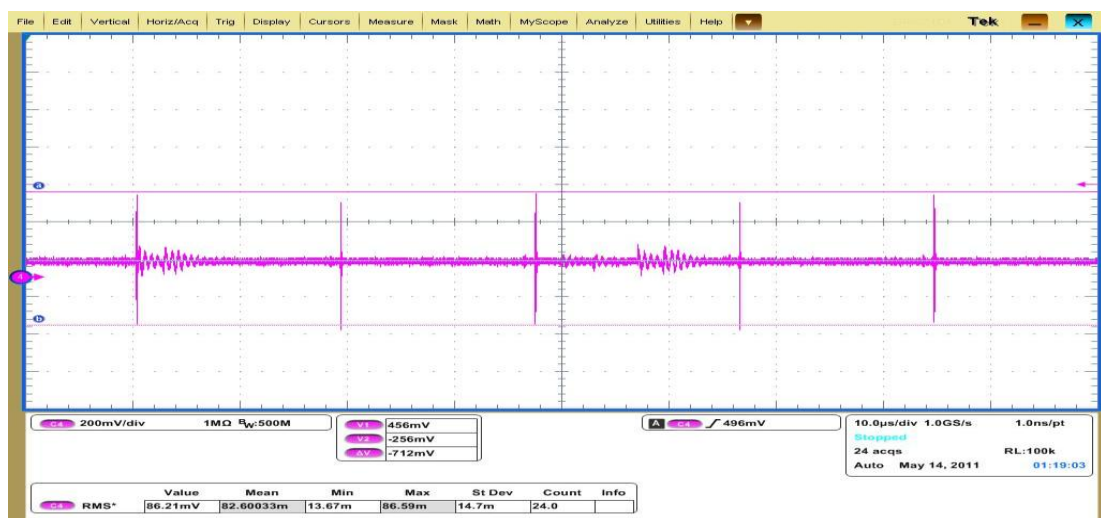


Figure 4.33 Interleaved PFC Controller Vcontroller Pin. (probe10x)

At Figure 4.33 the error amplifier output is available on this pin. The capacitor connected between this pin and ground adjusts the regulation loop bandwidth that is typically set below 20 Hz to achieve high Power Factor ratios. Pin5 is grounded when the circuit is off so that when it starts operation, the power increases slowly (soft-start).

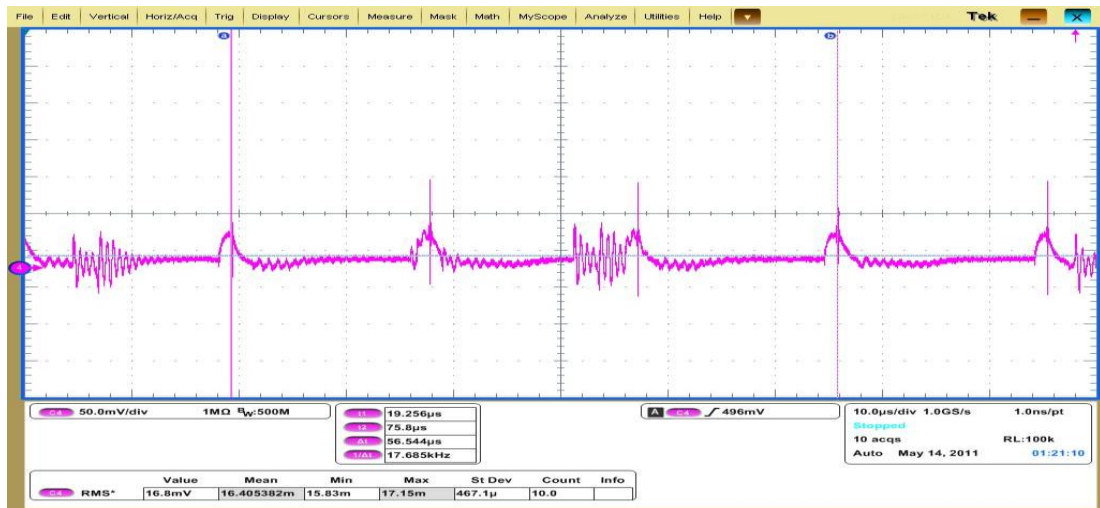


Figure 4.34 Interleaved PFC Controller Frequency Foldback Pin(probe10x)

Apply a resistor between pin 6 and ground to adjust the oscillator charge current. Clamped not to exceed 100 uA, this charge current is made proportional to the power level for a reduced switching frequency at light load and an optimum efficiency over the load range



Figure 4.35 Interleaved PFC Controller Frequency Foldback Pin(probe10x)

At Figure 4.35 Apply a voltage higher than 2.5 V to latch-off the circuit. The device is reset by unplugging the PFC stage (practically when the circuit detects a brown-out detection) or by forcing the circuit VCC below VCCRST (4 V typically). Operation can then resume when the line is applied back.

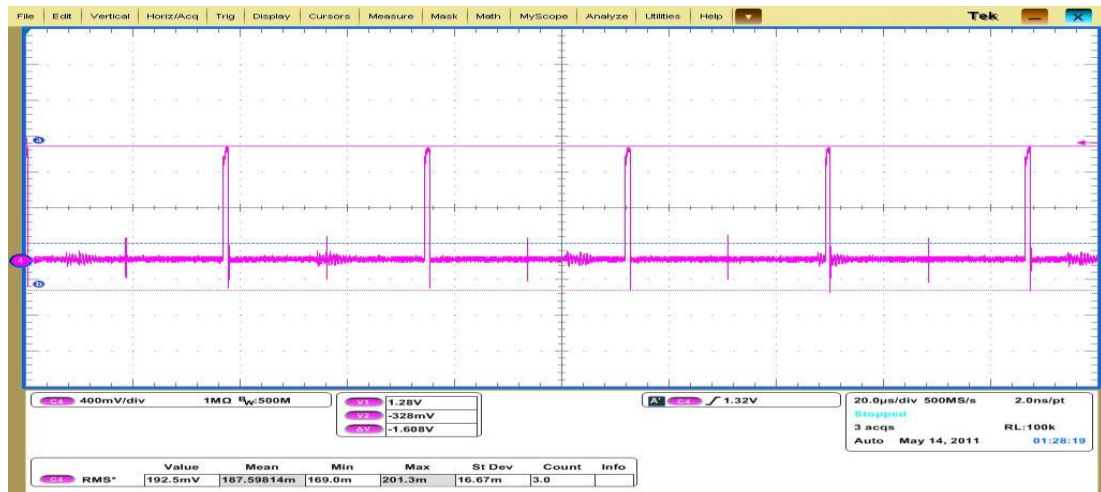


Figure 4.36 Interleaved PFC Controller Drive Pin(probe10x)

This is the gate drive pin for phase 1 and phase 2 of the interleaved PFC stage. The high current capability of the totem pole gate drive (+0.5/−0.8 A) makes it suitable to effectively drive high gate charge power MOSFETs.

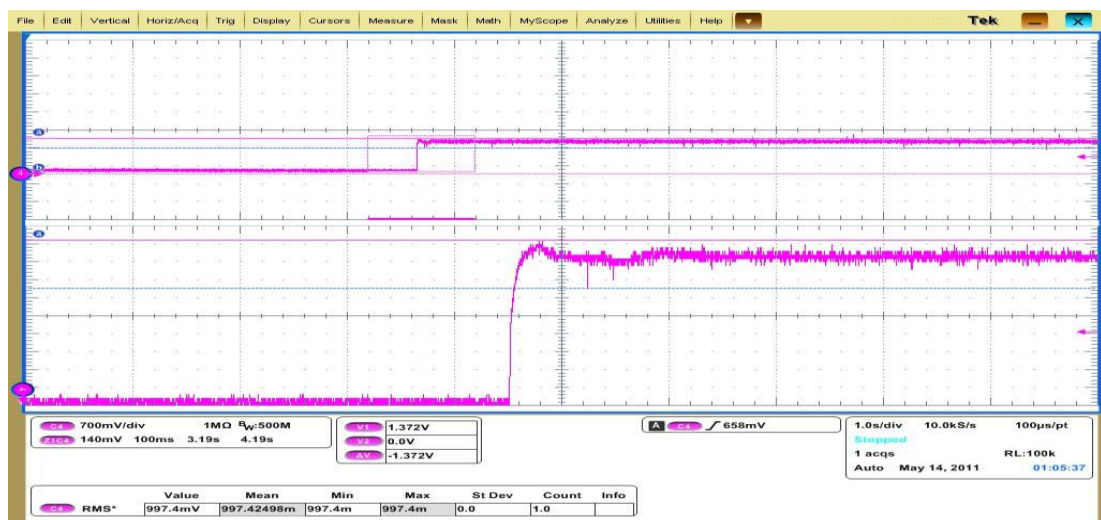


Figure 4.37 Interleaved PFC Controller Vcc Pin (probe10x)

This pin is the positive supply of the IC. The circuit starts to operate when VCC exceeds 12 V and turns off when VCC goes below 10 V (typical values). After start-up, the operating range is 9.5 V up to 20 V

4.11 Summary

In this chapter, the frequency clamped critical conduction mode control of PFC is discussed. The operation characteristics and dynamic responses are analyzed. Simulation and experimental implementations are presented. The conceived system is suitable to test the performance of an average current control of a power factor pre-regulator.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

This thesis is concerned with the power factor correction methods for single-phase converters. A complete power board that includes active power factor correction solutions is designed and implemented. The analyzed solutions are selected in accordance with their benefits, performance and popularity.

The second chapter of the thesis involves the passive power factor correction methods for a single-phase bridge rectifier. The harmonic filter is analyzed and designed according to harmonic emission standard IEC 61000-3-2. Theoretical and experimental results show that, a passive filtering method seems attractive for low power application due to their low cost and few complexity characteristics. The size and weight of the filtering elements are disadvantages of the passive filtering methods.

The third chapter, reviews the active power factor correction methods. A single-phase diode rectifier with a cascaded boost converter has advantages over the other topologies. In addition, the control technique for active PFC is analyzed. One of the control methods is implemented. Of the available control methods average current control mode is selected due to its performance, popularity and design complexity. With the experimental result, advantages of implemented control technique is studied and reviewed. The average current control seems more attractive with its performance but the design of this type control is more complex.

In the fourth stage, the control techniques for active PFC are analyzed. Two of the control methods are implemented. These are critical conduction mode and frequency clamped critical conduction mode. The selected control methods are chosen in accordance with their performance, popularity and design complexity.

The critical conduction mode reduces design complexity however it is suitable for low power applications due to operating with higher peak current levels.

As a result, the harmonic polluting effects of the single-phase diode rectifier based power converters are reviewed theoretically and experimentally. The harmonic limiting standards and the common solutions for power factor correction are analyzed. The popular passive and active power factor correction schemes are analyzed and verified with simulation and experimental results.

The final part involves the monolithic chip based control implementation of the single-phase interleaved PFC converter. This is one of the novel features of the thesis, as this chip has recently become available on the market and it provides advantageous features compared to the conventional implementation which involves the development of such a controller (involving the phase shift between the phases and the parallel operation of the current loops) by the design engineers. Having completed the design and system hardware manufacturing, the converter performance was verified by detailed laboratory experiments.

As a further study, the power board can be improved by using the latest developments in semiconductor technology. In addition, if warm-up problems at transformer is solved by changing transformer winding number to the appropriate values, the power level is increased. Power loss considerations and new techniques to reduce these losses can be implemented. Finally this thesis includes design and implementation of such a high efficient SMPS which is boost DC/DC converter and it is combined with an interleaved PFC having high performance and small size.

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APPENDIX-A

NCP1379

Quasi-Resonant Current-Mode Controller for High-Power Universal Off-line Supplies

The NCP1379 hosts a high-performance circuitry aimed to powering quasi-resonant converters. Capitalizing on a proprietary valley-lockout system, the controller shifts gears and reduces the switching frequency as the power loading becomes lighter. This results in a stable operation despite switching events always occurring in the drain-source valley. This system works down to the 4th valley and toggles to a variable frequency mode beyond, ensuring an excellent standby power performance.

The controller includes an Over Power Protection circuit which clamps the delivered power at high-line. Safety-wise, a fixed internal timer relies on the feedback voltage to detect a fault. Once the timer elapses, the controller stops and enters auto-recovery mode, ensuring a low duty-cycle burst operation. To further improve the safety of the power supply, the NCP1379 features a pin to implement a combined brown-out/overvoltage protection.

Particularly well suited for TVs power supply applications, the controller features a low startup voltage allowing the use of an auxiliary power supply to power the device.

Features

- Quasi-Resonant Peak Current-Mode Control Operation
- Valley Switching Operation with Valley-Lockout for Noise-Immune Operation
- Frequency Foldback at Light Load to Improve the Light Load Efficiency
- Adjustable Over Power Protection
- Auto-Recovery Output Short-Circuit Protection
- Fixed Internal 80 ms Timer for Short-Circuit Protection
- Combined Overvoltage Protection and Brown-out
- +500 mA / -800 mA Peak Current Source/Sink Capability
- Internal Temperature Shutdown
- Direct Optocoupler Connection
- Low $V_{CC(on)}$ Allowing to Use a Standby Power Supply to Power the Device
- Extremely Low No-Load Standby Power
- SO8 Package
- These Devices are Pb-Free and are RoHS Compliant

Typical Applications

- High Power ac-dc Converters for TVs, Set-Top Boxes etc.
- Offline Adapters for Notebooks



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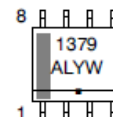
<http://onsemi.com>

QUASI-RESONANT PWM CONTROLLER FOR HIGH POWER AC-DC WALL ADAPTERS

MARKING DIAGRAMS

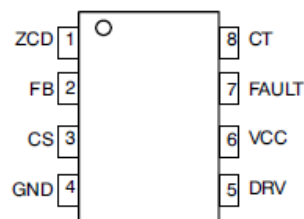


SOIC-8
D SUFFIX
CASE 751



1379 = Specific Device Code
A = Assembly Location
L = Wafer Lot
Y = Year
W = Work Week
▪ = Pb-Free Package

PIN CONNECTIONS



ORDERING INFORMATION

See detailed ordering and shipping information in the package dimensions section on page 21 of this data sheet.

NCP1379

TYPICAL APPLICATION EXAMPLE

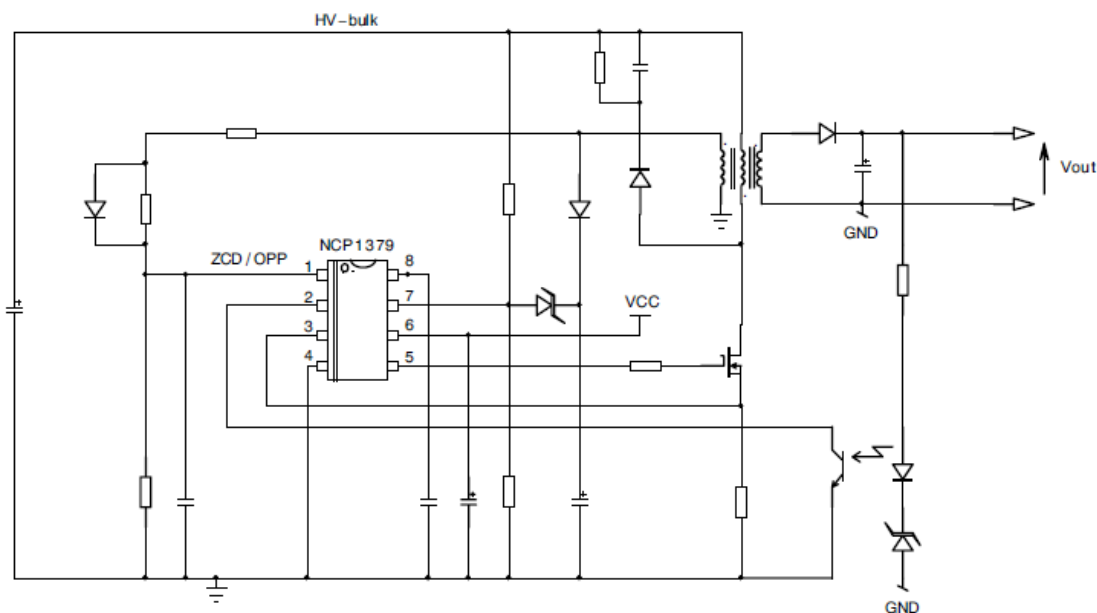


Figure 1. Typical Application Schematic

PIN FUNCTION DESCRIPTION

Pin N°	Pin Name	Function	Pin Description
1	ZCD	Zero Crossing Detection Adjust the over power protection	Connected to the auxiliary winding, this pin detects the core reset event. Also, injecting a negative voltage smaller than 0.3 V on this pin will perform over power protection.
2	FB	Feedback pin	Hooking an optocoupler collector to this pin will allow regulation.
3	CS	Current sense	This pin monitors the primary peak.
4	GND	-	The controller ground
5	DRV	Driver output	The driver's output to an external MOSFET
6	V _{CC}	Supplies the controller	This pin is connected to an external auxiliary voltage.
7	Fault	Ovoltage protection Brown-out	This pin observes the HV rail and protects the circuit in case of low main conditions. It also offers a way to latch the circuit in case of over voltage event.
8	C _T	Timing capacitor	A capacitor connected to this pin acts as the timing capacitor in fold-back mode.

NCP1379

INTERNAL CIRCUIT ARCHITECTURE

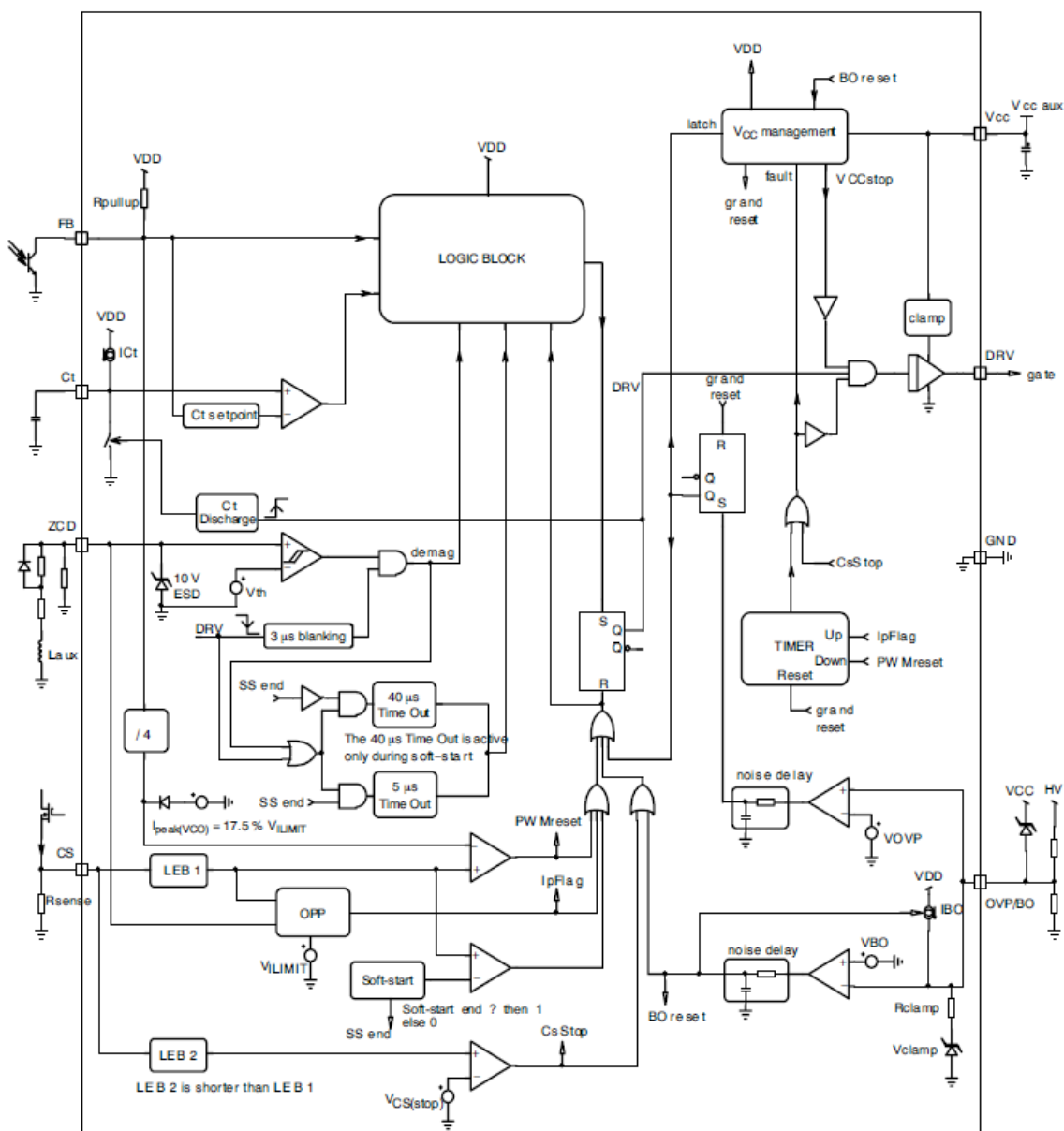


Figure 2. Internal Circuit Architecture

NCP1379

MAXIMUM RATINGS TABLE(S)

Symbol	Rating	Value	Unit
V _{CC(MAX)} I _{CC(MAX)}	Maximum Power Supply voltage, VCC pin, continuous voltage Maximum current for VCC pin	-0.3 to 28 ± 30	V mA
V _{DRV(MAX)} I _{DRV(MAX)}	Maximum driver pin voltage, DRV pin, continuous voltage Maximum current for DRV pin	-0.3 to 20 ± 1000	V mA
V _{MAX} I _{MAX}	Maximum voltage on low power pins (except pins DRV and V _{CC}) Current range for low power pins (except pins ZCD, DRV and V _{CC})	-0.3 to 10 ± 10	V mA
I _{ZCD(MAX)}	Maximum current for ZCD pin	+3 / -2	mA
R _{θJA}	Thermal Resistance Junction-to-Air	120	°C/W
T _{J(MAX)}	Maximum Junction Temperature	150	°C
	Operating Temperature Range	-40 to +125	°C
	Storage Temperature Range	-60 to +150	°C
	ESD Capability, Human Body Model (HBM) model (Note 1)	4	kV
	ESD Capability, CDM model (Note 1)	2	kV

Stresses exceeding Maximum Ratings may damage the device. Maximum Ratings are stress ratings only. Functional operation above the Recommended Operating Conditions is not implied. Extended exposure to stresses above the Recommended Operating Conditions may affect device reliability.

- This device series contains ESD protection and exceeds the following tests: Human Body Model 4000 V per Mil-Std-883, Method 3015. Charged Device Model 2000 V per JEDEC Standard JESD22-C101D
- This device contains latchup protection and exceeds 100 mA per JEDEC Standard JESD78.

ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS (Unless otherwise noted: For typical values T_J = 25°C, V_{CC} = 12 V, V_{ZCD} = 0 V, V_{FB} = 3 V, V_{CS} = 0 V, V_{fault} = 1.5 V, C_T = 680 pF) For min/max values T_J = -40°C to +125°C, Max T_J = 150°C, V_{CC} = 12 V)

Symbol	Parameter	Conditions	Min	Typ	Max	Unit
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SUPPLY SECTION – STARTUP AND SUPPLY CIRCUITS

V _{CC(on)} V _{CC(off)} V _{CC(hyst)} V _{CC(reset)}	Supply Voltage Startup Threshold Minimum Operating Voltage Hysteresis V _{CC(on)} – V _{CC(off)} Internal logic reset	V _{CC} increasing V _{CC} decreasing	10.5 8.3	11.4 9.0	12.3 9.4	V
t _{VCC(off)}	V _{CC(off)} noise filter		–	5	–	µs
t _{VCC(reset)}	V _{CC(reset)} noise filter		–	20	–	µs
I _{CC(start)}	Startup current	FB pin open V _{CC} = V _{CC(on)} – 0.5 V	–	0.7	1.2	mA
I _{CC1} I _{CC2} I _{CC3A} I _{CC3B}	Supply Current Device Disabled/Fault (Note 3) Device Enabled/No output load on pin 5 Device Switching (F _{sw} = 65 kHz) Device Switching (F _{sw} around 12 kHz)	V _{CC} > V _{CC(off)} F _{sw} = 10 kHz C _{DRV} = 1 nF, F _{sw} = 65 kHz C _{DRV} = 1 nF, V _{FB} = 1.25 V	– – – –	1.7 1.7 2.65 2.0	2.0 2.0 3.00 –	mA

CURRENT COMPARATOR – CURRENT SENSE

V _{ILIM}	Current Sense Voltage Threshold	V _{FB} = 4 V, V _{CS} increasing	0.76	0.80	0.84	V
t _{LEB}	Leading Edge Blanking Duration for V _{ILIM}	Minimum on time minus t _{LUM}	210	275	330	ns
I _{bias}	Input Bias Current (Note 3)	DRV high	-2	–	2	µA
t _{LUM}	Propagation Delay	V _{CS} > V _{ILIM} to DRV turn-off	–	125	175	ns
I _{peak(VCO)}	Percentage of maximum peak current level at which VCO takes over (Note 4)	V _{FB} = 0.4 V, V _{CS} increasing	15.4	17.5	19.6	%

- Guaranteed by design
- The peak current setpoint goes down as the load decreases. It is frozen below I_{peak(VCO)} (I_{peak} = cst)
- If negative voltage in excess to -300 mV is applied to ZCD pin, the current setpoint decrease is no longer guaranteed to be linear
- Minimum value for T_J = 125°C

NCP1379

ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS (Unless otherwise noted: For typical values $T_J = 25^\circ\text{C}$, $V_{CC} = 12\text{ V}$, $V_{ZCD} = 0\text{ V}$, $V_{FB} = 3\text{ V}$, $V_{CS} = 0\text{ V}$, $V_{\text{fault}} = 1.5\text{ V}$, $C_T = 680\text{ pF}$) For min/max values $T_J = -40^\circ\text{C}$ to $+125^\circ\text{C}$, Max $T_J = 150^\circ\text{C}$, $V_{CC} = 12\text{ V}$)

Symbol	Parameter	Conditions	Min	Typ	Max	Unit
CURRENT COMPARATOR – CURRENT SENSE						
$V_{OPP(\text{MAX})}$	Setpoint decrease for $V_{ZCD} = -300\text{ mV}$ (Note 5)	$V_{ZCD} = -300\text{ mV}$, $V_{FB} = 4\text{ V}$, V_{CS} increasing	35.0	37.5	40.0	%
$V_{CS(\text{stop})}$	Threshold for immediate fault protection activation		1.125	1.200	1.275	V
t_{BCS}	Leading Edge Blanking Duration for $V_{CS(\text{stop})}$		–	120	–	ns
DRIVE OUTPUT – GATE DRIVE						
R_{SNK} R_{SRC}	Drive Resistance DRV Sink DRV Source	$V_{\text{DRV}} = 10\text{ V}$ $V_{\text{DRV}} = 2\text{ V}$	–	12.5 20	–	Ω
I_{SNK} I_{SRC}	Drive current capability DRV Sink DRV Source	$V_{\text{DRV}} = 10\text{ V}$ $V_{\text{DRV}} = 2\text{ V}$	–	800 500	–	mA
t_r	Rise Time (10 % to 90 %)	$C_{\text{DRV}} = 1\text{ nF}$, V_{DRV} from 0 to 12 V	–	40	75	ns
t_f	Fall Time (90 % to 10 %)	$C_{\text{DRV}} = 1\text{ nF}$, V_{DRV} from 0 to 12 V	–	25	60	ns
$V_{\text{DRV}(\text{low})}$	DRV Low Voltage	$V_{\text{CC}} = V_{\text{CC}(\text{off})} + 0.2\text{ V}$ $C_{\text{DRV}} = 1\text{ nF}$, $R_{\text{DRV}} = 33\text{ k}\Omega$	8.4	9.1	–	V
$V_{\text{DRV}(\text{high})}$	DRV High Voltage (Note 6)	$V_{\text{CC}} = V_{\text{CC}(\text{MAX})}$ $C_{\text{DRV}} = 1\text{ nF}$	10.5	13.0	15.5	V
DEMAGNETIZATION INPUT – ZERO VOLTAGE DETECTION CIRCUIT						
$V_{\text{ZCD}(\text{TH})}$	ZCD threshold voltage	V_{ZCD} decreasing	35	55	90	mV
$V_{\text{ZCD}(\text{HYS})}$	ZCD hysteresis	V_{ZCD} increasing	15	35	55	mV
V_{CH} V_{CL}	Input clamp voltage High state Low state	$I_{\text{pin1}} = 3.0\text{ mA}$ $I_{\text{pin1}} = -2.0\text{ mA}$	8 –0.9	10 –0.7	12 –0.3	V
t_{DEM}	Propagation Delay	V_{ZCD} decreasing from 4 V to –0.3 V	–	150	250	ns
C_{PAR}	Internal input capacitance		–	10	–	pF
t_{BLANK}	Blanking delay after on-time		2.30	3.15	4.00	μs
t_{outSS} t_{out}	Timeout after last demag transition	During soft-start After the end of soft-start	28 5.0	41 5.9	54 6.7	μs
$R_{\text{ZCD}(\text{pdown})}$	Pulldown resistor (Note 3)		140	320	500	k Ω
TIMING CAPACITOR – TIMING CAPACITOR						
$V_{\text{CT}(\text{MAX})}$	Maximum voltage on C_T pin	$V_{\text{FB}} < V_{\text{FB}(\text{TH})}$	5.15	5.40	5.65	V
I_{CT}	Source current	$V_{\text{CT}} = 0\text{ V}$	18	20	22	μA
$V_{\text{CT}(\text{MIN})}$	Minimum voltage on C_T pin, discharge switch activated		–	–	90	mV
C_T	Recommended timing capacitor value			220		pF
FEEDBACK SECTION – FEEDBACK						
$R_{\text{FB}(\text{pullup})}$	Internal pullup resistor		15	18	22	k Ω
I_{ratio}	Pin FB to current setpoint division ratio		3.8	4.0	4.2	
$V_{\text{FB}(\text{TH})}$	FB pin threshold under which C_T is clamped to $V_{\text{CT}(\text{MAX})}$		0.26	0.30	0.34	V

3. Guaranteed by design

4. The peak current setpoint goes down as the load decreases. It is frozen below $I_{\text{peak}(\text{VCO})}$ ($I_{\text{peak}} = \text{cst}$)

5. If negative voltage in excess to –300 mV is applied to ZCD pin, the current setpoint decrease is no longer guaranteed to be linear

6. Minimum value for $T_J = 125^\circ\text{C}$

NCP1379

ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS (Unless otherwise noted: For typical values $T_J = 25^\circ\text{C}$, $V_{CC} = 12\text{ V}$, $V_{ZCD} = 0\text{ V}$, $V_{FB} = 3\text{ V}$, $V_{CS} = 0\text{ V}$, $V_{\text{fault}} = 1.5\text{ V}$, $C_T = 680\text{ pF}$) For min/max values $T_J = -40^\circ\text{C}$ to $+125^\circ\text{C}$, Max $T_J = 150^\circ\text{C}$, $V_{CC} = 12\text{ V}$)

Symbol	Parameter	Conditions	Min	Typ	Max	Unit
FEEDBACK SECTION – FEEDBACK						
V_{H2D}	Valley threshold FB voltage where 1 st valley ends and 2 nd valley starts	V_{FB} decreases	1.316	1.4	1.484	V
V_{H3D}	FB voltage where 2 nd valley ends and 3 rd valley starts	V_{FB} decreases	1.128	1.2	1.272	
V_{H4D}	FB voltage where 3 rd valley ends and 4 th valley starts	V_{FB} decreases	0.846	0.9	0.954	
$V_{HVCO D}$	FB voltage where 4 th valley ends and VCO starts	V_{FB} decreases	0.732	0.8	0.828	
$V_{HVCO I}$	FB voltage where VCO ends and 4 th valley starts	V_{FB} increases	1.316	1.4	1.484	
V_{H1I}	FB voltage where 4 th valley ends and 3 rd valley starts	V_{FB} increases	1.504	1.6	1.696	
V_{H3I}	FB voltage where 3 rd valley ends and 2 nd valley starts	V_{FB} increases	1.692	1.8	1.908	
V_{H2I}	FB voltage where 2 nd valley ends and 1 st valley starts	V_{FB} increases	1.880	2.0	2.120	

PROTECTIONS – FAULT PROTECTION

T_{SHDN}	Thermal Shutdown	Device switching (F_{SW} around 65 kHz)	140	–	170	$^\circ\text{C}$
$T_{SHDN(HYS)}$	Thermal Shutdown Hysteresis		–	40	–	$^\circ\text{C}$
$t_{OVL D}$	Overload Timer	$V_{FB} = 4\text{ V}$, $V_{CS} > V_{ILIM}$	75	85	95	ms
$t_{OVL D(off)}$	OFF phase in auto-recovery fault mode		1.0	1.2	1.4	s
t_{SSTART}	Soft-start duration	$V_{FB} = 4\text{ V}$, V_{CS} ramping up, measured from 1 st DRV pulse to $V_{CS(peak)} = 90\%$ of V_{ILIM}	2.8	3.8	4.8	ms
V_{BO}	Brown-Out level	V_{Fault} decreasing	0.744	0.800	0.856	V
I_{BO}	Sourced hysteresis current $V_{\text{Fault}} > V_{BO}$	$V_{\text{Fault}} = V_{BO} + 0.2\text{ V}$	9	10	11	μA
$t_{BO(delay)}$	Delay before entering and exiting Brown-out		22.5	30.0	37.5	μs
V_{OVP}	Internal Fault detection level for OVP	V_{Fault} increasing	2.35	2.5	2.65	V
$t_{\text{latch}(delay)}$	Delay before latch confirmation (OVP)		22.5	30	37.5	μs
$V_{\text{Fault}(clamp)}$	Clamped voltage (Fault pin left open)	Fault pin open	1.0	1.2	1.4	V
$R_{\text{Fault}(clamp)}$	Clamping resistor (Note 3)		1.30	1.55	1.80	k Ω

3. Guaranteed by design

4. The peak current setpoint goes down as the load decreases. It is frozen below $I_{\text{peak}(VCO)}$ ($I_{\text{peak}} = \text{cst}$)

5. If negative voltage in excess to -300 mV is applied to ZCD pin, the current setpoint decrease is no longer guaranteed to be linear

6. Minimum value for $T_J = 125^\circ\text{C}$

APPENDIX-B

NCP1631

Interleaved, 2-Phase Power Factor Controller

The NCP1631 integrates a dual MOSFET driver for interleaved PFC applications. Interleaving consists of paralleling two small stages in lieu of a bigger one, more difficult to design. This approach has several merits like the ease of implementation, the use of smaller components or a better distribution of the heating.

Also, Interleaving extends the power range of Critical Conduction Mode that is an efficient and cost-effective technique (no need for low t_{rr} diodes). In addition, the NCP1631 drivers are 180° phase shift for a significantly reduced current ripple.

Housed in a SOIC16 package, the circuit incorporates all the features necessary for building robust and compact interleaved PFC stages, with a minimum of external components.

General Features

- Near-Unity Power Factor
- Substantial 180° Phase Shift in All Conditions Including Transient Phases
- Frequency Clamped Critical Conduction Mode (**FCCrM**) i.e., Fixed Frequency, Discontinuous Conduction Mode Operation with Critical Conduction Achievable in Most Stressful Conditions
- FCCrM Operation Optimizes the PFC Stage Efficiency Over the Load Range
- Out-of-phase Control for Low EMI and a Reduced rms Current in the Bulk Capacitor
- Frequency Fold-back at Low Power to Further Improve the Light Load Efficiency
- Accurate Zero Current Detection by Auxiliary Winding for Valley Turn On
- Fast Line / Load Transient Compensation
- High Drive Capability: -500 mA / +800 mA
- Signal to Indicate that the PFC is Ready for Operation ("pfcOK" Pin)
- V_{CC} Range: from 10 V to 20 V

Safety Features

- Output Over and Under Voltage Protection
- Brown-Out Detection with a 50-ms Delay to Help Meet Hold-up Time Specifications
- Soft-Start for Smooth Start-up Operation
- Programmable Adjustment of the Maximum Power
- Over Current Limitation
- Detection of Inrush Currents

Typical Applications

- Computer Power Supplies
- LCD / Plasma Flat Panels
- All Off Line Appliances Requiring Power Factor Correction

*For additional information on our Pb-Free strategy and soldering details, please download the ON Semiconductor Soldering and Mounting Techniques Reference Manual, SOLDERRM/D.



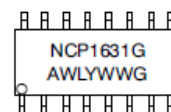
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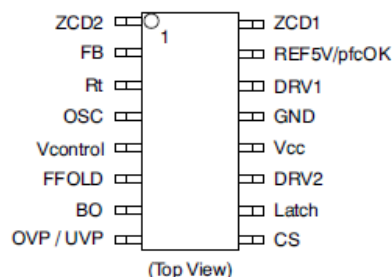
SOIC-16
D SUFFIX
CASE 751B

MARKING DIAGRAM



A = Assembly Location
WL = Wafer Lot
Y = Year
WW = Work Week
G = Pb-Free Package

PIN ASSIGNMENT



ORDERING INFORMATION

Device	Package	Shipping†
NCP1631DR2G	SOIC-16 (Pb-Free)	2500 / Tape & Reel

†For information on tape and reel specifications, including part orientation and tape sizes, please refer to our Tape and Reel Packaging Specification Brochure, BRD8011/D.

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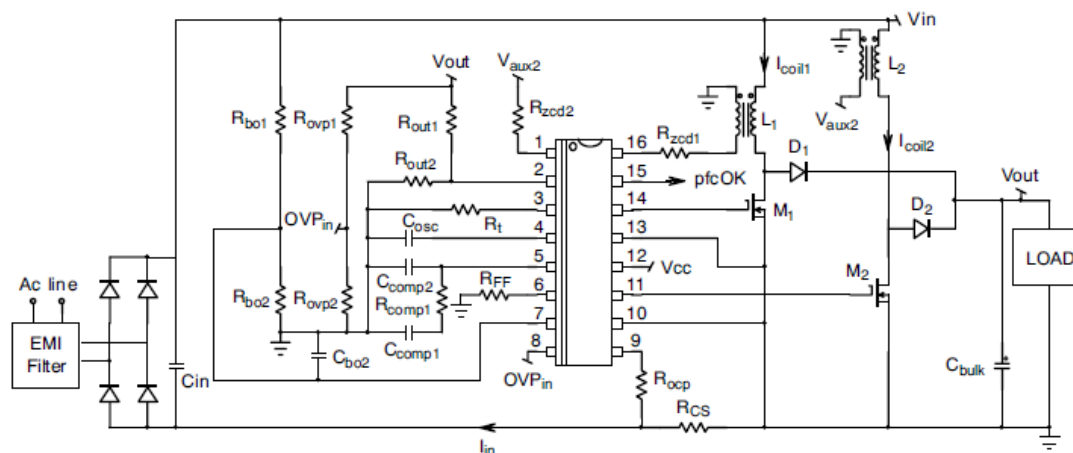


Figure 1. Typical Application Schematic

Table 1. MAXIMUM RATINGS TABLE

Symbol	Rating	Pin	Value	Unit
$V_{CC(MAX)}$	Maximum Power Supply Voltage Continuous	11	-0.3, +20	V
V_{MAX}	Maximum Input Voltage on Low Power Pins	1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 15, and 16	-0.3, +9.0	V
$V_{Control(MAX)}$	$V_{Control}$ Pin Maximum Input Voltage	5	-0.3, $V_{Control(clamp)}$ (Note 1)	V
P_D	Power Dissipation and Thermal Characteristics			
$R_{\theta J-A}$	Maximum Power Dissipation @ $T_A = 70^\circ\text{C}$		550	mW
	Thermal Resistance Junction-to-Air		145	$^\circ\text{C/W}$
T_J	Operating Junction Temperature Range		-40 to +125	$^\circ\text{C}$
$T_{J(MAX)}$	Maximum Junction Temperature		150	$^\circ\text{C}$
$T_S(MAX)$	Storage Temperature Range		-65 to +150	$^\circ\text{C}$
$T_L(MAX)$	Lead Temperature (Soldering, 10s)		300	$^\circ\text{C}$
	ESD Capability, HBM model (Note 2)		3	kV
	ESD Capability, Machine Model (Note 2)		250	V

Stresses exceeding Maximum Ratings may damage the device. Maximum Ratings are stress ratings only. Functional operation above the Recommended Operating Conditions is not implied. Extended exposure to stresses above the Recommended Operating Conditions may affect device reliability.

- $V_{Control(clamp)}$ is the pin5 clamp voltage.
- This device(s) contains ESD protection and exceeds the following tests:
Human Body Model 2000 V per JEDEC Standard JESD22-A114E
Machine Model Method 200 V per JEDEC Standard JESD22-A115-A
- This device contains latch-up protection and exceeds 100 mA per JEDEC Standard JESD78.

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Table 2. TYPICAL ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS TABLE

(Conditions: $V_{CC} = 15\text{ V}$, $V_{pin7} = 2\text{ V}$, $V_{pin10} = 0\text{ V}$, $T_J = -40^\circ\text{C}$ to $+125^\circ\text{C}$, unless otherwise specified)

Characteristics	Test Conditions	Symbol	Min	Typ	Max	Unit
STARTUP AND SUPPLY CIRCUITS						
Supply Voltage						V
Startup Threshold	V_{CC} increasing	$V_{CC(on)}$	11	11.85	12.7	
Minimum Operating Voltage	V_{CC} decreasing	$V_{CC(off)}$	9.5	10	10.5	
Hysteresis $V_{CC(on)} - V_{CC(off)}$		$V_{CC(hyst)}$	1.5	1.85	–	
Internal Logic Reset	V_{CC} decreasing	$V_{CC(reset)}$	4.0	5.75	7.5	
Startup current	$V_{CC} = 9.4\text{ V}$	$I_{CC(start)}$	–	35	100	μA
Supply Current						mA
Device Enabled/No output load on pin6	$F_{sw} = 130\text{ kHz}$ (Note 4)	I_{CC1}	–	5.0	7.0	
Current that discharges V_{CC} in latch mode	$V_{CC} = 15\text{ V}$, $V_{pin10} = 5\text{ V}$	$I_{CC(latch)}$	–	0.4	0.8	
Current that discharges V_{CC} in OFF mode	$V_{CC} = 15\text{ V}$, pin 7 grounded	$I_{CC(off)}$	–	0.4	0.8	
OSCILLATOR AND FREQUENCY FOLDBACK						
Clamping Charging Current	Pin 6 open	$I_{OSC(clamp)}$	31.5	35	38.5	μA
Charge Current with no frequency foldback	Pin 6 grounded	$I_{OSC(CH1)}$	126	140	154	μA
Charge Current @ $I_{pin6} = 50\text{ }\mu\text{A}$	$I_{pin6} = 50\text{ }\mu\text{A}$	$I_{OSC(CH2)}$	76.5	85	93.5	μA
Maximum Discharge Current with no frequency foldback	Pin 6 grounded	$I_{OSC(DISCH1)}$	94.5	105	115.5	μA
Discharge Current @ $I_{pin6} = 50\text{ }\mu\text{A}$	$I_{pin6} = 50\text{ }\mu\text{A}$	$I_{OSC(DISCH2)}$	45	50	55	μA
Voltage on pin 6	$I_{pin6} = 50\text{ }\mu\text{A}$, $V_{pin5} = 2.5\text{ V}$	V_{FF}	0.9	1.0	1.3	V
Oscillator Upper Threshold		$V_{OSC(high)}$	–	5	–	V
Oscillator Lower Threshold		$V_{OSC(low)}$	3.6	4.0	4.4	V
Oscillator Swing (Note 5)		$V_{OSC(swing)}$	0.93	0.98	1.03	V
CURRENT SENSE						
Current Sense Voltage Offset	$I_{pin9} = 100\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ $I_{pin9} = 10\text{ }\mu\text{A}$	$V_{CS(TH100)}$ $V_{CS(TH10)}$	–20 –10	0 0	20 10	mV
Current Sense Protection Threshold	$T_J = 25^\circ\text{C}$ $T_J = -40^\circ\text{C}$ to 125°C	I_{LIM1} I_{LIM2}	202 194	210 210	226 226	μA
Threshold for In-rush Current Detection (Note 5)		$I_{in-rush}$	11	14	17	μA
GATE DRIVE						
Drive Resistance						Ω
DRV1 Sink	$I_{pin14} = 100\text{ mA}$	R_{SNK1}	–	7	15	
DRV1 Source	$I_{pin14} = -100\text{ mA}$	R_{SRC1}	–	15	25	
DRV2 Sink	$I_{pin11} = 100\text{ mA}$	R_{SNK2}	–	7	15	
DRV2 Source	$I_{pin11} = -100\text{ mA}$	R_{SRC2}	–	15	25	
Drive Current Capability (Note 5)						mA
DRV1 Sink	$V_{DRV1} = 10\text{ V}$	I_{SNK1}	–	800	–	
DRV1 Source	$V_{DRV1} = 0\text{ V}$	I_{SRC1}	–	500	–	
DRV2 Sink	$V_{DRV2} = 10\text{ V}$	I_{SNK1}	–	800	–	
DRV2 Source	$V_{DRV2} = 0\text{ V}$	I_{SRC1}	–	500	–	
Rise Time						ns
DRV1	$C_{DRV1} = 1\text{ nF}$, $V_{DRV1} = 1\text{ to }10\text{ V}$	t_{r1}	–	40	–	
DRV2	$C_{DRV2} = 1\text{ nF}$, $V_{DRV2} = 1\text{ to }10\text{ V}$	t_{r2}	–	40	–	

4. DRV1 and DRV2 pulsating at half this frequency, that is, 65 kHz.

5. Not tested. Guaranteed by design and characterization.

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Table 2. TYPICAL ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS TABLE

(Conditions: $V_{CC} = 15\text{ V}$, $V_{pin7} = 2\text{ V}$, $V_{pin10} = 0\text{ V}$, $T_J = -40^\circ\text{C}$ to $+125^\circ\text{C}$, unless otherwise specified)

Characteristics	Test Conditions	Symbol	Min	Typ	Max	Unit
GATE DRIVE						
Fall Time DRV1 DRV2	$C_{DRV1} = 1\text{ nF}$, $V_{DRV1} = 10\text{ to }1\text{ V}$ $C_{DRV2} = 1\text{ nF}$, $V_{DRV2} = 10\text{ to }1\text{ V}$	t_{f1} t_{f2}	–	20	–	ns
REGULATION BLOCK						
Feedback Voltage Reference		V_{REF}	2.44	2.500	2.56	V
Error Amplifier Source Current Capability	@ $V_{pin2} = 2.4\text{ V}$	$I_{EA(SRC)}$		–20		μA
Error Amplifier Sink Current Capability	@ $V_{pin2} = 2.6\text{ V}$	$I_{EA(SNK)}$		+20		
Error Amplifier Gain		G_{EA}	110	200	290	μS
Pin 5 Source Current when ($V_{out(low)}$ Detect) is activated		$I_{Control(boost)}$	184	230	276	μA
Pin2 Bias Current	$V_{pin2} = 2.5\text{ V}$	$I_{FB(bias)}$	–500		500	nA
Pin 5 Voltage:	@ $V_{pin2} = 2.4\text{ V}$ @ $V_{pin2} = 2.6\text{ V}$	$V_{Control(clamp)}$ $V_{Control(MIN)}$ $V_{Control(range)}$	– – 2.7	3.6 0.6 3	– – 3.3	V
Internal V_{REGUL} Voltage (measured on pin 6):	@ $V_{pin2} = 2.6\text{ V}$, $I_{pin6} = 90\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ @ $V_{pin2} = 2.4\text{ V}$, $I_{pin6} = 90\text{ }\mu\text{A}$	$V_{REGUL(MIN)}$ $V_{REGUL(Clamp)}$	– –	– 1.66	0.1 –	V
Ratio ($V_{out(low)}$ Detect Threshold / V_{REF}) (Note 5)	FB falling	$V_{out(low)}/V_{REF}$	95.0	95.5	96.0	%
Ratio ($V_{out(low)}$ Detect Hysteresis / V_{REF}) (Note 5)	FB rising	$H_{out(low)}/V_{REF}$	–	–	0.5	%
SKIP MODE						
Duty Cycle	$V_{pin2} = 3\text{ V}$	D_{MIN}	–	–	0	%
RAMP CONTROL (valid for the two phases)						
Maximum DRV1 and DRV2 On-Time (FB pin grounded) $T_J = -25^\circ\text{C}$ to $+125^\circ\text{C}$	$V_{pin7} = 1.1\text{ V}$, $I_{pin3} = 50\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ $V_{pin7} = 1.1\text{ V}$, $I_{pin3} = 200\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ (Note 5) $V_{pin7} = 2.2\text{ V}$, $I_{pin3} = 100\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ (Note 5) $V_{pin7} = 2.2\text{ V}$, $I_{pin3} = 400\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ (Note 5)	t_{on1} t_{on2} t_{on3} t_{on4}	14.5 1.10 4.00 0.35	19.5 1.35 5.00 0.41	22.5 1.60 6.00 0.48	μs
Maximum DRV1 and DRV2 On-Time (FB pin grounded) $T_J = -40^\circ\text{C}$ to $+125^\circ\text{C}$	$V_{pin7} = 1.1\text{ V}$, $I_{pin3} = 50\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ $V_{pin7} = 1.1\text{ V}$, $I_{pin3} = 200\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ (Note 5) $V_{pin7} = 2.2\text{ V}$, $I_{pin3} = 100\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ (Note 5) $V_{pin7} = 2.2\text{ V}$, $I_{pin3} = 400\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ (Note 5)	t_{on1} t_{on2} t_{on3} t_{on4}	14.0 1.05 3.84 0.33	19.5 1.35 5.00 0.41	22.5 1.60 6.00 0.48	μs
Pin 3 voltage	$V_{BO} = V_{pin7} = 1.1\text{ V}$, $I_{pin3} = 50\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ $V_{BO} = V_{pin7} = 1.1\text{ V}$, $I_{pin3} = 200\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ $V_{BO} = V_{pin7} = 2.2\text{ V}$, $I_{pin3} = 50\text{ }\mu\text{A}$ $V_{BO} = V_{pin7} = 2.2\text{ V}$, $I_{pin3} = 200\text{ }\mu\text{A}$	V_{Rt1} V_{Rt2} V_{Rt3} V_{Rt4}	1.071 1.071 2.169 2.169	1.096 1.096 2.196 2.196	1.121 1.121 2.223 2.223	V
Maximum V_{ton} Voltage	Not tested	$V_{ton(MAX)}$		5		V
Pin 3 Current Capability		$I_{Rt(MAX)}$	1	–	–	mA
Pin 3 sourced current below which the controller is OFF		$I_{Rt(off)}$		7		μA
Pin 3 Current Range	Not tested	$I_{Rt(range)}$	20		1000	μA
ZERO VOLTAGE DETECTION CIRCUIT (valid for ZCD1 and ZCD2)						
ZCD Threshold Voltage	V_{ZCD} increasing V_{ZCD} falling	$V_{ZCD(TH),H}$ $V_{ZCD(TH),L}$	0.40 0.20	0.50 0.25	0.60 0.30	V
ZCD Hysteresis	V_{ZCD} decreasing	$V_{ZCD(HYS)}$		0.25		V

4. DRV1 and DRV2 pulsating at half this frequency, that is, 65 kHz.

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Table 2. TYPICAL ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS TABLE

(Conditions: $V_{CC} = 15\text{ V}$, $V_{pin7} = 2\text{ V}$, $V_{pin10} = 0\text{ V}$, $T_J = -40^\circ\text{C}$ to $+125^\circ\text{C}$, unless otherwise specified)

Characteristics	Test Conditions	Symbol	Min	Typ	Max	Unit
ZERO VOLTAGE DETECTION CIRCUIT (valid for ZCD1 and ZCD2)						
Input Clamp Voltage High State Low State	$I_{pin1} = 5.0\text{ mA}$ $I_{pin1} = -5.0\text{ mA}$	$V_{ZCD(high)}$ $V_{ZCD(low)}$		10 -0.65		V
Internal Input Capacitance (Note 5)		C_{ZCD}	-	10	-	pF
ZCD Watchdog Delay		t_{ZCD}	80	200	320	μs
BROWN-OUT DETECTION						
Brown-Out Comparator Threshold		$V_{BO(TH)}$	0.97	1.00	1.03	V
Brown-Out Current Source		I_{BO}	6	7	8	μA
Brown-Out Blanking Time (Note 5)		$t_{BO(BLANK)}$	38	50	62	ms
Brown-Out Monitoring Window (Note 5)		$t_{BO(window)}$	38	50	62	ms
Pin 7 clamped voltage if $V_{BO} < V_{BO(TH)}$ during $t_{BO(BLANK)}$	$I_{pin7} = -100\ \mu\text{A}$	$V_{BO(clamp)}$	-	965	-	mV
Current Capability of the BO Clamp		$I_{BO(clamp)}$	100	-	-	μA
Hysteresis $V_{BO(TH)} - V_{BO(clamp)}$	$I_{pin7} = -100\ \mu\text{A}$	$V_{BO(HYS)}$	10	35	60	mV
Current Capability of the BO pin Clamp PNP Transistor		$I_{BO(PNP)}$	100	-	-	μA
Pin BO voltage when damped by the PNP	$I_{pin7} = -100\ \mu\text{A}$	$V_{BO(PNP)}$	0.35	0.70	0.90	V
OVER AND UNDER VOLTAGE PROTECTIONS						
Over-Voltage Protection Threshold		V_{OVP}	2.425	2.500	2.575	V
Ratio (V_{OVP} / V_{REF}) (Note 5)		V_{OVP}/V_{REF}	99.2	99.7	100.2	%
Ratio UVP Threshold over V_{REF}		V_{UVP}/V_{REF}	8	12	16	%
Pin 8 Bias Current	$V_{pin8} = 2.5\text{ V}$ $V_{pin8} = 0.3\text{ V}$	$I_{OVP(bias)}$	-500	-	500	nA
LATCH INPUT						
Pin Latch Threshold for Shutdown		V_{Latch}	2.375	2.500	2.625	V
Pin Latch Bias Current	$V_{pin10} = 2.3\text{ V}$	$I_{Latch(bias)}$	-500	-	500	nA
pfcOK / REF5V						
Pin 15 Voltage Low State	$V_{pin7} = 0\text{ V}$, $I_{pin15} = 250\ \mu\text{A}$	$V_{REF5V(low)}$	-	60	120	mV
Pin 15 Voltage High State	$V_{pin7} = 0\text{ V}$, $I_{pin15} = 5\text{ mA}$	$V_{REF5V(high)}$	4.7	4.85	5.3	V
Current Capability		I_{REF5V}	5	10	-	mA
THERMAL SHUTDOWN						
Thermal Shutdown Threshold		T_{SHDN}	130	140	150	$^\circ\text{C}$
Thermal Shutdown Hysteresis		$T_{SHDN(HYS)}$	-	50	-	$^\circ\text{C}$

4. DRV1 and DRV2 pulsating at half this frequency, that is, 65 kHz.

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Table 3. DETAILED PIN DESCRIPTION

Pin Number	Name	Function
1	ZCD2	This is the zero current detection pin for phase 2 of the interleaved PFC stage. Apply the voltage from an auxiliary winding to detect the core reset of the inductor and the valley of the MOSFET drain source voltage.
2	FB	This pin receives a portion of the pre-converter output voltage. This information is used for the regulation and the "output low" detection (V_{OUTL}) that drastically speed-up the loop response when the output voltage drops below 95.5% of the wished level.
3	R_T	The resistor placed between pin 3 and ground adjusts the maximum on-time of our system for both phases, and hence the maximum power that can be delivered by the PFC stage.
4	OSC	Connect a capacitor to set the clamp frequency of the PFC stage. If wished, this frequency can be reduced in light load as a function of the resistor placed between pin 6 and ground (frequency fold-back). If the coil current cycle is longer than the selected switching period, the circuit delays the next cycle until the core is reset. Hence, the PFC stage can operate in Critical Conduction Mode in the most stressful conditions.
5	$V_{Control}$	The error amplifier output is available on this pin. The capacitor connected between this pin and ground adjusts the regulation loop bandwidth that is typically set below 20 Hz to achieve high Power Factor ratios. Pin5 is grounded when the circuit is off so that when it starts operation, the power increases slowly (soft-start).
6	Freq. Foldback	Apply a resistor between pin 6 and ground to adjust the oscillator charge current. Clamped not to exceed 100 μA , this charge current is made proportional to the power level for a reduced switching frequency at light load and an optimum efficiency over the load range.
7	BO (Brown-out Protection)	Apply an averaged portion of the input voltage to detect brown-out conditions when V_{pin2} drops below 1 V. A 100-ms internal delay blanks short mains interruptions to help meet hold-up time requirements. When it detects a brown-out condition, the circuit stops pulsing and grounds the "pfcOK" pin to disable the downstream converter. Also an internal 7- μA current source is activated to offer a programmable hysteresis. The pin2 voltage is internally re-used for feed-forward. Ground pin 2 to disable the part.
8	OVP / UVP	The circuit turns off when V_{pin9} goes below 480 mV (UVP) and disables the drive as long as the pin voltage exceeds 2.5 V (OVP).
9	CS	This pin monitors a negative voltage proportional to the coil current. This signal is sensed to limit the maximum coil current and protect the PFC stage in presence of in-rush currents.
10	Latch	Apply a voltage higher than 2.5 V to latch-off the circuit. The device is reset by unplugging the PFC stage (practically when the circuit detects a brown-out detection) or by forcing the circuit V_{CC} below V_{CCRST} (4 V typically). Operation can then resume when the line is applied back.
11	DRV2	This is the gate drive pin for phase 2 of the interleaved PFC stage. The high current capability of the totem pole gate drive (+0.5/-0.8 A) makes it suitable to effectively drive high gate charge power MOSFETs.
12	V_{CC}	This pin is the positive supply of the IC. The circuit starts to operate when V_{CC} exceeds 12 V and turns off when V_{CC} goes below 10 V (typical values). After start-up, the operating range is 9.5 V up to 20 V.
13	GND	Connect this pin to the pre-converter ground.
14	DRV1	This is the gate drive pin for phase 1 of the interleaved PFC stage. The high current capability of the totem pole gate drive (+0.5/-0.8 A) makes it suitable to effectively drive high gate charge power MOSFETs.
15	REF5V / pfcOK	The pin15 voltage is high (5 V) when the PFC stage is in a normal, steady state situation and low otherwise. This signal serves to "inform" the downstream converter that the PFC stage is ready and that hence, it can start operation.
16	ZCD1	This is the zero current detection pin for phase 1 of the interleaved PFC stage. Apply the voltage from an auxiliary winding to detect the core reset of the inductor and the valley of the MOSFET drain source voltage.