Stacked Switched Capacitor Energy Buffer Architecture

by

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Abstract

Electrolytic capacitors are often used for energy buffering applications, including buffering between single-phase ac and dc. While these capacitors have high energy density compared to film and ceramic capacitors, their life is limited and their reliability is a major concern. This thesis presents a series of stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer architectures which overcome this limitation while achieving comparable effective energy density without electrolytic capacitors. The architectural approach is introduced along with design and control techniques which enable this energy buffer to interface with other circuits. A prototype SSC energy buffer using film capacitors, designed for a 320 V dc bus and able to support a 135 W load has been built and tested with a power factor correction circuit.

This thesis starts with a detailed comparative study of electrolytic, film, and ceramic capacitors, then introduces the principles of SSC energy buffer architectures, and finally designs and explains the design methodologies of a prototype circuit. The experimental results successfully demonstrate the effectiveness of the approach.
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Contents

1 Introduction ................................................ 17
   1.1 Past Work ............................................ 20
   1.2 Organization of Thesis ................................. 21

2 Capacitor Study ............................................ 23
   2.1 Introduction ......................................... 23
   2.2 Capacitor Basics ...................................... 24
   2.3 Capacitor as an Energy Buffer ......................... 25
       2.3.1 Definitions ........................................ 26
       2.3.2 Analysis and Commercially Available Capacitors ... 28
       2.3.3 Highest Energy Storage Density Regions ............. 32
       2.3.4 Comparisons among Different Types of Capacitors . 33
   2.4 Summary .............................................. 34

3 Stacked Switched Capacitor Energy Buffer Architecture ..... 41
   3.1 Specific Embodiments .................................... 42
       3.1.1 1-3 Unipolar Stacked Switched Capacitor (SSC) Energy Buffer 42
       3.1.2 1-\(m\) Unipolar Stacked Switched Capacitor (SSC) Energy Buffer 45
       3.1.3 1-3 Bipolar Stacked Switched Capacitor (SSC) Energy Buffer . 46
       3.1.4 2-4 Bipolar Stacked Switched Capacitor (SSC) Energy Buffer . 48
       3.1.5 \(n-m\) Bipolar Stacked Switched Capacitor (SSC) Energy Buffer 50
       3.1.6 Bipolar Stacked Switched Capacitor (SSC) Energy Buffer with Modified Control ........................................ 53
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B.1 Microcontroller #1</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.2 Microcontroller #2</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.3 PLECS C-script Code</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Figures

1-1 Mismatch in instantaneous power between single-phase ac, \( P_{ac} \), and constant power dc, \( P_{dc} \), results in the need for an energy buffer, as shown in (a), to absorb and supply the energy, \( E_b \), indicated by the shaded area in (b). .................................................. 18

1-2 (a) A simple parallel-series switched capacitor circuit, and (b) its two configurations under alternate switch states. This circuit can constrain bus voltage to within 33.3% of nominal value while providing energy buffering capability of 93.75% of total peak energy-storage capability of the capacitors. ................................................. 20

2-1 Energy storage density of electrolytic capacitors as a function of rated voltage and capacitance. .................................................. 35

2-2 Energy storage density of film capacitors as a function of rated voltage and capacitance. .................................................. 36

2-3 Energy storage density of ceramic capacitors as a function of rated voltage and capacitance. .................................................. 37

2-4 Energy storage density as a function of rated voltage. ................. 38

2-5 Energy buffering density as a function of rated voltage. ............... 38

2-6 Energy storage density as a function of capacitances. ................. 39

2-7 Energy buffering density as a function of capacitance. ............... 39

3-1 General architecture of the stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer. .................................................. 42

3-2 The 1-3 unipolar stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer. . 43
3-3 Switch states, individual capacitor voltages and resulting bus voltage for the 1-3 unipolar stacked switched capacitor energy buffer of Fig. 3-2.

3-4 Switch states, individual capacitor voltages and resulting bus voltage for the 1-3 unipolar stacked switched capacitor energy buffer of Fig. 3-2 with a modified control.

3-5 The 1-m unipolar switched stacked capacitor (SSC) energy buffer.

3-6 The 1-3 bipolar stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer.

3-7 Switch states, individual capacitor voltages and resulting bus voltage for the 1-3 bipolar stacked switched capacitor energy buffer of Fig. 3-6.

3-8 An example embodiment of the stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer architecture: the 2-4 Bipolar SSC energy buffer.

3-9 Switch states, individual capacitor voltages (as seen from a port outside of the h-bridge), and resulting bus voltage over one charging and discharging cycle of the stacked switched capacitor energy buffer of Fig. 3-8.

3-10 The n-m bipolar stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer. The circuit has n backbone and m supporting capacitors.

3-11 Energy buffering ratio ($\Gamma_b$) as a function of the number of backbone capacitors n and number of supporting capacitors m, with 5%, 10% and 20% of voltage ripple ratio ($R_v$).

3-12 Switch states, individual capacitor voltages (as seen from a port outside of the h-bridge), and resulting bus voltage over one charging and discharging cycle of the 2-4 stacked switched capacitor energy buffer with modified control of Fig. 3-8.

4-1 Block diagram of the prototype setup consisting of a power factor correction (PFC) ac-dc converter, a dc load and the prototyped SSC energy buffer. The prototyped SSC energy buffer consists of: the SSC energy buffer power circuit, the precharge circuit, and the control unit.

4-2 The prototyped 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer.
4-3 An example embodiment of the SSC energy buffer architecture: the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer. This circuit has two backbone capacitors $C_{11}$ and $C_{12}$ and six supporting capacitors $C_{21}$ to $C_{26}$ and twelve switches. Precharge and control circuits are not shown.

4-4 Switch states, individual capacitor voltages, and resulting bus voltage over a charge and discharge cycle of the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer of Fig. 4-3.

4-5 Precharge circuit (shaded regions) for the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer.

4-6 Flow chart showing the control logic during precharge and normal operation of the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer.

4-7 Comparisons between the accurate ($V_{fb}$) and approximate ($V_{fb(approx)}$) artificial feedback voltages for a sinusoidal energy buffer terminal current.

5-1 Simulated waveforms of (a) bus voltage ($V_{bus}$), backbone capacitor voltages ($V_{11}$ and $V_{12}$) and voltage across the supporting capacitor that is charging or discharging at the time ($V_{2x}$), and (b) corresponding state (1-24) of the state machine.

5-2 Simulated waveforms of (a) bus voltage ($V_{bus}$), backbone capacitor voltages ($V_{11}$ and $V_{12}$) and voltage across the supporting capacitor that is charging or discharging at the time ($V_{2x}$), and (b) corresponding state (1-24) of the state machine.

5-3 The drain-to-source voltage ($V_{ds}$) of each switch. The maximum $V_{ds}$ for $S_{21}$, $S_{22}$, $S_{23}$, $S_{24}$, $S_{25}$, $S_{26}$, $S_{11}$, $S_{12}$, $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h2}$, are 192 V, 160 V, 128 V, 128 V, 160 V, 192 V, 512 V, 512 V, 192 V, and 192 V, respectively (The voltages of $S_{h3}$ and $S_{h4}$ are identical to that of $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h2}$). $S_{21}$, $S_{22}$, $S_{23}$, $S_{24}$, $S_{25}$, and $S_{26}$ need to block bidirectional voltages.
5-4 The drain-to-source current ($I_{ds}$) of each switch. The maximum $I_{ds}$ for $S_{21}$, $S_{22}$, $S_{23}$, $S_{24}$, $S_{25}$, $S_{11}$, $S_{12}$, $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h2}$, are 0.6400 A, 0.6377 A, 0.6310 A, 0.6196 A, 0.6032 A, 0.6400 A, 0.6400 A, 0.6400 A, and 0.6400 A, respectively (The voltages of $S_{h3}$ and $S_{h4}$ are identical to that of $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h2}$). ........................................... 74

5-5 Measured waveforms of (a) bus voltage ($V_{bus}$), backbone capacitor voltages ($V_{11}$ and $V_{12}$) and voltage across the supporting capacitor that is charging or discharging at the time ($V_{2x}$), and (b) corresponding state (1-24) of the state machine. ........................................... 74

5-6 Prototyped bipolar 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer. ...................... 75

5-7 Round-trip efficiency ($\xi$) of the prototype 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer with and without the control circuit as a function of power drawn by the load. It is compared to the round trip efficiency of the electrolytic-capacitor-only and film-capacitor-only energy buffer. ...................... 76

5-8 Relative size of passive energy storage components in different energy buffer architectures: (a) electrolytic-capacitor-only (9 cm$^3$) (b) film-capacitor-only (65 cm$^3$) and (c) film-capacitor-based SSC (20 cm$^3$) energy buffer. ................................. 78

A-1 The top layer of the board. ........................................... 87
A-2 The 2nd layer of the board. ........................................... 88
A-3 The 3rd layer of the board. ........................................... 89
A-4 The bottom layer of the board. ................................. 90
# List of Tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Datasheets of sampled electrolytic capacitors</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Datasheets of sampled ceramic capacitors</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Datasheets of sampled film capacitors</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Comparison of different energy buffering architectures in terms of energy buffering density based on the information provided by the datasheet</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Comparisons of different SSC energy buffer embodiments</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Comparisons of other energy buffer technologies [10]</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Design specifications for the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer prototype</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>State of the switches during precharge of each of the eight capacitors of the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer. Blank cell indicates the switch is off.</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>States of the twelve switches in the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer corresponding to each of the 24 states of the state machine. Blank cell indicates the switch is off.</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Summary specifications of the prototyped 2-6 bipolar stacked switched capacitor energy buffer</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>The losses composition of the prototyped 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.1</td>
<td>Part number of critical components. All these components have been sized with debugging margins</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 1

Introduction

A key consideration in any power conversion system that interfaces between dc and single-phase ac is the need for energy storage to provide buffering between the constant power desired for a dc source or load and the continuously-varying power desired for a single-phase ac system. Applications for such buffering include high-power factor rectifiers (e.g. for power supplies), solar-to-grid power conversion, and grid-connected LED lighting. Due to the requirement of maintaining good power quality, nearly sinusoidal grid current waveforms (in phase with grid voltage) are desired if a constant power is required at the load side. The single phase ac system delivers varying power at twice line frequency (i.e., 120 Hz in the US) in addition to the desired dc average power. As a result, a high-power factor converter interfacing with the single-phase grid is required to have certain amount of energy buffering capability.

This problem is illustrated in Fig. 1-1. Assuming unity power factor, the power from or to the single-phase ac system, $P_{ac}(t)$, varies sinusoidally at twice-line frequency (120 Hz in the US) between zero and twice its average value, $P_{avg}$, with average ac system power equaling the dc system power, $P_{dc}$:

$$P_{ac}(t) = P_{dc}(1 - \cos(2\omega_{line}t)).$$

(1.1)

Here $\omega_{line}$ is the line’s angular frequency ($2\pi \times 60$ rad/s for the US). The difference in instantaneous power between source and load must be absorbed or delivered by the
Figure 1-1: Mismatch in instantaneous power between single-phase ac, $P_{ac}$, and constant power dc, $P_{dc}$, results in the need for an energy buffer, as shown in (a), to absorb and supply the energy, $E_b$, indicated by the shaded area in (b).

The peak energy that needs to be buffered, $E_b$, is the total energy delivered to (or extracted from) the buffer during a half-line cycle and given by:

$$E_b = \frac{P_{dc}}{\omega_{line}}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.3)

Since the peak buffered energy depends only on the dc system power and the line
frequency, the volume of the energy buffer cannot be reduced simply by increasing
the switching frequency of a power electronic converter interfacing the single-phase
ac and dc systems.

Today, electrolytic capacitors are generally used to provide high-density energy
storage for buffering. However, it is widely appreciated that despite providing the best
available energy density, electrolytic capacitors represent a significant source of system
lifetime and reliability problems. On the other hand, film capacitors have much
higher reliability and lifetime, but considerably lower peak energy density. Hence, the
development of energy buffering architectures that eliminate electrolytic capacitors
while maintaining high energy storage density and high efficiency is important for
future grid interface systems that have small size and high reliability.

While electrolytic capacitors provide much higher peak energy density than film
capacitors (by an order of magnitude), electrolytic capacitors can only be operated
over a narrow charge/discharge range (corresponding to a small voltage ripple) at
120 Hz for thermal and efficiency reasons. These considerations directly limit the en-
ergy buffering capability of electrolytic capacitors at 120 Hz. Thus, while peak energy
densities of up to 0.8 J/cm³ can typically be achieved with commercially available
electrolytic capacitors at the voltage and power levels we consider, the allowable en-
ergy swing at 120 Hz yields practical energy densities that are significantly lower [1].
Film capacitors typically have peak energy densities of only about 0.1 J/cm³. There-
fore, if electrolytic capacitors are simply replaced by film capacitors (with similar
voltage swing constraints), the passive volume would roughly increase by an order
of magnitude, which is usually unacceptable. However, film capacitors have consid-
erably lower series resistance compared to electrolytic capacitors which allows them
to be efficiently charged and discharged over a much wider energy range. Using a
large fraction of the capacitor’s stored energy results in large voltage swings, which is
also unacceptable in most applications. Therefore, if electrolytic capacitors are to be
replaced by film capacitors while maintaining high energy density, this wide variation
in capacitor voltage must somehow be curtailed.
Figure 1-2: (a) A simple parallel-series switched capacitor circuit, and (b) its two configurations under alternate switch states. This circuit can constrain bus voltage to within 33.3% of nominal value while providing energy buffering capability of 93.75% of total peak energy-storage capability of the capacitors.

1.1 Past Work

In past efforts, bidirectional dc-dc converters have been employed to effectively utilize film capacitors while maintaining a desired narrow-range bus voltage [2, 3]. While this approach is flexible in terms of its use, it unfortunately leads to low buffering efficiency if high power density is to be maintained, due to losses in the dc-dc converter. Other systems have incorporated the required energy buffering as part of the operation of the grid interface power stage [4, 5, 6, 7]. This can offset a portion of the buffering loss associated with introduction of a complete additional power conversion stage, but still introduces high-frequency loss and is quite restrictive in terms of operation and application.

An alternative approach relies on switched capacitor circuits. Switched capacitor circuits that reconfigure capacitors between parallel and series combinations have been used to improve the energy utilization of ultra-capacitors [8, 9, 10]. A simple version of this parallel-series switched capacitor circuit is shown in Fig. 1-2. While this circuit has a high energy buffering ratio\(^1\) of 93.75%, it suffers from a large voltage ripple ratio\(^2\) of 33.3%. More complex parallel-series switched capacitor circuits which

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\(^1\)Energy buffering ratio \((\Gamma_b)\) is defined as the ratio of the energy that can be injected and extracted from an energy buffer in one cycle to the total energy capacity of the buffer, i.e., \(\Gamma_b = \frac{E_{max} - E_{min}}{E_{rated}}\), where \(E_{max}\) and \(E_{min}\) are the maximum and minimum values of energy stored in the energy buffer during normal operation, and \(E_{rated}\) is the total energy capacity of the energy buffer.

\(^2\)Voltage ripple ratio \((R_v)\) is defined as the ratio of the peak voltage ripple amplitude to the nominal (or average) value of the voltage, i.e., \(R_v = \frac{V_{max} - V_{min}}{2V_{nom}}\), where \(V_{max}\), \(V_{min}\) and \(V_{nom}\) are the maximum, minimum and nominal values of the voltage, respectively [15].
achieve better voltage ripple ratio have also been developed [10]. However, they suffer from high circuit complexity when high energy utilization and small voltage ripple are required. For example, the circuit with the best performance in [10] (the 8-6-5-4-3 parallel-series switched capacitor circuit) has energy utilization of 92.09% and a voltage ripple ratio of 14.3%. However, it needs 41 switches and 120 capacitors. This makes it overly complicated for practical use.

1.2 Organization of Thesis

To overcome these weaknesses, we propose, design and prototype new switched capacitor structures - Stacked switched capacitor energy buffer architecture. It has the following merits:

1. Realizing small bus voltage variation.
2. Providing high utilization of available peak energy storage capacity.
3. Achieving high efficiency.
4. Comparative simple circuits and small volume.

The remainder of this thesis is organized as follows: Chapter 2 describes the fundamentals of capacitor characteristics, including electrolytic, film and ceramic capacitors. Chapter 3 details the fundamental principles, topological implementations of this architecture and the extensions of the proposed stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer architecture. This chapter also provides design guidelines of selecting an appropriate topology for a particular application. Chapter 4 describes the design and implementation of a prototype SSC energy buffer. The experimental results from this prototype are discussed and compared with simulation in Chapter 5. Finally, Chapter 6 summarizes this thesis and identifies directions for future work. At the end of this thesis, Appendix A provides the implementation details of the prototyped 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer, and Appendix B provides the corresponding control codes.
Chapter 2

Capacitor Study

2.1 Introduction

Power electronic research is pushing towards higher frequency, higher efficiency and smaller volume. Passive components, like capacitors and inductors, function as energy storage device in power electronic circuits. Optimization of the passive devices is an important consideration in these systems.

Achieving better energy buffering capability of capacitors is the main focus of this thesis. There are two ways of doing this. One way is to strengthen their energy storage capability, such as developing advanced dielectric materials to make capacitors perform better. The other way is to improve the ancillary power electronics circuits, making energy storage block of the energy storage systems perform better. Explorations in this direction, such as switching converters and switched capacitor topologies, can be found in the existing literature [6, 8, 9, 10].

Developing advanced circuit topologies for energy buffering is the main goal of this thesis. A systematic comparison of the electrical properties of different kinds of capacitors is a necessary basis for achieving this. In this chapter, we study electrolytic capacitors, film capacitors, and ceramic capacitors based on datasheets of commercial capacitor products. The study verifies the motivations of replacing electrolytic capacitors with film capacitors, and provides guidance for the choice of topologies and components in the circuit implementations we explore.
2.2 Capacitor Basics

Electrolytic capacitors are the most popular type of large value capacitors, e.g. for use in line frequency energy buffering. Electrolytic capacitors are usually polarized, and it is necessary to ensure they are placed in the correct direction. They offer far greater peak energy storage density than do film capacitors. The tradeoff is much higher series resistance, resulting in a limit on rms current for thermal reasons, and an inability to withstand a reverse voltage of significant value. As a result, electrolytic capacitors are most often used as dc-link capacitors, in applications where a large capacitance is needed to reduce the ripple, but the rms current is comparatively small.

Compared to electrolytic capacitors, film capacitors have lower peak energy storage densities, but their rated rms currents are much higher than that of electrolytic capacitors. As a result, film capacitors are common choices for applications that require large currents but relatively little capacitance, such as in snubbers or resonant tanks. Film capacitors are very stable and this enables high tolerance capacitors to be made which maintains stable performance over time. In addition, they have a low dissipation factor, and their capacitance remain stable over a wide temperature range. As a result, film capacitors have earned a place as a reliable form of capacitor for use when stability is critical.

Ceramic capacitors based on different classes of dielectrics are available. Some types provide high precision and stability at low energy densities (e.g., NPO ceramics) and other classes providing high peak energy densities but with wide tolerances (e.g., X7R capacitors based on high-k dielectrics). High-k dielectric ceramic capacitors have a comparable or even higher peak energy storage density than electrolytic capacitors, and are normally used for decoupling and filtering applications where precision is not required. Their stability and tolerance are not nearly as good as those of film capacitors, and their electrical performances (capacitance and equivalent series resistance) are strongly correlated with the dc voltage applied to them.
2.3 Capacitor as an Energy Buffer

Capacitors are used for different purposes in electronic circuits, e.g. voltage stabilization, energy buffering and filtering. The focus of this thesis is on energy buffering applications. In an energy buffer, such as for interfacing a single-phase ac supply to a dc load, the power sourced/sinked from the ac side is usually sinusoidal with a dc average, to maintain a high power factor. And the power sunk/sourced at the dc side is typically constant, to maintain a small dc voltage ripple.

A capacitor is normally connected to the dc bus, whose voltage ripple is usually required to be small. Energy is periodically injected and extracted from the energy buffering capacitor. An example of this is the dc-link capacitor at the output port of the power factor correction (PFC) circuit. The peak amount of energy that a unipolar capacitor can buffer is \( \frac{1}{2}CV_{\text{rated}}^2 \) (assuming that the capacitance doesn’t change with the applied voltage), where \( C \) is the capacitance and \( V_{\text{rated}} \) is the rated voltage of the capacitor. This energy represents the amount stored when this capacitor is charged from 0 V to \( V_{\text{rated}} \). However, since the bus voltage usually cannot swing over a wide range, the total energy that can be injected and extracted from a capacitor cannot reach the total amount of energy that a capacitor can store. Suppose the bus voltage is \( V_{\text{bus}} \), the capacitance is \( C \), and the allowed voltage ripple ratio is \( R_v \) (defined in [15] as the ratio of the peak voltage ripple amplitude to the nominal (or average) value of the voltage), the total amount of energy that a capacitor can store is:

\[
E_{\text{store}} = \frac{1}{2}CV_{\text{rated}}^2 \tag{2.1}
\]

The energy which is buffered in this capacitor is the difference between the energy which the capacitor stores when it is fully charged and the energy which the capacitor stores when it is discharged to the lowest level, such that:

\[
E_{\text{buf}} = \frac{1}{2}C\left(\left(1 + \frac{1}{2}R_v\right)V_{\text{bus}}\right)^2 - \left(\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}R_v\right)V_{\text{bus}}\right)^2 \tag{2.2}
\]

25
For most cases, $E_{\text{buf}}$ is only a small portion of $E_{\text{store}}$. For example\textsuperscript{1}, if $V_{\text{bus}} = 320$ V, $C = 26.4$ µF and $R_v = 10\%$, $V_{\text{rated}}$ should be larger than 352 V, and the total amount of energy that this capacitor can store, $E_{\text{store}}$, equals to 1.64 J. And the energy that has been buffered in this capacitor, $E_{\text{buf}}$, is 0.55 J. In this case, only 33.5\% of the energy storage capability has been used for energy buffering purpose. Moreover, rms current limits for a capacitor can also constrain how much energy can be buffered over one period, with the energy buffering capability decreasing for shorter buffering periods.

When designing a circuit, the size of this energy buffering capacitor is jointly determined by the energy buffering requirements, the maximum bus voltage ripple ratio, together with the rate at which energy can be charged or extracted from the capacitor. If the energy buffering requirement is $E_{\text{buf}}$, and the allowed bus voltage ripple ratio is $R_v$ (peak-to-peak), assuming that the energy charging/extracting rate meets the requirement, the buffering capacitance $C$, satisfies:

$$\frac{1}{2} C (((1 + \frac{1}{2} R_v)V_{\text{bus}})^2 - ((1 - \frac{1}{2} R_v)V_{\text{bus}})^2) \geq E_{\text{buf}}$$

Equation 2.3 can be rewritten as:

$$C \geq \frac{E_{\text{bus}}}{\frac{1}{2} (((1 + \frac{1}{2} R_v)V_{\text{bus}})^2 - ((1 - \frac{1}{2} R_v)V_{\text{bus}})^2)}$$

(2.4)

Usually on capacitor datasheets, the energy charging/extracting speed is denoted by either one or both of the following parameters: the maximum rate of change of voltage, $dV/dt$, and the maximum rms current, $I_{\text{rms}}$. It is necessary to make sure that these two parameters are larger than the actual current which will be injected into the capacitor.

### 2.3.1 Definitions

In this section we present four definitions to study the energy storage capability and energy buffering capability of electrolytic, film and ceramic capacitors.

\textsuperscript{1}See Chapter 4 for the origin of this example.
**Definition 1 : Energy Storage Capacity** \((E_s)\): the total amount of energy that can be stored by an energy storage device.

In general for a capacitor, its energy storage capacity is:

\[
E_s = \int_0^{V_{\text{rated}}} C(v)v \, dv. \tag{2.5}
\]

Here \(C(v)\) is the capacitance which may be a function of capacitor voltage, \(V\). For electrolytic and film capacitors, \(C\), capacitance, is normally a constant, and Eq. 2.5 simplifies to \(E_s = \frac{1}{2} C V_{\text{rated}}^2\). For ceramic capacitors, \(C\) varies with the voltage applied on the capacitor.

**Definition 2 : Energy Storage Density** \((D_s)\): the total amount of energy that can be stored per unit volume by an energy storage device.

Suppose the volume of an energy storage device is \(U\), and its energy storage capacity is \(E_s\), then

\[
D_s = \frac{E_s}{U} = \frac{\int_0^{V_{\text{rated}}} C(v)v \, dv}{U}. \tag{2.6}
\]

**Definition 3 : Energy Buffering Capacity** \((E_b)\): the amount of effective energy that can be discharged or charged into an energy storage device at a specific charging/discharging frequency.

For a capacitor, the total energy that needs to be charged and discharged in one cycle, \(E_c\), is determined by the total charge that has been injected, \(Q\), which is the time integration of the current over half of the cycle, \(Q = \int_0^{T/2} i(t) \, dt\), as well as the initial voltage of the capacitor. Suppose that the capacitor needs to be discharged by \(i(t)\) during half of the cycle period. Ideally, the changing of the voltage \(\Delta V\) between time instance of \(t = 0\) and \(t = T/2\), satisfies:

\[
\Delta V = \frac{\int_0^{T/2} i(t) \, dt}{C}. \tag{2.7}
\]
The changing of the energy stored in the capacitor is:

\[ E_c = \frac{1}{2} CV_{\text{rated}}^2 - \frac{1}{2} C(V_{\text{rated}} - \Delta V)^2. \] (2.8)

The energy which will be consumed by the ESR in one cycle is:

\[ E_r = \int_0^T R_r i^2(t) \, dt. \] (2.9)

The energy that can be effectively buffered by this capacitor is:

\[ E_b = E_c - E_r = \frac{1}{2} CV_{\text{rated}}^2 - \frac{1}{2} C(V_{\text{rated}} - \Delta V)^2 - \int_0^T R_r i^2(t) \, dt. \] (2.10)

**Definition 4** :Energy Buffering Density \((D_b)\): Energy Buffering Density is defined as the total amount of energy that can be buffered per unit volume by an energy storage device at a specific charging/discharging frequency.

Suppose the volume of an energy storage device is \(U\), and its Energy Buffering Capacity is \(E_b\), then:

\[ D_b = \frac{E_b}{U} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} CV_{\text{rated}}^2 - \frac{1}{2} C(V_{\text{rated}} - \Delta V)^2 - \int_0^T R_r i^2(t) \, dt}{U}. \] (2.11)

Note that the Energy Buffering Capacity, as well as the Energy Buffering Density of capacitors are closely correlated with line frequency. Ideally, they should be written as \(E_b(f)\), and \(D_b(f)\). For the reason that we are mostly dealing with line frequency in this thesis, we omit the frequency part and simplify them as \(E_b\), and \(D_b\). In the future discussion, the default line frequency is 60 Hz, and the frequency of interest is twice the line frequency (120 Hz).

### 2.3.2 Analysis and Commercially Available Capacitors

Tables 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 list the capacitors which we have selected for analysis in this study. We chose these based on appropriate considerations of the application
Table 2.1: Datasheets of sampled electrolytic capacitors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Electrolytic Capacitor</th>
<th>Datasheet links</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

of interest and commercial availability of the capacitors. From datasheets of these capacitors, we can get the rated voltage, capacitance, life time, temperature range, size, ripple current at different frequency (rms current), equivalent series resistance (ESR), equivalent series inductance (ESL) and many other parameters. This data serves as the basis of our analysis.²

We search for capacitors with best energy buffering capability from the above datasets. In this thesis, film capacitors with rated voltage between 600 V to 800 V, and capacitance of around 2 $\mu$F are of the main interest in the prototyped 2-6 bipolar

²We sincerely acknowledge Mr. James Page for his contribution of collecting and analyzing the data of ceramic capacitors.
Table 2.2: Datasheets of sampled ceramic capacitors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ceramic Capacitor</th>
<th>Datasheet links</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cornell EIA Class 2 Temperature/Frequency Stable Capacitors</td>
<td><a href="http://www.cde.com/catalogs/SP.pdf">http://www.cde.com/catalogs/SP.pdf</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Chemi-Con Metal Cap Type Multilayer Ceramic Capacitors</td>
<td><a href="http://www.chemi-con.co.jp/e/catalog/pdf/ce-e/ce-sepa-e/ce-ntj-e-110701.pdf">http://www.chemi-con.co.jp/e/catalog/pdf/ce-e/ce-sepa-e/ce-ntj-e-110701.pdf</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.3: Datasheets of sampled film capacitors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Film Capacitor</th>
<th>Datasheet links</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ITW Paktron Type RA Angstor Metallized Polyester Dielectric Capacitor</td>
<td><a href="http://www.paktron.com/pdf/1RA_Angstor.pdf">http://www.paktron.com/pdf/1RA_Angstor.pdf</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KEMET DC Link Film MKP Series</td>
<td><a href="http://www.mouser.com/catalog/specsheets/C4EEHNX7100BAUK.pdf">http://www.mouser.com/catalog/specsheets/C4EEHNX7100BAUK.pdf</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPCOS Metallized Polypropylene Film Capacitor</td>
<td><a href="http://www.epcos.com/inf/20/20/db/fc_2009/MKP_B32674_678.pdf">http://www.epcos.com/inf/20/20/db/fc_2009/MKP_B32674_678.pdf</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SSC energy buffer\textsuperscript{3}. Based on our study, we find that a Metallized Polypropylene Film Capacitor, B32794, manufactured by EPCOS Inc has the highest energy buffering density of 75.36 mJ/cm\textsuperscript{3}. The rated voltage of this capacitor is 630 V with capacitance of 2.5 \(\mu\)F, and its volume is 6.583 cm\textsuperscript{3}. As described in Chapter 4, the topology that will be prototyped in this thesis needs two such capacitors placed in parallel, which makes the total passive volume 13.166 cm\textsuperscript{3}.

In comparison, as described in Chapter 4, the equivalent capacitance for energy buffering purpose of the proposed Stacked Switched Capacitor Energy Buffer is \(12 \times 2.2 \, \mu\)F=26.4 \(\mu\)F. We are interested in addressing how much volume our topology can save as compared with single-cap energy buffer. Thus we also need to find best electrolytic capacitor and film capacitor with capacitance of 30 \(\mu\)F, rated voltage larger than 352 V\textsuperscript{4}, and maximum rms current larger than 0.67 A. Based on our searching results, we found that Panasonic Radial Lead Type Series EE type A aluminum electrolytic capacitor fits best for this. Its energy buffering density is 656.5 mJ/cm\textsuperscript{3}, rated voltage is 400 V, capacitance is 33 \(\mu\)F, and rms current is 355 mA, with a volume of 4.021 cm\textsuperscript{3}. In order to meet the rms current requirement, a pair of such capacitors are needed to be placed in parallel, making the total passive volume becomes 8.042 cm\textsuperscript{3}.

For film capacitor, we found that a Metallized Polypropylene Film Capacitor, B32796, manufactured by EPCOS fits best. It has the highest energy buffering density of 114.02 mJ/cm\textsuperscript{3}. The rated voltage of this capacitor is 450 V with capacitance of 25 \(\mu\)F. Its maximum rms current is 17 A, which is larger than the needed 0.67 A, its total volume is 43.512 cm\textsuperscript{3}.

Table 2.4 shows the comparison of main specifications of these three implementations based on the information provided by the datasheet. Note that this is slightly different from the actual volume comparison of these three architectures which will be discussed in Chapter 5.

\textsuperscript{3}See Chapter 4 for more details.
\textsuperscript{4}This is the maximum voltage that will be applied to the capacitor. In our prototype, the \(V_{bus}\) is chosen to be 320 V and \(V_{ripple}\) is chosen to be 32 V, this makes \(V_{rated}\) to be 352 V.
Table 2.4: Comparison of different energy buffering architectures in terms of energy buffering density based on the information provided by the datasheet.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manufacturer</th>
<th>Backbone capacitor of the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer</th>
<th>Single electrolytic capacitor</th>
<th>Single film capacitor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Series Number</td>
<td>MKP B32794</td>
<td>Series EE type A</td>
<td>MKP B32796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Cap</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rated Voltage (V)</td>
<td>630</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacitance (µF)</td>
<td>2 × 2.5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dielectric materials</td>
<td>Film</td>
<td>Electrolytic</td>
<td>Film</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESR (mΩ @ 10 kHz)</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>4.5 @120 Hz</td>
<td>2.9 @10 kHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESL (nH)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rms Current</td>
<td>4 A@10 kHz</td>
<td>710 mA@120 Hz</td>
<td>17 A@10 kHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volume (cm³)</td>
<td>13.166</td>
<td>8.043</td>
<td>43.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy Storage Density (mJ/cm³)</td>
<td>75.36</td>
<td>656.5</td>
<td>114.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy Buffering Density (mJ/cm³)</td>
<td>72.91</td>
<td>119.48</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3.3 Highest Energy Storage Density Regions

According to the definitions in Section 2.3.1, and using the `curvefit` toolbox of MATLAB, we plot the contour map of capacitance ($C$), rated voltage ($V_{rated}$) and energy storage density ($E_s$) of electrolytic capacitors, film capacitors, and ceramic capacitors, respectively as shown in Fig. 2-1, Fig. 2-2, Fig. 2-3 (at the end of this Chapter). Based on these figures, we have the following three findings:

1. For electrolytic capacitors (Fig. 2-1), the highest energy storage density capacitors among the dataset are found in the 400 V to 500 V, 0 µF to 0.2 µF region. The energy buffering density can reach as high as 0.8 J/cm³. And the highest rated voltage of electrolytic capacitors surveyed is constrained at around 500 V. This indicates that electrolytic capacitors are best fit for mid voltage high capacitance applications.

2. For film capacitors (Fig. 2-2), the highest energy storage density capacitors
among those surveyed are found in the vicinity of 400 V to 800 V, 600uF to 1200uF region. However, the highest energy storage density is only around 0.1 J/cm³. This indicates that film capacitor is best fit for high voltage decoupling applications, but it is not suited for direct use in high capacitance applications.

3. For ceramic capacitors (Fig. 2-3), the highest energy storage density capacitors surveyed are located in the 1000 V to 2000 V, 10 µF to 30 µF region. Theoretically, ceramic capacitors can reach an extremely high energy storage density. Recognizing that ceramic capacitor capacitance decays with the voltage it supports, ceramic capacitors don’t fit best in energy buffering applications but can be used to provide a high-voltage support and high-frequency filtering and decoupling.

2.3.4 Comparisons among Different Types of Capacitors

Here we compare electrolytic, film and ceramic capacitors. By plotting the energy storage density and energy buffering density of different categories of capacitors as shown in Fig. 2-4, Fig. 2-5, Fig. 2-6 and Fig. 2-7 (at the end of this Chapter), we find:

1. Electrolytic capacitors generally have high energy storage density; the energy storage density of ceramic capacitors varies with voltage; and the energy storage density of film capacitor energy storage density is comparatively low.

2. The rated voltage of readily-available electrolytic capacitors only reaches as high as 500 V. This limits the utilization of electrolytic capacitors for higher voltage applications. Film and ceramic capacitors with rated voltage over 1000 V are readily available.

3. Readily available ceramic capacitors have low capacitance; readily available film capacitors cover a wide range capacitance, while electrolytic capacitors usually have large capacitance.
2.4 Summary

Characteristics of three different kinds of capacitors are studied and compared in this chapter. Electrolytic capacitors have energy storage density roughly ten times higher than that of film capacitors. On the other hand, film capacitors are distinguished by their higher rated voltage, higher rms current and lower resistance compared to that of electrolytic capacitors. This gives us the incentive to develop circuit topologies that vary the capacitor voltage across wider range, inject larger current, and make use of the bipolar charging characteristic of film capacitors to compensate for their low energy storage density. The main goal of this thesis is to develop an energy buffer using film capacitors that achieves energy buffering density comparable to that of electrolytic capacitors. The properties of ceramic capacitors were also studied in this Chapter. However, ceramic capacitors are not utilized in circuits developed in this thesis. This can be an area for the future work.
Figure 2-1: Energy storage density of electrolytic capacitors as a function of rated voltage and capacitance.
Figure 2-2: Energy storage density of film capacitors as a function of rated voltage and capacitance.
Figure 2-3: Energy storage density of ceramic capacitors as a function of rated voltage and capacitance.
Figure 2-4: Energy storage density as a function of rated voltage.

Figure 2-5: Energy buffering density as a function of rated voltage.
Figure 2-6: Energy storage density as a function of capacitances.

Figure 2-7: Energy buffering density as a function of capacitance.
Chapter 3

Stacked Switched Capacitor Energy Buffer Architecture

This chapter presents the general architecture and a number of embodiments of the stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer. The proposed stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer works on the principle that its individual buffer capacitors absorb and deliver energy without tightly constraining their individual terminal voltages, but maintaining a narrow range voltage at the buffer port. This enables maximum utilization of its energy storage capability.

Figure 3-1 shows the general architecture of the SSC energy buffer. It is composed of two series-connected blocks of switches and capacitors. The capacitors are of a type that can be efficiently charged and discharged over a wide voltage range (e.g., film capacitors). The switches enable dynamic reconfiguration of both the interconnection among the capacitors and their connection to the buffer port ($V_{\text{bus}}$). The switching network is operated such that the voltage seen at the buffer port varies only over a small range as the capacitors charge and discharge over a wide range to buffer energy. This enables high effective energy density through maximum utilization of the capacitor energy storage capability.

Efficiency of the SSC energy buffer can be extremely high because the switching network need operate at only very low (line-scale) switching frequencies, and the system can take advantage of soft charging of the energy storage capacitors to reduce
loss [14]. Moreover, the proposed buffer architecture exhibits losses that scale with the amount of energy that must be buffered, such that high efficiency can be achieved across the full operating range.

3.1 Specific Embodiments

There are multiple embodiments of the proposed SSC energy buffer. We discuss some of these in the following sections. We start from simple embodiments and modify them to achieve improved performance. This also gives a sense of how these topologies were developed.

3.1.1 1-3 Unipolar Stacked Switched Capacitor (SSC) Energy Buffer

A simple embodiment of the stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer is shown in Fig. 3-2. This version constrains the bus voltage to within ±1/8 of its nominal value, while providing an energy buffering capability of more than 72% of the total peak energy-storage rating of the capacitors (Γ_b = 72%). Pre-charge and control circuitry is not shown. This energy buffer has one backbone capacitor (C_{11}) and three supporting capacitors (C_{21}, C_{22} and C_{23}) interconnected via four switches. The
Figure 3-2: The 1-3 unipolar stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer.

Four capacitors have identical capacitance, but different voltage ratings: $9/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$ for $C_{11}$, $4/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$ for $C_{21}$, $3/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$ for $C_{22}$ and $2/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$ for $C_{23}$, where $\text{V}_{\text{nom}}$ is the nominal value of the bus voltage ($V_{\text{bus}}$). Most of the energy is buffered by the backbone capacitor, which supports most of the voltage. And the supporting capacitors play a supporting function, by buffering small amounts of energy and provides some voltage support. A major function of the supporting capacitors is to keep the total bus voltage in the desired range as the buffer circuit charges and discharges.

Figure 3-3 shows the voltage waveforms of the four capacitors during the charging period of this energy buffer. Pre-charging circuitry (not shown in Fig. 3-2) ensures that the following initial voltages are placed on the four capacitors: $4/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{11}$, $3/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{21}$, $2/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{22}$ and $1/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{23}$). Once the buffer starts to charge, $S_{21}$ is turned on with other switches turned off. In this case, $C_{11}$ and $C_{21}$ are placed in series with each other and charged until the bus voltage reaches $9/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$, when the voltage of $C_{21}$ reaches $4/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$, and the voltage of $C_{11}$ reaches $5/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$. Then $S_{21}$ is turned off, and $S_{22}$ is turned on. After a similar period of time (assuming a constant charging current), the voltage of $C_{22}$ reaches $3/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$ and the voltage of $C_{11}$ reaches $6/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$. Then $S_{23}$ is turned on and $C_{23}$ is charged. In this way, $S_{21}$, $S_{23}$, and $S_{21}$ are turned on and off one after another and the voltage of $C_{11}$, $C_{21}$, $C_{22}$, and $C_{23}$ finally reach $9/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$, $4/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$, $3/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$ and $2/8 \text{ V}_{\text{nom}}$. Then the circuit enters the discharging period. The switches are turned on and off in reverse order during the discharging cycle. Hence, the voltage waveforms during the discharging
period are the time reverse of those in the charging period. Note that Fig. 3-3 only shows the waveforms during the charging period.

Hence, by changing the switch configurations appropriately as energy is delivered to and from the buffer port, individual capacitors can be charged/discharged over a wide range (from their initial voltages to rated voltages), while the voltage at the buffer port is maintained within a narrow range (within $\pm 1/8$ of $V_{\text{nom}}$) as shown in Fig. 3-3. This structure provides energy buffering of up to $8/11$ (72.7%) of the peak energy storage rating of the capacitors, while providing a buffer port voltage that remains within $\pm 1/8$ of a nominal bus voltage.

The 1-3 Unipolar SSC energy buffer can also be operated in slightly different manner as shown in Fig. 3-4. Unlike the control strategy of Fig. 3-3, this strategy gives equal time to all four switch states due to their equal capacitance. The required voltage rating of the supporting capacitors is lower than in the original design. However, with this modification the energy buffering ratio of the buffer reduces to 68.4% compared to 72.7% of the original design.
3.1.2 1-\textit{m} Unipolar Stacked Switched Capacitor (SSC) Energy Buffer

The 1-3 unipolar SSC energy buffer can be extended to achieve a smaller bus voltage variation or a higher energy buffering ratio by adding more supporting capacitors (in parallel to the three upper capacitors in Fig. 3-2) as shown in Fig. 3-5. Reducing the voltage variation of each capacitor will enable a smaller bus voltage variation, while putting more capacitors in parallel will achieve a high energy buffering ratio. The energy buffering ratio for a 1-\textit{m} unipolar SSC energy buffer (i.e., one with 1 backbone capacitor of value $C_1$ and \textit{m} supportive capacitors of equal value $C_2$) for $R_v$ of voltage ripple ratio is given by:

$$\Gamma_b = \frac{C_1((1 + R_v)^2 - (1 - mR_v)^2) + (mR_v)^2}{C_1(1 + R_v)^2 + C_2(1 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \ldots + m^2)R_v^2}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.1)$$

Here $R_v$ follows the definition in Chapter 1 and [15].
3.1.3 1-3 Bipolar Stacked Switched Capacitor (SSC) Energy Buffer

Film capacitors are bipolar and can be charged in either direction. We can take advantage of this fact and improve our topology and operating strategy to push the energy buffering ratio even higher. We call the improved design that takes advantage of the bipolar charging capability of film capacitors the bipolar stacked switched capacitor SSC energy buffer.

Figure 3-6 shows an example of this bipolar topology: the 1-3 bipolar SSC energy buffer. This circuit can constrain bus voltage to within $\pm 1/8$ of a nominal value, while providing an energy buffering capability of 71.1% of the total peak energy-storage rating of the capacitors. Three supporting capacitors ($C_{21}$, $C_{22}$ and $C_{23}$) and one backbone capacitor ($C_{11}$) having identical capacitance values but different voltage ratings ($3/8 V_{\text{nom}}$, $2/8 V_{\text{nom}}$, $1/8 V_{\text{nom}}$, and $11/8 V_{\text{nom}}$ respectively) are interconnected via switches. The main difference of this topology compared to the unipolar one is that the four supporting capacitors are now put into an h-bridge to enable bi-directional charging. For operating strategy, pre-charging circuitry (not shown) ensures that specified initial voltages are placed on the capacitors ($2/8 V_{\text{nom}}$, $1/8 V_{\text{nom}}$, 0 and $5/8 V_{\text{nom}}$ respectively). At first, $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h4}$ are turned on and $S_{h2}$ and $S_{h3}$ are turned off. Then this topology operates as the unipolar buffer as described above until the voltage
of the four capacitors reaches $3/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$, $2/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$, $1/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$, and $V_{\text{nom}}$, respectively. At this time, $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h4}$ are turned off and $S_{h2}$ and $S_{h3}$ are turned on, thus the voltages that can be applied by the three supporting capacitors to the $V_{\text{bus}}$ "stack" voltage are reversed to $-3/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$, $-2/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$ and $-1/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$, while the voltage applied by the backbone capacitor, $C_{11}$, stays the same. After a similar charging process, the three supporting capacitors are charged back to $-2/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$, $-1/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$ and 0, with the voltage of $C_{11}$ charged up to $11/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$.

When the maximum buffered energy is reached, the energy is discharged from the buffer in the time-reverse manner: the three capacitors are charged back in the other direction until $3/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$, $2/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$ and $1/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$, the bridge switches are flipped to apply the supporting capacitor voltages to the external circuit in the positive direction, and then the supporting capacitors are sequentially discharged down to $2/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$, $1/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$ and 0 again, while $C_{11}$ is discharged all the way discharged back to $5/8 \ V_{\text{nom}}$. The waveforms of the voltage of capacitors during a charging period are shown in Fig. 3-7.

As described above, by changing the switch configurations appropriately as energy is delivered to and from the buffer port, the individual capacitors can charge over a
wide range (from their initial voltages to rated voltages), while the voltage at the buffer port is maintained within a narrow range (within ±1/8 of $V_{nom}$) as shown in Fig. 3-7. This structure provides energy buffering of 65.6% of the peak energy storage rating of the capacitors, while providing a buffer port voltage that remains within ±1/8 of a nominal bus voltage. While this energy buffering ratio is lower than that of the 1-3 unipolar design, the bipolar SSC energy buffer with a slightly modified control and design methodology (as described later in this document) increases its energy buffering ratio to 71.1%.

### 3.1.4 2-4 Bipolar Stacked Switched Capacitor (SSC) Energy Buffer

Figure 3-8 shows the embodiment of the 2-4 bipolar SSC energy buffer, by adding one backbone capacitor and one supporting capacitor into the 1-3 bipolar SSC energy buffer. It has two backbone capacitors and six supporting capacitors. The supporting capacitors can be connected in reverse direction by reconfiguring the h-bridge. This
circuit can constrain bus voltage to within $\pm 1/8$ of a nominal value, while providing an energy buffering capability of 75.8% of the total peak energy storage rating of the capacitors. Pre-charge and control circuitry are not shown. The six capacitors have identical capacitance, but different voltage ratings. The two backbone capacitors, $C_{11}$ and $C_{12}$ have voltage ratings of $13/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$, where $V_{\text{nom}}$ is the nominal value of the bus voltage ($V_{\text{bus}}$). The voltage rating of the four supporting capacitors is as follows: $5/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ for $C_{21}$, $4/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ for $C_{22}$, $3/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ for $C_{23}$, and $2/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ for $C_{24}$. Pre-charging circuitry (not shown in Fig. 3-8) ensures that the following initial voltages are placed on the six capacitors: $3/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{11}$, $3/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{12}$, $4/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{21}$, $3/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{22}$, $2/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{23}$, and $1/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{24}$.

When the energy buffer starts charging up from its minimum state of charge (as shown in Fig. 3-9), $S_{h1}, S_{h4}, S_{21}$ and $S_{11}$ are turned on with all the other switches turned off. In this state, $C_{11}$ and $C_{21}$ are connected in series and charged until the bus voltage rises from $7/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ to $9/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$. At this instant the voltage of $C_{21}$ ($V_{21}$) reaches $5/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ and the voltage of $C_{11}$ ($V_{11}$) reaches $4/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$. Then $S_{21}$ is turned off and $S_{22}$ is turned on; and the bus voltage drops back down to $7/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$. After a similar period of time (assuming a constant charging current) the voltage of $C_{22}$ reaches $4/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ and the voltage of $C_{11}$ reaches $5/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ and the bus voltage again
reaches $9/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$. Next $S_{22}$ is turned off, $S_{23}$ is turned on and $C_{23}$ is charged. This process is repeated until $C_{24}$ is charged. At this point the capacitor voltages are: $7/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{11}$, $3/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{12}$, $5/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{21}$, $4/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{22}$, $3/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{23}$ and $2/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{24}$; and the bus voltage is $9/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$. Next $S_{h4}$ is turned off, and $S_{h2}$ is turned on along with $S_{h3}$. Hence, the bus voltage again drops to $7/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$. Now $C_{11}$ can continue to charge up through the supporting capacitors (with their application voltage reversed) through a process similar to the one described above, except that the supporting capacitors are discharged in reverse order, i.e., first through $C_{24}$, then through $C_{23}$, and so on until finally through $C_{21}$. At this instant $C_{11}$ is fully charged to $13/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ and charging of $C_{12}$ must begin. For this the h-bridge switches are toggled (i.e., $S_{h2}$ and $S_{h3}$ are turned off, and $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h4}$ are turned on), $S_{11}$ is turned off and $S_{12}$ is turned on. The charging process for $C_{12}$ is identical to the charging process for $C_{11}$. The switch states, the capacitor voltages (as seen from a port outside the h-bridge) and the resulting bus voltages over a complete charge and discharge cycle are shown in Fig. 3-9. The voltage waveforms are shown assuming a constant charging current.

During the discharge period, the capacitors $C_{11}$ and $C_{12}$ are discharged one at a time through a process that is the reverse of the charging process. Hence, the voltage waveforms during the discharge period are a mirror of those in the charging period. Throughout the charging and discharging period of this energy buffer the bus voltage stays within the $7/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ to $9/8 \, V_{\text{nom}}$ range. Hence, the 2-4 Bipolar SSC energy buffer has a (nominal to peak) voltage ripple ratio of 12.5% of $V_{\text{nom}}$.

The 2-4 bipolar SSC energy buffer with voltage ripple ratio of 12.5% of nominal achieves an energy buffering ratio of 75.8%.

### 3.1.5 $n$-$m$ Bipolar Stacked Switched Capacitor (SSC) Energy Buffer

The topology in Fig. 3-8 can be extended by adding more backbone and supporting capacitors, as shown in Fig. 3-10. Note that the capacitor that does the majority of the
Figure 3-9: Switch states, individual capacitor voltages (as seen from a port outside of the h-bridge), and resulting bus voltage over one charging and discharging cycle of the stacked switched capacitor energy buffer of Fig. 3-8.
energy buffering in the circuit of Fig. 3-8 is the backbone capacitor $C_{11}$. Therefore, by replacing $C_{11}$ with a parallel bank of capacitors plus selector switches, we can achieve better buffering performance. The supporting capacitors in this case have to switch at a higher switching frequency. The energy buffering ratio for this n-m bipolar SSC energy buffer (with n backbone capacitors of equal value $C_1$ and m supporting capacitors with equal value $C_2$) is given by:

$$\Gamma_b = \frac{nC_1((1 + 2mR_v\frac{C_2}{C_1+C_2})^2 - (1 - 2mR_v\frac{C_2}{C_1+C_2})^2)}{nC_1(1 + 2mR_v\frac{C_2}{C_1+C_2})^2 + C_2(1 + 2^2 + 3^2 + ... + m^2)R_v^2}.$$  (3.2)

Figure 3-11 shows the variation in energy buffering ratio, $\Gamma_b$, (with $C_1$ equal to $C_2$) as a function of the number of backbone capacitors $n$ and the number of supporting capacitors $m$ for three different values of voltage ripple ratio $R_v$. These plots indicate that there is an optimal number of supporting capacitors that should be used for a given number of backbone capacitors in order to maximize the energy buffering ratio. Note that this optimal number of supporting capacitors depends on the value of allowed voltage ripple ratio.

These plots can be used to select the optimal number of backbone and supporting capacitors to maximize the energy buffering ratio for a given bus voltage ripple ratio. If a larger voltage ripple ratio is allowed, a high energy buffering ratio can be achieved.
with fewer backbone and supporting capacitors. For a fixed number of backbone capacitors, a lower voltage ripple ratio requires a larger number of supporting capacitors if maximum energy buffering is to be achieved. However, increasing the number of supporting capacitors also increases the complexity of the circuit and the switching frequency of the switches associated with the supporting capacitors ($S_{21}$-$S_{2m}$).

### 3.1.6 Bipolar Stacked Switched Capacitor (SSC) Energy Buffer with Modified Control

Similar to the unipolar stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer, the bipolar SSC energy buffer can also be controlled in a slightly different manner. Instead of charging the backbone capacitors only in series with the supporting capacitors, a state can be introduced by turning $S_{h3}$ and $S_{h4}$ (or $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h2}$) on at the same time in which the backbone capacitor is charged directly. An example of this control is shown in Fig. 3-12 for the 2-4 bipolar SSC energy buffer of Fig. 3-8. With this modified control, and assuming that all capacitors have the same capacitance, the expression for energy buffering ratio becomes:

$$\Gamma_b = \frac{nC_1((1 + (m + 1)R_v)^2 - (1 - (m + 1)R_v)^2)}{nC_1(1 + (m + 1)R_v)^2 + C_2(2^2 + 3^2 + \ldots + (m + 1)^2)R_v^2}. \quad (3.3)$$

The energy buffering ratio of this 2-4 bipolar SSC energy buffer increases from 75.8% to 79.4% with this modified control methodology.

### 3.2 Summary

This Chapter introduces the basic structure of the stacked switched capacitor energy buffer. A series of embodiments of stacked switched capacitor energy buffer are explained in details. Table 3.1 summarizes the energy buffering ratio of different implementations operating within $\pm 1/8$ of $V_{bus}$. Table 3.2 is placed here as a reference for the technology described in [10]. The 8-7 Bipolar SSC energy buffer reaches an
Figure 3-11: Energy buffering ratio ($\Gamma_b$) as a function of the number of backbone capacitors $n$ and number of supporting capacitors $m$, with 5%, 10% and 20% of voltage ripple ratio ($R_v$).
Figure 3-12: Switch states, individual capacitor voltages (as seen from a port outside of the h-bridge), and resulting bus voltage over one charging and discharging cycle of the 2-4 stacked switched capacitor energy buffer with modified control of Fig. 3-8.
Table 3.1: Comparisons of different SSC energy buffer embodiments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSC energy buffer</th>
<th>Num. of Swi.</th>
<th>Num.of Cap.</th>
<th>$\Gamma_b$</th>
<th>$R_v$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-3 unipolar SSC</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>72.70%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 unipolar SSC (m)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>68.40%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 bipolar SSC</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>65.57%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 bipolar SSC (m)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>71.11%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-4 bipolar SSC</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>75.83%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-4 bipolar SSC (m)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>79.37%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6 bipolar SSC (m)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>86.49%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-7 bipolar SSC (m)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>91.59%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-8 bipolar SSC (m)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>95.05%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32-8 bipolar SSC (m)</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>97.33%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64-9 bipolar SSC (m)</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>98.52%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2: Comparisons of other energy buffer technologies [10].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Circuit of [10]</th>
<th>Num. of Swi.</th>
<th>Num.of Cap.</th>
<th>$\Gamma_b$</th>
<th>$R_v$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One single capacitor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.06%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-1 parallel-seris</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>93.75%</td>
<td>33.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-2-1 parallel-seris</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>98.44%</td>
<td>33.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-4-2-1 parallel-seris</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>99.61%</td>
<td>33.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-4-3-2 parallel-series</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>95.06%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-3 parallel-seris</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>68.36%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-4-3 parallel-series</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>79.75%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-5-4-3 parallel-series</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>85.94%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-6-5-4-3 parallel-series</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>92.09%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

energy buffering ratio of 91.59% with only 19 switches and 15 capacitors for 12.5% of $R_v$, which is significantly simpler than the 8-6-5-4-3 parallel-series implementation introduced in [10].

In general, energy buffering ratio approaches one as the circuit complexity increases. However, increasing circuit complexity increases cost, risk of failure, and brings higher switching losses. Circuit designers should choose appropriate topologies to reach a balance between circuit complexity and energy buffering ratio. This chapter provides theoretical basis for the implementation of this SSC energy buffer in Chapter 4.
Chapter 4

Prototype Design

This chapter focuses on the design and simulation considerations of this stacked switched capacitor (SSC) energy buffer prototype, and leave the simulation and experimental results of this prototype described in Chapter 5.

The prototype is designed as the energy buffer for a power factor correction (PFC) front-end of a two-stage single-phase ac to dc power converter as shown in Fig. 4-1. The SSC energy buffer replaces the electrolytic capacitor normally connected at the output of the PFC. To simplify our implementation, a load resistor is used in place of the second-stage dc-dc converter. The SSC energy buffer is designed to meet a 10% bus voltage ripple ratio requirement on a 320 V dc bus with a maximum load of 135 W, as listed in Table 4.1.

The PFC used for this prototype is a 400 W evaluation board from STMicroelectronics that uses their transition-mode PFC controller (L6562A). This controller operates the boost PFC at the boundary between continuous and discontinuous conduction mode by adjusting the switching frequency. The evaluation board has a

| Table 4.1: Design specifications for the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer prototype. |
|--------------------------------------|------|
| **Design Specification**             | **Value** |
| Maximum load power \((P_{\text{load(max)}})\) | 135 W     |
| Bus voltage \( (V_{\text{bus}}) \)       | 320 V     |
| Voltage ripple ratio \((R_v)\)           | 10%      |
Figure 4-1: Block diagram of the prototype setup consisting of a power factor correction (PFC) ac-dc converter, a dc load and the prototyped SSC energy buffer. The prototyped SSC energy buffer consists of: the SSC energy buffer power circuit, the precharge circuit, and the control unit.

330 $\mu$F, 450 V electrolytic capacitor at the output of the PFC, and according to the PFC datasheet can maintain a voltage ripple ratio of 2.5%, while supplying a 400 W load at a bus voltage of 400 V. We have experimentally verified that a 40 $\mu$F electrolytic capacitor is sufficient to support 135 W of output power with 10% voltage ripple ratio. The total volume of the 40 $\mu$F, 450 V electrolytic capacitor used for this verification is approximately 9 cm$^3$.

The energy buffer that replaces this electrolytic capacitor consists of three functional blocks: the energy buffer power circuit, the precharge circuit and the control unit, as shown in Fig. 4-1. In addition, the energy buffer needs to provide a feedback signal to the PFC for its proper operation. The design of each of these four elements is discussed below.

4.1 Energy Buffer Power Circuit

As shown in Fig. 3-11(b), to achieve a voltage ripple ratio of 10% with a two-backbone-capacitor ($n=2$) bipolar SSC energy buffer, the optimal number of supporting capacitors is six, (i.e., $m=6$). Hence in the prototype, the electrolytic capacitor is replaced by a 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer. Note that for an $R_v$ of 10%, with 8 backbone and 8 supporting capacitors, an energy buffering ratio of 91.6% can be achieved. Hence, the SSE energy buffer achieves performance similar to the 8-6-5-4-3 parallel-series
Figure 4-2: The prototyped 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer.

switched capacitor circuit of [10] with only 16 capacitors and 20 switches instead of 120 capacitors and 41 switches.

To meet the 10% voltage ripple requirement at the 320 V bus voltage and the 135 W output power level, the eight capacitors of the SSC energy buffer have to be 2.2 \( \mu \)F each. The required voltage rating of these film capacitors is different and ranges from 32 V to 512 V as discussed in Chapter 3. However, for simplicity and to provide adequate safety margin, 700 V film capacitors are used as the two backbone capacitors and 250 V capacitors are used as the six supporting capacitors. All the switches are implemented using silicon power MOSFETs. Switches \( S_{11}, S_{12}, S_{21}, S_{22}, S_{23}, S_{24}, S_{25}, S_{26} \) are implemented with reverse voltage blocking capability. The schematic of this 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer is shown in Fig. 4-3.

This topology has two backbone capacitors, \( C_{11} \) and \( C_{12} \); six supporting capacitors, \( C_{21}, C_{22}, C_{23}, C_{24}, C_{25}, \) and \( C_{26} \); and twelve switches, \( S_{11}, S_{12}, S_{21}, S_{22}, S_{23}, S_{24}, S_{25}, S_{26}, S_{h1}, S_{h2}, S_{h3}, \) and \( S_{h4} \). This circuit can keep the bus voltage ripple within 10% of nominal value when designed and operated in the manner described below.

The eight capacitors are chosen to have identical capacitance, but different voltage ratings. The two backbone capacitors, \( C_{11} \) and \( C_{12} \), have voltage rating of \( 1.6V_{\text{nom}} \), where \( V_{\text{nom}} \) is the nominal value of the bus voltage (\( V_{\text{bus}} \)). The voltage rating of the six supporting capacitors is as follows: \( 0.6V_{\text{nom}} \) for \( C_{21}, 0.5V_{\text{nom}} \) for \( C_{22}, 0.4V_{\text{nom}} \).
for $C_{23}$, 0.3$V_{\text{nom}}$ for $C_{24}$, 0.2$V_{\text{nom}}$ for $C_{25}$ and 0.1$V_{\text{nom}}$ for $C_{26}$. A precharge circuit (not shown in Fig. 4-3, but discussed in section 4.2) ensures that the following initial voltages are placed on the eight capacitors: 0.4$V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{11}$, 0.4$V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{12}$, 0.5$V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{21}$, 0.4$V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{22}$, 0.3$V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{23}$, 0.2$V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{24}$, 0.1$V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{25}$, and 0 V on $C_{26}$.

Figure 4-4 shows the switch states, the capacitor voltages and the resulting bus voltage for the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer over a complete charge and discharge cycle. When the energy buffer starts charging up from its minimum state of charge, $S_{h1}$, $S_{h4}$, $S_{21}$ and $S_{11}$ are turned on with all the other switches turned off. In this state, $C_{11}$ and $C_{21}$ are connected in series and charged until the bus voltage rises from 0.9$V_{\text{nom}}$ to 1.1$V_{\text{nom}}$. At this instant the voltage of $C_{21}$ ($V_{21}$) reaches 0.6$V_{\text{nom}}$ and the voltage of $C_{11}$ ($V_{11}$) reaches 0.5$V_{\text{nom}}$. Then $S_{21}$ is turned off and $S_{22}$ is turned on; and the bus voltage drops back down to 0.9$V_{\text{nom}}$. Then as the charging continues, the voltage of $C_{22}$ rises to 0.5$V_{\text{nom}}$ and the voltage of $C_{11}$ reaches 0.6$V_{\text{nom}}$ and the bus voltage again reaches 1.1$V_{\text{nom}}$. Next $S_{22}$ is turned off, $S_{23}$ is turned on and $C_{23}$ is charged. This process is repeated until $C_{26}$ is charged. At this stage all the supporting capacitors are at their maximum voltage; the voltage of the backbone capacitors is: $V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{11}$ and 0.4$V_{\text{nom}}$ on $C_{12}$; and the bus voltage is 1.1$V_{\text{nom}}$. Next $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h4}$ are turned off, and $S_{h3}$ and $S_{h2}$ are turned on. This connects $C_{26}$, and the other supporting capacitors, in reverse orientation with $C_{11}$ and the bus voltage again drops to 0.9$V_{\text{nom}}$. Now $C_{11}$ can continue to charge up through the now reverse-connected supporting capacitors through a process similar to the one described above, except that the supporting capacitors are discharged in reverse order, i.e., first through $C_{26}$, then through $C_{25}$, and so on until finally through $C_{21}$. At this stage $C_{11}$ is fully charged to 1.6$V_{\text{nom}}$ and charging of $C_{12}$ must begin. For this the h-bridge switches are again toggled (i.e., $S_{h3}$ and $S_{h2}$ are turned off, and $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h4}$ are turned on), $S_{11}$ is turned off and $S_{12}$ is turned on. The charging process for $C_{12}$ is identical to the charging process for $C_{11}$, as shown in Fig. 4-4. During the discharge period, the capacitors $C_{11}$ and $C_{12}$ are discharged one at a time through a process that is the reverse of the charging process. Hence, the voltage waveforms during the discharge
Figure 4-3: An example embodiment of the SSC energy buffer architecture: the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer. This circuit has two backbone capacitors $C_{11}$ and $C_{12}$ and six supporting capacitors $C_{21}$ to $C_{26}$ and twelve switches. Precharge and control circuits are not shown.

period are a mirror of those in the charging period.

Throughout the charging and discharging period of this energy buffer, the bus voltage stays within the range $0.9V_{\text{nom}}-1.1V_{\text{nom}}$. Hence, the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer operating in this manner has a bus voltage ripple ratio ($R_v$) of 10%. Furthermore, it has an energy buffering ratio ($\Gamma_b$) of 79.6%.

Figure 4-4: Switch states, individual capacitor voltages, and resulting bus voltage over a charge and discharge cycle of the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer of Fig. 4-3.
4.2 Precharge Circuit

An important part of the SSC energy buffer is the precharge circuit. When the system starts, the precharge circuit draws power from the PFC to charge the individual capacitors of the energy buffer to the desired initial voltage levels. The precharge circuit designed here uses a linear regulator operated as a current source as shown in Fig. 4-5. The linear regulator used is Supertex LR8 with a maximum output current of 20 mA. The linear regulator can be disconnected from the energy buffer power circuit by two isolating switches $S_{p1}$ and $S_{p2}$.

The precharge circuit is controlled by an ATMEAL ATmega2560 microcontroller. The flow chart of the precharge control is shown in Fig. 4-6. A scaled down version of the voltage across each capacitor is compared with a specified reference provided by the microcontroller through a digital to analog converter (DAC). The results of the comparison are fed back to the microcontroller to trigger an interrupt.

During precharge, the microcontroller turns the switches on or off appropriately to connect the current source to the capacitor that needs to be charged. The states (on or off) of the switches for charging a particular capacitor during the precharge period...
Table 4.2: State of the switches during precharge of each of the eight capacitors of the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer. Blank cell indicates the switch is off.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$C_{11}$</th>
<th>$C_{12}$</th>
<th>$C_{21}$</th>
<th>$C_{22}$</th>
<th>$C_{23}$</th>
<th>$C_{24}$</th>
<th>$C_{25}$</th>
<th>$C_{26}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$S_{11}$</td>
<td>on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{12}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{21}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{22}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{23}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{24}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{25}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>on</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{26}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{h1}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{h2}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{h3}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{h4}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{p1}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
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<td>on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{p2}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_s$</td>
<td></td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>on</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

are shown in Table 4.2. First $S_{p1}$, $S_{p2}$, $S_{21}$, $S_{h4}$ and $S_s$ are turned on, and all the other switches are turned off to charge $C_{21}$. The microcontroller senses the voltage of $C_{21}$ (through the voltage divider formed by $R_{21}$ and $R_{22}$) and compares it with the specified precharge voltage ($0.5V_{\text{nom}}=160$ V). Once the voltage of $C_{21}$ reaches 160V, $S_{21}$ is turned off and $S_{22}$ is turned on to charge $C_{22}$ to its specified precharge level. Similarly, $C_{23}$, $C_{24}$, $C_{25}$ and $C_{26}$ are charged one at a time to their designed initial level. Once $C_{26}$ is charged, $S_{26}$, $S_{h4}$ and $S_s$ are turned off, and $S_{h2}$ and $S_{11}$ are turned on to charge $C_{11}$. Now the microcontroller senses the voltage of $C_{11}$ (through the voltage divider formed by $R_{11}$ and $R_{12}$) and compares it with the specified precharge voltage ($0.4V_{\text{nom}}=128$ V). Once the voltage of $C_{11}$ is larger than 128 V, $S_{11}$ is turned off and $S_{12}$ is turned on to charge $C_{12}$. Once all the capacitors are precharged, the precharge circuit is disconnected from the SSC energy buffer by switches $S_{p1}$ and $S_{p2}$, and the energy buffer enters normal operation.
Figure 4-6: Flow chart showing the control logic during precharge and normal operation of the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer.
4.3 Control

The normal operation of the energy buffer is also controlled by a state machine implemented in the ATMEL ATmega2560 microcontroller. The state machine controls the state (on or off) of the twelve switches in the SSC energy buffer power circuit. The state machine has a total of 24 states, with each state corresponding to a unique and valid combination of the states of the twelve switches, as shown in Table 4.3.

The flow chart of the normal operation mode control logic of the energy buffer is shown in Fig. 4-6. In this flow chart, $s$ denotes the current state of the state machine. The energy buffer starts normal operation in state 1 (i.e., $s=1$), which corresponds to minimum energy stored in the buffer, and starts to charge up. Once the bus voltage reaches the maximum allowed voltage, $1.1V_{\text{nom}}$ (352 V), the $\hat{UP}$ interrupt is triggered and the state is incremented by one (i.e., $s=s+1$). The microcontroller turns the appropriate power switches on or off to match the configuration for the new state. This drops the bus voltage back to $0.9V_{\text{nom}}$ (288 V), and the charging of the energy buffer continues until it again reaches the upper voltage limit. This process is repeated as long as the energy buffer is being charged and it has not reached state 24. Once the energy buffer has reached state 24, the state machine stays in state 24 even if it receives additional $\hat{UP}$ interrupts. This helps protect the energy buffer to a certain extent in case load power exceeds its design specifications. During this overload condition the energy buffer looks like a $1.1 \mu F$ capacitor to the external system. The energy buffer will return to normal operation once the load power returns to the design range.

During discharge of the energy buffer, the $\hat{DOWN}$ interrupt is triggered when the bus voltage reaches the minimum allowed voltage, $0.9V_{\text{nom}}$ (288 V). This decrements the state by one (i.e., $s=s-1$). The microcontroller turns the appropriate power switches on and off to match the configuration for the new state and the bus voltage increases to $1.1V_{\text{nom}}$ (352 V). This process is repeated each time the bus voltage reaches the lower voltage limit until it has reached state 1. As in the case of charging, to protect the energy buffer, the state machine stays in state 1 even if it receives
additional DOWN interrupts.

Hence during normal operation at maximum power, the state machine will iterate through states 1 through 24 in a sequential manner, first going from 1 to 24 as it charges, and then returning from 24 to 1 as it discharges, and this process is repeated as long as the energy buffer is in normal operation.

4.4 Artificial Voltage Feedback

In a conventional system with an energy buffering electrolytic capacitor at the output of the PFC, the PFC uses the bus voltage (i.e., the voltage across the buffering capacitor) to control its output current. The bus voltage is scaled down by a resistive divider and fed back to the PFC control chip. Since the bus voltage is a good measure of the energy stored in the capacitor, this feedback mechanism ensures that the average output power from the PFC matches the power drawn by the dc load and the system stays stable. However, when the electrolytic capacitor is replaced with the SSC energy buffer, the bus voltage is no longer a true representation of the energy stored in the energy buffer. Hence, an artificial signal must be generated (and fed back to the PFC control chip) that represents the energy stored in the energy buffer and mimics the bus voltage of the electrolytic capacitor. In our prototype this function is performed by a second ATMEG ATmega2560 microcontroller.

In the precharge mode, the SSC energy buffer behaves simply like two capacitors connected in series. Hence, during this period, the bus voltage reflects the energy stored inside the two capacitors and so the voltage that needs to be fed back is simply a scaled version of the bus voltage.

Once the energy buffer enters normal operating mode, its stored energy increases monotonically as it goes from state 1 to state 24 and then decreases monotonically as it returns to state 1. The energy that gets stored in the energy buffer as it goes from state 1 to state 24 is given by:

\[
\Delta E(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{2} C_i(V_i(t)^2 - V_{i0}^2),
\]  

(4.1)
Table 4.3: States of the twelve switches in the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer corresponding to each of the 24 states of the state machine. Blank cell indicates the switch is off.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>S_{21}</th>
<th>S_{22}</th>
<th>S_{23}</th>
<th>S_{24}</th>
<th>S_{25}</th>
<th>S_{11}</th>
<th>S_{12}</th>
<th>S_{h1}</th>
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</table>
where $N$ is the total number of capacitors in the energy buffer (eight in the 2-6 bipolar SSC case), $C_i$ is the capacitance of capacitor $i$, $V_i(t)$ is the voltage of capacitor $i$ at time $t$, and $V_{i0}$ is the initial voltage of capacitor $i$ after it is precharged. In our prototype all eight capacitors have the same capacitance $C_b$ (equal to 2.2 $\mu$F). The effective energy in the energy buffer as a function of time is given by:

\[ E_{b(eq)}(t) = \frac{1}{2} C_{eq} V_{min}^2 + \Delta E(t), \]  

where $C_{eq}$ is an equivalent capacitance for this energy buffer valid while it is operating in normal operating mode, and is given by:

\[ C_{eq} = \frac{2 \int_{t_1}^{t_2} p(t) \, dt}{V_{t_2}^2 - V_{t_1}^2}. \]  

Here $p(t)$ is the power flowing into the energy buffer, and $V_{t_1}$ and $V_{t_2}$ are the voltages at beginning (time $t_1$) and the end (time $t_2$) of the charging period, respectively. For our prototype, $C_{eq}$ is equal to 26.4 $\mu$F.

Hence, the voltage that needs to be fed back in normal operating mode is given by:

\[ V_{fb}(t) = \sqrt{\frac{C_{eq} V_{min}^2 + 2 \Delta E(t)}{C_{eq}}}. \]  

This feedback signal reflects the apparent energy stored in the energy buffer.

While the expression given by Eq. 4.4 for the normal operating mode feedback signal can be implemented, it is simpler to implement an approximation to this expression which works just as well within the resolution of our 8-bit digital to analog converter (DAC). The approximate feedback signal is derived assuming that the feedback voltage signal is linear between two switching instances and the current flowing into or out of the energy buffer is constant (i.e., current has a square profile). This

\footnote{Note that $E_{b(eq)}$ as given by Eq. 4.2 is not the actual energy in the energy buffer but rather the apparent energy.}
Figure 4-7: Comparisons between the accurate ($V_{fb}$) and approximate ($V_{fb(approx)}$) artificial feedback voltages for a sinusoidal energy buffer terminal current.

The approximate feedback voltage is given by:

$$V_{fb(approx)}(t) = V_{min} + (V_{max} - V_{min}) \frac{i}{24} + (V_{bus}(t) - V_{min}) \frac{C_b}{2C_{eq}}. \quad (4.5)$$

Figure 4-7 shows that this approximate feedback signal matches the more accurate one quite well even when the terminal current of the energy buffer is sinusoidal. It has been experimentally demonstrated that the slower outer control loop of the PFC works well with this approximate feedback signal.

### 4.5 Summary

This chapter describes the prototype design of the SSC energy buffer. We selected the energy buffer required at the output port of a PFC circuit as our targeted application. Then we picked the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer as our prototype topology, which best fits this application. The designs of the control strategy, precharge circuit and artificial feedback methodology are then introduced in detail. The simulation and experimental results of this 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer will be discussed in Chapter 5. Hardware implementation details of this prototype is provided in Appendix A.
Chapter 5

Simulation and Experimental Results

5.1 Simulation

A PLECS\textsuperscript{1} model for this energy buffer has been built to simulate this prototype. Fig. 5-1 shows the schematics of this PLECS simulation model. A sinusoidal current source ("I$_{ac}$") is applied at the two terminals of the 2-6 bipolar stacked switched capacitor energy buffer. The eight capacitors’ initial voltages are set to be the precharge voltages as described in Chapter 4. After the simulation starts, the “Cap-Voltage Probe” observes the voltages of each of capacitors and passes the information to the “C-Script” block, which simulates the microcontroller. Finally, the “C-Script” block processes the information and outputs the switching commands.

Figure 5-2 shows the voltage waveforms of the bus voltage and the capacitor voltages. Figure 5-3 and Fig. 5-4 show the drain-to-source voltage ($V_{ds}$) and current ($I_{ds}$) of each switch during one operating cycle, respectively. These figures will be referred in Appendix A when sizing the switches of the prototype.

\footnote{PLECS is a simulation tool for power electronic circuits.}
Figure 5-1: Simulated waveforms of (a) bus voltage ($V_{bus}$), backbone capacitor voltages ($V_{11}$ and $V_{12}$) and voltage across the supporting capacitor that is charging or discharging at the time ($V_{2x}$), and (b) corresponding state (1-24) of the state machine.

Figure 5-2: Simulated waveforms of (a) bus voltage ($V_{bus}$), backbone capacitor voltages ($V_{11}$ and $V_{12}$) and voltage across the supporting capacitor that is charging or discharging at the time ($V_{2x}$), and (b) corresponding state (1-24) of the state machine.
Figure 5-3: The drain-to-source voltage ($V_{ds}$) of each switch. The maximum $V_{ds}$ for $S_{21}$, $S_{22}$, $S_{23}$, $S_{24}$, $S_{25}$, $S_{26}$, $S_{11}$, $S_{12}$, $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h2}$ are 192 V, 160 V, 128 V, 128 V, 128 V, 192 V, 512 V, 512 V, 192 V, and 192 V, respectively. (The voltages of $S_{h3}$ and $S_{h4}$ are identical to that of $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h2}$). $S_{21}$, $S_{22}$, $S_{23}$, $S_{24}$, $S_{25}$, and $S_{26}$ need to block bidirectional voltages.

5.2 Experimental Results

5.2.1 Functionalities

The prototype 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer has been successfully tested with the PFC and a load resistor up to power levels of 135 W. Details of the prototype, including hardware implementation process and component list are provided in Appendix A. A photo of the set-ups are shown in Fig. 5-6. The measured waveforms from the energy buffer operated at 100 W are shown in Fig. 5-5. As the energy flows into and out of the energy buffer at 120 Hz, the backbone capacitors are charged and discharged over a wide voltage range. However, this voltage variation is compensated for by the supporting capacitors and the bus voltage remains within the 300 V and 370 V range. Hence, it meets the voltage ripple ratio design requirement of 10%.

Comparing Fig. 5-5 and Fig. 5-2, there is a reasonably close match between the experimental and simulated waveforms. The main difference is due to the fact that
Figure 5-4: The drain-to-source current ($I_{ds}$) of each switch. The maximum $I_{ds}$ for $S_{21}$, $S_{22}$, $S_{23}$, $S_{24}$, $S_{25}$, $S_{26}$, $S_{11}$, $S_{12}$, $S_{h1}$, and $S_{h2}$, are 0.6400 A, 0.6377 A, 0.6310 A, 0.6196 A, 0.6032 A, 0.5816 A, 0.6400 A, 0.6400 A, 0.6400 A, and 0.6400 A, respectively. (The voltages of $S_{h3}$ and $S_{h4}$ are identical to that of $S_{h1}$ and $S_{h2}$).

Figure 5-5: Measured waveforms of (a) bus voltage ($V_{bus}$), backbone capacitor voltages ($V_{11}$ and $V_{12}$) and voltage across the supporting capacitor that is charging or discharging at the time ($V_{2x}$), and (b) corresponding state (1-24) of the state machine.
in the simulation the terminal current of the energy buffer is assumed to be perfectly sinusoidal, while in the case of the experimental setup that is not exactly the case. Figure 5-5(b) shows the state of the state machine. As can be seen, the state machine goes down to state 4 and up to state 24. The state machine does not go into states 1, 2 and 3 in its normal operating mode as the load power is not large enough to discharge it down to its minimum stored energy level. The circuit behaves as designed, and validates the concept of the stacked switched capacitor energy buffer.

5.2.2 Performances

A summary of the specifications of this prototype is shown in Table. 5.1. The highest load it can support is 127.6 W, with a highest operating efficiency of 97.0% (without loss in the control circuits) and 10% of voltage ripple ratio. The round-trip efficiency of the prototype 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer was measured for the 18.9 W to 127.6 W load power range as shown in Fig. 5-7. The efficiency stays above 95.3%
Table 5.1: Summary specifications of the prototyped 2-6 bipolar stacked switched capacitor energy buffer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maximum Load</td>
<td>127.6 W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltage Ripple Ratio</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum Efficiency</td>
<td>97.0% at 127.6 W</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5-7: Round-trip efficiency ($\xi$) of the prototype 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer with and without the control circuit as a function of power drawn by the load. It is compared to the round trip efficiency of the electrolytic-capacitor-only and film-capacitor-only energy buffer.

throughout this power range. We noticed an efficiency drop of around 0.2% at the power range of around 65 W, which indicates a 0.13 W power lose by flipping of the H-bridge.

The control and gate drive circuit were not designed for high efficiency in our prototype. From the measurement, losses consumed by the gate drivers and the Digital to Analog Converters are roughly staying at 6.67 W over the entire operating range, which significantly diminished the efficiency of the SSC energy when it is supplying light load (e.g. the efficiency drops from 92.79% to 78.97% for 30 W of load).
Table 5.2: The losses composition of the prototyped 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Loss</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gate Drivers (Adum5230)</td>
<td>3.0 W</td>
<td>44.77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduction and Parasitic Loss</td>
<td>2.5 W</td>
<td>37.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltage Dividers, Comparators, D/A and A/D Converters</td>
<td>1.0 W</td>
<td>14.93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microcontrollers (ATMEL ATmega2560)</td>
<td>0.2 W</td>
<td>2.98%</td>
</tr>
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</table>

The losing mechanism of this prototype can be evaluated combining the information we get from the experimental results and the datasheets of each component. The result shown in Table 5.2 indicates that the gate drivers are the main loss mechanism for this prototype. More efficient gate driving techniques can significantly improve the overall efficiency of the system. Parasitic and conducting losses take the other large proportion, which can be reduced by better layout of the components.

The prototype energy buffer successfully replaces the function of the electrolytic capacitor at the output of the PFC. Its passive volume of 20 cm$^3$, which is much smaller than the 65 cm$^3$ needed for a film-capacitor-only solution, is only about twice the size of the 9 cm$^3$ electrolytic capacitor it replaces, as shown in Fig. 5-8. Hence, the SSC energy buffer achieves energy buffering density comparable to an electrolytic capacitor while providing much longer life.

5.3 Summary

This chapter presents the experimental results of the prototyped 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer. The efficiency is measured over a wide load range, with a highest measured efficiency of 97.0% (not considering the loss of the control circuits). The total passive volume of the prototype is 13 cm$^3$, which is comparable to the 9 cm$^3$ of the electrolytic-capacitor-only energy buffer, and much smaller than the 65 cm$^3$ of the film-capacitor-only energy buffer. It is verified that the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer with film capacitors can successfully replace the function of the electrolytic capacitor as energy buffers, and potentially achieve much higher reliability and longer life time.
Figure 5-8: Relative size of passive energy storage components in different energy buffer architectures: (a) electrolytic-capacitor-only (9 cm$^3$) (b) film-capacitor-only (65 cm$^3$) and (c) film-capacitor-based SSC (20 cm$^3$) energy buffer.
Chapter 6

Summary, Conclusions and Future Work

6.1 Summary

This thesis introduces and studies stacked switched capacitor (SSC) architecture for dc-link energy buffering applications, including buffering between single-phase ac and dc. Traditionally, electrolytic capacitors are used as energy buffers as they have high energy density. However, they fail to fully use their energy storage capacity due to constrain of maintaining small bus voltage ripples. And their limited life is an issue. Film capacitors have much longer life but a roughly order of magnitude lower energy density.

By appropriately reconfiguring the connections of capacitors in two stacked layers, the SSC architecture is capable of utilizing the energy storage capability of capacitors more effectively than previous switched capacitor designs, while still maintaining the bus voltage ripple within a narrow range. This allows the energy buffer to achieve higher effective energy buffering density, and reduce the volume of passive components in power electronic circuits. In the proposed stacked switched capacitor energy buffer, with two-layer architecture, energy is mainly stored in one layer of capacitors (backbone capacitors), with the other layer of capacitors works as a voltage ripple compensator. In this case, although the capacitors which store energy have wide
voltage swing, the bus voltage will only have a comparative small voltage ripple.

A prototype of this architecture has been built. Considering the application requirements to keep the circuit complexity at a minimum, we picked the 2-6 SSC energy buffer topology for prototype. The SSC energy buffer is connected at the output port of a 400 W power factor correction (PFC) circuit to replace the use of a 40 $\mu$F electrolytic capacitor and required to supply 135 W of output power while maintaining a voltage ripple ratio of 10%. A linear regulator working as a current source is used to perform the function of a precharge circuit that charges all the capacitors of the SSC energy buffer to their initial start-up voltage. A microcontroller controls the switching of the SSC energy buffer by operating a 24-state state-machine. It makes decisions by observing the variations in the bus voltage. Another microcontroller, alone with analog/digital converters, generates an artificial feedback signal which reflects the actual amount of energy stored in the energy buffer. This signal is fed back to the PFC to generate the PWM signal which controls the duty ratio of the PFC.

### 6.2 Conclusions

The prototype proves the fundamental principles of this architecture. The PFC functions as a current source with rms current equal to the required load current. And the prototype functions identical to a 26.4 $\mu$F 450 V electrolytic capacitor, using only 17.8 $\mu$F of film capacitor (of different rated voltages). It is able to supply 127.6 W of power at 320 V with 10% of voltage ripple ratio. It is shown that the SSC energy buffer can successfully replace the limited-life electrolytic capacitors with much longer life film capacitors, while maintaining volume and efficiency at a comparable level. The volume of the passive device is comparable with the original electrolytic capacitor. The prototyped 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer has a peak round trip efficiency of 97.00%.

This thesis proves that the SSC architecture is an effective way of enhancing the effective energy density of film capacitors while maintaining a narrow bus voltage vari-
ation in an energy buffering application. The SSC energy buffer architecture enables the use of film capacitors in replace of electrolytic capacitors and hence overcomes capacitor life-limitation without an order of magnitude increase in passive volume. For different application requirements, different embodiments of the SSC energy buffer architecture should be selected. A detailed selecting methodology has been introduced in Chapter 3.

### 6.3 Future Work

The stacked switched capacitor energy buffer architectures demonstrated in this thesis is the first attempt of applying this architecture for energy buffering applications. It would be valuable to evaluate the use of ceramic capacitors, in place of film capacitors, as the supporting capacitors in the SSC architecture. Also there are other implementations of the stacked switched capacitor energy buffer architecture. They should also be explored in the future.
Appendix A

Hardware Implementation

This appendix lists some useful details of the hardware implementation of the prototyped 2-6 bipolar switched stacked capacitor (SSC) energy buffer. The detailed explanations and design considerations of the topology can be found in Chapter 4, and the simulation and experimental results of this prototype can be found in Chapter 5.

A.1 Component Selecting

A.1.1 Capacitors and Switches

As described in Chapter 4, we simulated the circuit with PLECS and plot the drain to source voltage ($V_{ds}$) and current ($I_{ds}$) of all switches. The related waveforms are shown in Fig. 5-3 and Fig. 5-4. Based on this, each switch can be sized according to the maximum $V_{ds}$ and $I_{ds}$ applied on it. Similarly, capacitors of this prototype can be sized according to the simulation results shown in Fig. 5-2. The part numbers of selected switches and capacitors are listed in Table A.1.

A.1.2 Gate Drivers

The six high level switches and the four h-bridge switches in the 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer architecture are floating switches, as a result, we use AD5301, an isolated
half-bridge gate driver chip with isolated dc-dc power supply, followed by FAN3111, a low side gate driver which is able to supply currents as high as 1.0 A to drive these floating switches. As described in Chapter 5, this gate driver has a high quiescent energy consumption (around 200mW each). To design a customized gate driver for the SSC energy buffer is an interesting and valuable topic for the further investigation of this technology.

A.1.3 Precharge Circuits

We connect Supertex LR8 linear regulator as a current source to conduct the function of precharge circuit. The precharge circuit is isolated from the power circuit when the periodic operating period begins. The circuit which connects Supertex LR8 as a current source can be found from its application notes.

A.1.4 Microcontrollers

Two ATMEL ATmega2560 8 bit 16 MHz microcontrollers are used in this prototype. One is used for controlling the switching states, providing the appropriate threshold voltages, \( V_{up} \), \( V_{down} \) through DACs, and communicating with the other microcontroller to feed the actual amount of energy that is stored by the SSC energy buffer back to the power factor correction (PFC) circuit. We call this controller as Microcontroller#1. The other microcontroller, called Microcontroller#2, senses the bus voltage through a voltage divider and an ADC, communicates with Microcontroller#1 and generates the feedback signal through another DAC.

A.1.5 Data Conversion Circuits

The data conversion circuits include four low speed Digital to Analog Converters (DACs), four comparators, one high speed Analog to Digital Converter (ADC), one high speed DAC and several active signal buffers. The four AD5301 serial 8-bit voltage output DACs with 8 \( \mu \)s of output settling time is used for generating the four threshold voltage during the precharge and periodic operating mode. These
DACs’s transition frequency is far below the line frequency so that it can use serial communication (I2C). One AD7822 parallel 8 bit ADC with 420 ns of conversion time, and one AD558 parallel 8 bit DAC with 3 µs of conversion time is used for sensing the bus voltage and generating the feedback signals. Their short conversion time minimizes the loop delay of the voltage feedback and maintains the stability of the system.

A.1.6 Other Ancillary Circuits

There are several ancillary circuits which are implemented in a standard way without specifically selecting the components, including voltage dividers, testing points, connection jacks, decoupling capacitors and isolating transformers. We also use two CLARE CPC1779J DC power relays to provide a guaranteed isolation between the precharge circuit and power circuit for debugging purpose.

A.2 PCB Layouts

We draw the SSC architecture of this 2-6 bipolar SSC energy buffer on a 4 layer 1oz PCB board with EAGLE\(^1\). The PCB layout of the four layers as well as necessary drills and pads are shown in Fig. A-1, Fig. A-2, Fig. A-3, and Fig. A-4. They satisfy the commonly used layout electronic rule check (ERC) and design rule check (DRC) criteria.

\(^1\)EAGLE: A printed circuit boards (PCB) designing tool.
Table A.1: Part number of critical components. All these components have been sized with debugging margins.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part Number</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Function</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$C_{11}$</td>
<td>2.2 $\mu$F KEMET MKPB32794</td>
<td>Backbone Capacitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{12}$</td>
<td>2.2 $\mu$F KEMET MKPB32794</td>
<td>Backbone Capacitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{21}$</td>
<td>2.2 $\mu$F CORNELL DME4W22K-F</td>
<td>Supporting Capacitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{22}$</td>
<td>2.2 $\mu$F CORNELL DME4W22K-F</td>
<td>Supporting Capacitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{23}$</td>
<td>2.2 $\mu$F CORNELL DME2W22K-F</td>
<td>Supporting Capacitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{24}$</td>
<td>2.2 $\mu$F CORNELL DME2W22K-F</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2.2 $\mu$F CORNELL DME1W22K-F</td>
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<td>2.2 $\mu$F CORNELL DME1W22K-F</td>
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<tr>
<td>$S_{11}$</td>
<td>STMicroelectronics STP12NK80Z</td>
<td>Blocking 382 V voltage (bipolar)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{12}$</td>
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<td>Blocking 382 V voltage (bipolar)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>STMicroelectronics STP12NK40Z</td>
<td>Blocking 192 V voltage (bipolar)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$S_{22}$</td>
<td>STMicroelectronics STP12NK40Z</td>
<td>Blocking 160 V voltage (bipolar)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Blocking 128 V voltage (bipolar)</td>
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<td>Blocking 192 V voltage (bipolar)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_s$</td>
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<td>Blocking 700V voltage</td>
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<tr>
<td>$S_{iso1}$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$S_{iso2}$</td>
<td>Fairchild FQT1N80TF</td>
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<tr>
<td>$R_{11}$</td>
<td>100 k$\Omega$</td>
<td>Voltage divider</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_{12}$</td>
<td>1 k$\Omega$</td>
<td>Voltage divider</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_{21}$</td>
<td>100 k$\Omega$</td>
<td>Voltage divider</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_{22}$</td>
<td>1 k$\Omega$</td>
<td>Voltage divider</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_{load}$</td>
<td>1000 k$\Omega$ 250 W</td>
<td>Power resistor</td>
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<td>IC</td>
<td>Maxim FAN3111</td>
<td>Gate driver</td>
</tr>
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<td>IC</td>
<td>Analog Device ADUM5230</td>
<td>Gate driver</td>
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<tr>
<td>IC</td>
<td>Analog Device AD5301</td>
<td>DAC</td>
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<tr>
<td>IC</td>
<td>Maxim MAX9031</td>
<td>Comparator</td>
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<td>Analog Device AD7822</td>
<td>ADC for dummying the feedback</td>
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<td>IC</td>
<td>Analog Device AD820</td>
<td>Op-Amp signal buffer</td>
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<td>IC</td>
<td>Analog Device AD558</td>
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<td>IC</td>
<td>ATMEL ATmega2680</td>
<td>Microcontroller</td>
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<td>Supertex LR8</td>
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<td>STMicroelectronics L6562A</td>
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<tr>
<td>DC Relay</td>
<td>CLARE CPC1779J</td>
<td>DC power relay</td>
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</table>
Figure A-1: The top layer of the board.
Figure A-2: The 2nd layer of the board.
Figure A-3: The 3rd layer of the board.
Figure A-4: The bottom layer of the board.
Appendix B

Codes

B.1 Microcontroller #1

```c
//This is the operating code of the Microcontroller #1. It is a ...
ATMEL Mega2560 Microcontroller running on Arduino programming ...
platform. The code is writing in C.

//by Minjie Chen 12/06/2011.

//including necessary communication packages
#include <Wire.h>

//assigning addresses for the ADCs
#define DAC0 (B0001100)//350V
#define DAC1 (B0001101)//Smallcapvoltage
#define DAC2 (B0001110)//450V
#define DAC3 (B0001111)//Bigcapvoltage,interrupt 4

//define the Port name for the eight main switch, giving to PORTL
#define S1 (B10000000)
#define S2 (B01000000)
#define S3 (B00100000)
#define S4 (B00010000)
#define S5 (B00001000)
```
//defining the setting functions of DACs
void dacwrite(int address, int voltage) {
    int value = (voltage)/1.5;
    int Highvalue = value/16;
    int Lowvalue = (value−Highvalue*16)*16;
    byte HighBit = B00001111 & (byte(Highvalue));
    byte LowBit = B11110000 & (byte (Lowvalue));
    Wire.beginTransmission(address);
    Wire.send(HighBit);  // send data
    Wire.send(LowBit);
    Wire.endTransmission();
}

//initializing the register values
int RegUL=0;
int RegUC=0;
int RegDL=0;
int RegDC=0;
int PORTLC=0;
int PORTLD=0;
int PORTFC=0;
int PORTFD=0;
int OutputL=0;
int OutputC=0;
int Busstate = 1;
int C1Ready=0;
int C2Ready=0;
int C3Ready=0;
int C4Ready=0;
int C5Ready=0;
int C6Ready=0;
int C7Ready=0;
int C8Ready=0;
int Run=0;
int sum=0;
int count =0;
int state=0;
int switchstate=0;
int Δ=32;
int vbus=320;

//setting up and intiatling the system
void setup(){

    //turning on communication packages
    Wire.begin();

    //enabling output ports
    DDRL=B11111111;
    DDRF=B11111111;
    DDRG=B11111111;
    DDRA=B11111111;

    //indicating precharge signals
    pinMode(50,OUTPUT);
    digitalWrite(50,LOW);
    pinMode(51,OUTPUT);
    digitalWrite(51,LOW);

    //initialing output ports
PORTG=B00000000;
state=0;
RegUL=0;
RegUC=0;
RegDL=0;
RegDC=0;
PORTLC=0;
PORTLD=0;
PORTFC=0;
PORTFD=0;
OutputL=0;
OutputC=0;
Busstate =1;
C1Ready=0;
C2Ready=0;
C3Ready=0;
C4Ready=0;
C5Ready=0;
C6Ready=0;
C7Ready=0;
C8Ready=0;
Run=0;
sum=0;
count =0;

//discharging capacitors and initialing switch states
PORTL = B10000000;
PORTL = B01000000;
PORTL = B00100000;
PORTL = B00010000;
PORTL = B00001000;
PORTL = B00000100;
PORTL = B00000010;
PORTL = B00000001;
PORTL = B00000000;
PORTF = B10000000;
PORTF = B01000000;
PORTF = B00100000;
PORTF = B00010000;
PORTF = B00001000;
PORTF = B00000100;
PORTF = B00000010;
PORTF = B10000001;
PORTF = B00000000;

}  

//loop functions
void loop() {

    //checking the status of precharge
    sum=C1Ready+C2Ready+C3Ready+C4Ready+C5Ready+C6Ready+C7Ready+C8Ready;

    //precharging the circuit if not all the capacitors have been ... precharged
    if ((sum<8) && (Run==0)) {

        //initialing
        PORTA = Busstate;
        PORTL = B00000000;
        PORTF = B00000000;
        PORTG = PRECHARGE;
        digitalWrite(50,LOW);
        digitalWrite(51,LOW);
        PORTL = B00000000;
        delayMicroseconds(10);

        //precharging C11
        dacwrite(DAC3,75);//rewriting the DACs
        PORTL = S1;//setting up PORTL
        PORTF = S9;//setting up PORTF
        state = 1;//reset the signal variable which indicates the ...
                    situation of each capacitors

}
state = digitalRead(19); // read in new signal variable
delayMicroseconds(10); // read in delay
// if the capacitor is not fully charged
while (state==0)
{
    // charging
    PORTF = S9 | SUP;
delayMicroseconds(1);
    // refreshing the signal variable again
    state = digitalRead(19);
}
PORTF = S9;
// indicating that C1 is fully charged
C1Ready = 1;
// switching off all switches
PORTL = B00000000;
delayMicroseconds(10);

// precharging C12
dacwrite(DAC3, 4*A);
PORTL = S2;
PORTF = S9;
state = 1;
state = digitalRead(19);
delayMicroseconds(10);
while (state==0)
{
    PORTF = S9 | SUP;
delayMicroseconds(1);
    state = digitalRead(19);
}
PORTF = S9;
C2Ready = 1;
PORTL = B00000000;
delayMicroseconds(10);
//precharging C21

dacwrite(DAC0, 95);
PORTL = S3;
PORTF = S0 | SSHORT;
state = 1;
state = digitalRead(2);
delayMicroseconds(10);
while (state==0)
{
    PORTF = S0 | SUPSHORT;
    delayMicroseconds(1);
    state = digitalRead(2);
}
PORTF = S0 | SSHORT;
C3Ready = 1;
PORTL = B00000000;
delayMicroseconds(10);

//precharging C22

dacwrite(DAC0, 4*Δ);
PORTL = S4;
PORTF = S0 | SSHORT;
state = 1;
state = digitalRead(2);
delayMicroseconds(10);
while (state==0)
{
    PORTF = S0 | SUPSHORT;
    delayMicroseconds(1);
    state = digitalRead(2);
}
PORTF = S0 | SSHORT;
C4Ready = 1;
PORTL = B00000000;
delayMicroseconds(10);
// precharging C23

dacwrite(DAC0, 3*Δ);
PORTL = S5;
PORTF = S0 | SSHORT;
state = 1;
state = digitalRead(2);
delayMicroseconds(10);
while (state==0)
{
    PORTF = S0 | SUPSHORT;
    delayMicroseconds(1);
    state = digitalRead(2);
}
PORTF = S0 | SSHORT;
CSReady = 1;
PORTL = B00000000;
delayMicroseconds(10);

// precharging C24

dacwrite(DAC0, 2*Δ);
PORTL = S6;
PORTF = S0 | SSHORT;
state = 1;
state = digitalRead(2);
delayMicroseconds(10);
while (state==0)
{
    PORTF = S0 | SUPSHORT;
    delayMicroseconds(1);
    state = digitalRead(2);
}
PORTF = S0 | SSHORT;
C6Ready = 1;
PORTL = B00000000;
delayMicroseconds(10);
269  // precharging C25
270  dacwrite(DAC0, ∆);
271  PORTL = S7;
272  PORTF = S0 | SSHORT;
273  state = 1;
274  state = digitalRead(2);
275  delayMicroseconds(10);
276  while (state==0)
277  {
278    PORTF = S0 | SUPSHORT;
279    delayMicroseconds(1);
280    state = digitalRead(2);
281  }
282  PORTF = S0 | SSHORT;
283  C7Ready = 1;
284  PORTL = B00000000;
285  delayMicroseconds(10);
286
287  // precharging C26
288  dacwrite(DAC0, 0);
289  PORTL = S8;
290  PORTF = S0 | SSHORT;
291  state = 1;
292  state = digitalRead(2);
293  delayMicroseconds(10);
294  while (state==0)
295  {
296    PORTF = S0 | SUPSHORT;
297    delayMicroseconds(1);
298    state = digitalRead(2);
299  }
300  PORTF = S0 | SSHORT;
301  C8Ready = 0;
302  PORTL = B00000000;
303  delayMicroseconds(10);
//finishing the precharge and set-up for the periodic ...

if ((sum==8) && (Run==0)) {
    //turning on the LED to show that the precharge is finished
    digitalWrite(51,HIGH);
    PORTG = B00000000;
    PORTF = B00000000;
    PORTL = B00000000;

    //setting up up-threshold
    dacwrite(DAC0,vbus+Δ);

    //setting up down-threshold
    dacwrite(DAC2,vbus-Δ);

    //setting up initial states of the state machine registers
    RegUL=S1 | S4;
    RegUC=S400V | S0;
    RegDL=S1 | S3;
    RegDC=S400V | S0;
    delay(3);

    //setting up initial states of the output ports
    PORTL=S1 | S3;
    PORTF=S400V | S0;
    delayMicroseconds(10);

    //finishing setting ups
    Run=1;
}

//entering periodic operating mode
if (Run==1) {

//keeping the LED on
digitalWrite(50, HIGH);

//setting up the external switches
PORTG = PERIODIC;
PORTA = Busstate;

//state machine up-trigger
if (digitalRead(2) == 1)
{
    UP();
}

//state machine down-trigger
if (digitalRead(3) == 1)
{
    DOWN();
}

//State machine operating function
void DOWN()
{
    //outputing the control signal
    RegUL = PORTL;
    RegUC = PORTF;
    PORTL = RegDL;
    PORTF = RegDC;

    //decreasing the Busstate
    Busstate = Busstate --;

    //protective action if exceeding the operating range
    if (Busstate < 1)
    {
    }}
Busstate=1;

// updating the down register according to the current Busstate
switch (Busstate)
{
    case 1:
        RegDL=S1 | S3;
        RegDC=S400V | S0;
        break;
    case 2:
        RegDL=S1 | S3;
        RegDC=S400V | S0;
        break;
    case 3:
        RegDL=S1 | S4;
        RegDC=S400V | S0;
        break;
    case 4:
        RegDL=S1 | S5;
        RegDC=S400V | S0;
        break;
    case 5:
        RegDL=S1 | S6;
        RegDC=S400V | S0;
        break;
    case 6:
        RegDL=S1 | S7;
        RegDC=S400V | S0;
        break;
    case 7:
        RegDL=S1 | S8;
        RegDC=S400V | S0;
        break;
    case 8:
        RegDL=S1 | S8;
RegDL=S1 | S9;
break;
case 9:
    RegDL=S1 | S7;
    RegDC=S400V | S9;
    break;
case 10:
    RegDL=S1 | S6;
    RegDC=S400V | S9;
    break;
case 11:
    RegDL=S1 | S5;
    RegDC=S400V | S9;
    break;
case 12:
    RegDL=S1 | S4;
    RegDC=S400V | S9;
    break;
case 13:
    RegDL=S1 | S3;
    RegDC=S400V | S9;
    break;
case 14:
    RegDL=S2 | S3;
    RegDC=S400V | S0;
    break;
case 15:
    RegDL=S2 | S4;
    RegDC=S400V | S0;
    break;
case 16:
    RegDL=S2 | S5;
    RegDC=S400V | S0;
    break;
case 17:
    RegDL=S2 | S6;
RegDC=S400V | S0;
break;
case 18:
    RegDL=S2 | S7;
    RegDC=S400V | S0;
    break;
case 19:
    RegDL=S2 | S8;
    RegDC=S400V | S0;
    break;
case 20:
    RegDL=S2 | S8;
    RegDC=S400V | S9;
    break;
case 21:
    RegDL=S2 | S7;
    RegDC=S400V | S9;
    break;
case 22:
    RegDL=S2 | S6;
    RegDC=S400V | S9;
    break;
case 23:
    RegDL=S2 | S5;
    RegDC=S400V | S9;
    break;
case 24:
    RegDL=S2 | S4;
    RegDC=S400V | S9;
}

//State machine operating function
void UP()
{
    //outputing the control signal
RegDL=PORTL;
RegDC=PORTF;
PORTL=RegUL;
PORTF=RegUC;

//increasing Busstate
Busstate=Busstate++;

//protective action if exceeding the operating range
if (Busstate>24)
{
    Busstate=24;
}

//updating the up register according to the current Busstate
switch (Busstate)
{
    case 1:
        RegUL=S1 | S4;
        RegUC=S400V | S0;
        break;
    case 2:
        RegUL=S1 | S5;
        RegUC=S400V | S0;
        break;
    case 3:
        RegUL=S1 | S6;
        RegUC=S400V | S0;
        break;
    case 4:
        RegUL=S1 | S7;
        RegUC=S400V | S0;
        break;
    case 5:
        RegUL=S1 | S8;
        RegUC=S400V | S0;
break;

case 6:
    RegUL=S1 | S8;
    RegUC=S400V | S9;
    break;

case 7:
    RegUL=S1 | S7;
    RegUC=S400V | S9;
    break;

case 8:
    RegUL=S1 | S6;
    RegUC=S400V | S9;
    break;

case 9:
    RegUL=S1 | S5;
    RegUC=S400V | S9;
    break;

case 10:
    RegUL=S1 | S4;
    RegUC=S400V | S9;
    break;

case 11:
    RegUL=S1 | S3;
    RegUC=S400V | S9;
    break;

case 12:
    RegUL=S2 | S3;
    RegUC=S400V | S0;
    break;

case 13:
    RegUL=S2 | S4;
    RegUC=S400V | S0;
    break;

case 14:
    RegUL=S2 | S5;
    RegUC=S400V | S0;
break;

case 15:
    RegUL=S2 | S6;
    RegUC=S400V | S0;
    break;

case 16:
    RegUL=S2 | S7;
    RegUC=S400V | S0;
    break;

case 17:
    RegUL=S2 | S8;
    RegUC=S400V | S0;
    break;

case 18:
    RegUL=S2 | S8;
    RegUC=S400V | S9;
    break;

case 19:
    RegUL=S2 | S7;
    RegUC=S400V | S9;
    break;

case 20:
    RegUL=S2 | S6;
    RegUC=S400V | S9;
    break;

case 21:
    RegUL=S2 | S5;
    RegUC=S400V | S9;
    break;

case 22:
    RegUL=S2 | S4;
    RegUC=S400V | S9;
    break;

case 23:
    RegUL=S2 | S3;
    RegUC=S400V | S9;
B.2 Microcontroller #2

//This is the operating code of the Microcontroller #2. It is a ...
ATMEL Mega2560 Microcontroller running on Arduino programming ...
platform. The code is writing in C.
//by Minjie Chen 12/06/2011.

//including necessary communication packages
#include <Wire.h>

//setting up the registers
void setup(){
   Wire.begin();
   DDRC=B11111111;
   DDRL=B00000000;
   DDRA=B00000000;
   DDRF=B11111111;
   pinMode(52,OUTPUT);
   pinMode(50,INPUT);
   PORTC=0;
}

//initializing the state variables
int Busstate=0;
int realvol=0;
int readvol=0;
int ready=0;
int value=0;
int count=0;
float a=1.22;
float b=0.94;
int downthres=200;
int upthres=249;
float c=(upthres−downthres)/24;

//beginning the loop
void loop() {
  //enabling the DAC, providing a falling edge
digitalWrite(52,LOW);

  //reading in DAC values
readvol=PINL;
  ready=digitalRead(50);
digitalWrite(52,HIGH);
  realvol=readvol*a;

  //reading in the Busstate from Microcontroller \#1.
  Busstate=PINA;

  //outputing Busstates to the oscilloscope for monitoring
  PORTF=Busstate;

  //if the periodic operating mode has not start, no feedback
  if (ready == 0)
  {
    PORTC=0;
  }
//beginning the feedback
else
{
    //if the bus voltage has not entered the region fixed by ... 
    //the down threshold and up threshold
    if (realvol<downthres)
    {
        //outputing the original value
        value=realvol*b;
    }
    else
    {
        //outputing the artificial value
        value=downthres+1.4*Busstate+(realvol-downthres)/24;
        value=value*b;
    }

    //output-protective action
    if (value>255)
    {
        value=255;
    }

    //output-protective action
    if (value<0)
    {
        value=0;
    }

    //experimentally offsetting the output values
    PORTC=value+7;
}
}
//This is the operating code of the PLECS simulation of the 2-6 ... SSC energy buffer. It is a ATMEG Mega2560 Microcontroller ... running on Arduino programming platform. The code is writting ... in C.

//by Minjie Chen 12/06/2011.

//including necessary packages
#include <math.h>

//defining input/output ports
#define V1 Input(0)
#define V2 Input(1)
#define V3 Input(2)
#define V4 Input(3)
#define V5 Input(4)
#define V6 Input(5)
#define V7 Input(6)
#define V8 Input(7)
#define I Input(8)

//main control functions
if (I >= 0)
{
    //outputing the control signal according to the bus voltage 
    //exceeding the operating range
    if (V1 <= 100)
    {
        Output(0)=0; //FET10
        Output(1)=1; //FET1
        Output(2)=0; //FET2
        Output(3)=1; //FET3
        Output(4)=0; //FET4
        Output(5)=0; //FET5
        Output(6)=0; //FET6
    }
Output(7) = 0; //FET7
Output(8) = 0; //FET8
Output(9) = 1; //FET11
}
  // state = 0-1
  if ((V1 > 100) && (V1 ≤ 150))
  {
    Output(0) = 0; //FET10
    Output(1) = 1; //FET1
    Output(2) = 0; //FET2
    Output(3) = 1; //FET3
    Output(4) = 0; //FET4
    Output(5) = 0; //FET5
    Output(6) = 0; //FET6
    Output(7) = 0; //FET7
    Output(8) = 0; //FET8
    Output(9) = 1; //FET11
  }
  // state = 1-2
  if ((V1 > 150) && (V1 ≤ 200))
  {
    Output(0) = 0; //FET10
    Output(1) = 1; //FET1
    Output(2) = 0; //FET2
    Output(3) = 0; //FET3
    Output(4) = 1; //FET4
    Output(5) = 0; //FET5
    Output(6) = 0; //FET6
    Output(7) = 0; //FET7
    Output(8) = 0; //FET8
    Output(9) = 1; //FET11
  }
  // state = 2-3
  if ((V1 > 200) && (V1 ≤ 250))
  {
    Output(0) = 0; //FET10
  }
if (V1 > 250) && (V1 ≤ 300) {
    Output(0) = 0; //FET10
    Output(1) = 1; //FET1
    Output(2) = 0; //FET2
    Output(3) = 0; //FET3
    Output(4) = 0; //FET4
    Output(5) = 0; //FET5
    Output(6) = 1; //FET6
    Output(7) = 0; //FET7
    Output(8) = 0; //FET8
    Output(9) = 1; //FET11
}

//state=3-4
if (V1 > 300) && (V1 ≤ 350) {
    Output(0) = 0; //FET10
    Output(1) = 1; //FET1
    Output(2) = 0; //FET2
    Output(3) = 0; //FET3
    Output(4) = 0; //FET4
    Output(5) = 0; //FET5
    Output(6) = 0; //FET6
    Output(7) = 1; //FET7
    Output(8) = 0; //FET8
    Output(9) = 1; //FET11
}

//state=4-5
if (V1 > 300) && (V1 ≤ 350) {
    Output(0) = 0; //FET10
    Output(1) = 1; //FET1
    Output(2) = 0; //FET2
    Output(3) = 0; //FET3
    Output(4) = 0; //FET4
    Output(5) = 0; //FET5
    Output(6) = 0; //FET6
    Output(7) = 1; //FET7
    Output(8) = 0; //FET8
    Output(9) = 0; //FET9
Output(9)=1;//FET11
}
//state=5-6
if ((V1>350)&&(V1 ≤ 400))
{
    Output(0)=0;//FET10
    Output(1)=1;//FET1
    Output(2)=0;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=1;//FET8
    Output(9)=1;//FET11
}
//state=6-7
if ((V1>400)&&(V1 ≤ 450))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=1;//FET1
    Output(2)=0;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=1;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=7-8
if ((V1>450)&&(V1 ≤ 500))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=1;//FET1
    Output(2)=0;//FET2
Output(3)=0;//FET3
Output(4)=0;//FET4
Output(5)=0;//FET5
Output(6)=0;//FET6
Output(7)=1;//FET7
Output(8)=0;//FET8
Output(9)=0;//FET11
}

//state=8-9
if ((V1>500)&&(V1 ≤ 550))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=1;//FET1
    Output(2)=0;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=1;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=9-10
if ((V1>550)&&(V1 ≤ 600))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=1;//FET1
    Output(2)=0;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=1;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=10-11
if ((V1 > 600) && (V1 <= 650))
{
    Output(0) = 1; //FET10
    Output(1) = 1; //FET1
    Output(2) = 0; //FET2
    Output(3) = 0; //FET3
    Output(4) = 1; //FET4
    Output(5) = 0; //FET5
    Output(6) = 0; //FET6
    Output(7) = 0; //FET7
    Output(8) = 0; //FET8
    Output(9) = 0; //FET11
}
//state=11-12
if ((V1 > 650) && (V1 < 700))
{
    Output(0) = 1; //FET10
    Output(1) = 1; //FET1
    Output(2) = 0; //FET2
    Output(3) = 1; //FET3
    Output(4) = 0; //FET4
    Output(5) = 0; //FET5
    Output(6) = 0; //FET6
    Output(7) = 0; //FET7
    Output(8) = 0; //FET8
    Output(9) = 0; //FET11
}
if ((V1 >= 700))
{
    Output(0) = 0; //FET10
    Output(1) = 0; //FET1
    Output(2) = 1; //FET2
    Output(3) = 1; //FET3
    Output(4) = 0; //FET4
    Output(5) = 0; //FET5
Output(6)=0;//FET6
Output(7)=0;//FET7
Output(8)=0;//FET8
Output(9)=1;//FET11
}
//state=12-13
if ((V2>100)&&(V2 ≤ 150))
{
    Output(0)=0;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
    Output(3)=1;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=1;//FET11
}
//state=13-14
if ((V2>150)&&(V2 ≤ 200))
{
    Output(0)=0;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=1;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=1;//FET11
}
//state=14-15
if ((V2>200)&&(V2 ≤ 250))
{
Output(0)=0;//FET10
Output(1)=0;//FET1
Output(2)=1;//FET2
Output(3)=0;//FET3
Output(4)=0;//FET4
Output(5)=1;//FET5
Output(6)=0;//FET6
Output(7)=0;//FET7
Output(8)=0;//FET8
Output(9)=1;//FET11
}
//state=15-16
if ((V2>250)&&(V2 ≤ 300))
{
  Output(0)=0;//FET10
  Output(1)=0;//FET1
  Output(2)=1;//FET2
  Output(3)=0;//FET3
  Output(4)=0;//FET4
  Output(5)=0;//FET5
  Output(6)=1;//FET6
  Output(7)=0;//FET7
  Output(8)=0;//FET8
  Output(9)=1;//FET11
}
//state=16-17
if ((V2>300) && (V2 ≤ 350))
{
  Output(0)=0;//FET10
  Output(1)=0;//FET1
  Output(2)=1;//FET2
  Output(3)=0;//FET3
  Output(4)=0;//FET4
  Output(5)=0;//FET5
  Output(6)=0;//FET6
  Output(7)=1;//FET7
  Output(8)=0;//FET8
  Output(9)=1;//FET11

118
Output(8)=0; //FET8
Output(9)=1; //FET11

//state=17-18
if ((V2 > 350) && (V2 ≤ 400))
{
    Output(0)=0; //FET10
    Output(1)=0; //FET1
    Output(2)=1; //FET2
    Output(3)=0; //FET3
    Output(4)=0; //FET4
    Output(5)=0; //FET5
    Output(6)=0; //FET6
    Output(7)=0; //FET7
    Output(8)=1; //FET8
    Output(9)=1; //FET11
}
//state=18-19
if ((V2 > 400) && (V2 ≤ 450))
{
    Output(0)=1; //FET10
    Output(1)=0; //FET1
    Output(2)=1; //FET2
    Output(3)=0; //FET3
    Output(4)=0; //FET4
    Output(5)=0; //FET5
    Output(6)=0; //FET6
    Output(7)=0; //FET7
    Output(8)=1; //FET8
    Output(9)=0; //FET11
}
//state=19-20
if ((V2 > 450) && (V2 ≤ 500))
{
    Output(0)=1; //FET10
    Output(1)=0; //FET1
Output(2)=1;//FET2
Output(3)=0;//FET3
Output(4)=0;//FET4
Output(5)=0;//FET5
Output(6)=0;//FET6
Output(7)=1;//FET7
Output(8)=0;//FET8
Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=20–21
if ((V2>500)&&(V2 ≤ 550))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=1;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=21–22
if ((V2>550)&&(V2 ≤ 600))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=1;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=22−23
if ((V2>600) && (V2 ≤ 650))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=1;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}

//state=23−24
if ((V2>650) && (V2 ≤ 700))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
    Output(3)=1;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}

///////////////DISCHARGE PERIOD////////////////////
if (I<0)
{
    if (V2≥700)
    {
        Output(0)=0;//FET10
    }
}
Output(1)=0;  //FET1
Output(2)=1;  //FET2
Output(3)=1;  //FET3
Output(4)=0;  //FET4
Output(5)=0;  //FET5
Output(6)=0;  //FET6
Output(7)=0;  //FET7
Output(8)=0;  //FET8
Output(9)=1;  //FET11
}
//state=23-24
if ((V2>650)&&(V2 ≤ 700))
{
Output(0)=1;  //FET10
Output(1)=0;  //FET1
Output(2)=1;  //FET2
Output(3)=1;  //FET3
Output(4)=0;  //FET4
Output(5)=0;  //FET5
Output(6)=0;  //FET6
Output(7)=0;  //FET7
Output(8)=0;  //FET8
Output(9)=0;  //FET11
}
//state=22-23
if ((V2>600)&&(V2 ≤ 650))
{
Output(0)=1;  //FET10
Output(1)=0;  //FET1
Output(2)=1;  //FET2
Output(3)=0;  //FET3
Output(4)=1;  //FET4
Output(5)=0;  //FET5
Output(6)=0;  //FET6
Output(7)=0;  //FET7
Output(8)=0;  //FET8
Output(9)=0;//FET11

//state=21-22
if ((V2>550) && (V2 <= 600))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}

//state=20-21
if ((V2>500) && (V2 <= 550))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}

//state=19-20
if ((V2>450) && (V2 <= 500))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
Output(3)=0;//FET3
Output(4)=0;//FET4
Output(5)=0;//FET5
Output(6)=0;//FET6
Output(7)=1;//FET7
Output(8)=0;//FET8
Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=18–19
if ((V2>400)&&(V2 ≤ 450))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=1;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=17–18
if ((V2>350)&&(V2 ≤ 400))
{
    Output(0)=0;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=1;//FET8
    Output(9)=1;//FET11
}
if ((V2 > 300) && (V2 ≤ 350))
{
    Output(0) = 0; // FET10
    Output(1) = 0; // FET1
    Output(2) = 1; // FET2
    Output(3) = 0; // FET3
    Output(4) = 0; // FET4
    Output(5) = 0; // FET5
    Output(6) = 0; // FET6
    Output(7) = 1; // FET7
    Output(8) = 0; // FET8
    Output(9) = 1; // FET11
}

if ((V2 > 250) && (V2 ≤ 300))
{
    Output(0) = 0; // FET10
    Output(1) = 0; // FET1
    Output(2) = 1; // FET2
    Output(3) = 0; // FET3
    Output(4) = 0; // FET4
    Output(5) = 0; // FET5
    Output(6) = 0; // FET6
    Output(7) = 1; // FET7
    Output(8) = 0; // FET8
    Output(9) = 1; // FET11
}

if ((V2 > 200) && (V2 ≤ 250))
{
    Output(0) = 0; // FET10
    Output(1) = 0; // FET1
    Output(2) = 1; // FET2
    Output(3) = 0; // FET3
    Output(4) = 0; // FET4
Output(5)=1;//FET5
Output(6)=0;//FET6
Output(7)=0;//FET7
Output(8)=0;//FET8
Output(9)=1;//FET11
}
//state=13−14
if ((V2>150)&&(V2 ≤ 200))
{
    Output(0)=0;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=1;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=1;//FET11
}
//state=12−13
if ((V2>100)&&(V2 ≤ 150))
{
    Output(0)=0;//FET10
    Output(1)=0;//FET1
    Output(2)=1;//FET2
    Output(3)=1;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=1;//FET11
}
if ((V2 ≤ 100))
{

Output(0)=1;//FET10
Output(1)=1;//FET1
Output(2)=0;//FET2
Output(3)=1;//FET3
Output(4)=0;//FET4
Output(5)=0;//FET5
Output(6)=0;//FET6
Output(7)=0;//FET7
Output(8)=0;//FET8
Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=11-12
if ((V1>650)&&(V1<700))
{
Output(0)=1;//FET10
Output(1)=1;//FET1
Output(2)=0;//FET2
Output(3)=1;//FET3
Output(4)=0;//FET4
Output(5)=0;//FET5
Output(6)=0;//FET6
Output(7)=0;//FET7
Output(8)=0;//FET8
Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=10-11
if ((V1>600)&&(V1 ≤ 650))
{
Output(0)=1;//FET10
Output(1)=1;//FET1
Output(2)=0;//FET2
Output(3)=0;//FET3
Output(4)=1;//FET4
Output(5)=0;//FET5
Output(6)=0;//FET6
Output(7)=0;//FET7
Output(8)=0;//FET8
Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=9–10
if ((V1>550)&&(V1 ≤ 600))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=1;//FET1
    Output(2)=0;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=1;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=8–9
if ((V1>500)&&(V1 ≤ 550))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=1;//FET1
    Output(2)=0;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=1;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=0;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=7–8
if ((V1>450)&&(V1 ≤ 500))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=1;//FET1
Output(2)=0;//FET2
Output(3)=0;//FET3
Output(4)=0;//FET4
Output(5)=0;//FET5
Output(6)=0;//FET6
Output(7)=1;//FET7
Output(8)=0;//FET8
Output(9)=0;//FET11

}
//state=6-7
if ((V1>400)&&(V1 < 450))
{
    Output(0)=1;//FET10
    Output(1)=1;//FET1
    Output(2)=0;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=1;//FET8
    Output(9)=0;//FET11
}
//state=5-6
if ((V1>350)&&(V1 ≤ 400))
{
    Output(0)=0;//FET10
    Output(1)=1;//FET1
    Output(2)=0;//FET2
    Output(3)=0;//FET3
    Output(4)=0;//FET4
    Output(5)=0;//FET5
    Output(6)=0;//FET6
    Output(7)=0;//FET7
    Output(8)=1;//FET8
    Output(9)=1;//FET11

if ((V1 > 300) && (V1 <= 350))
{
    Output(0) = 0; // FET10
    Output(1) = 1; // FET1
    Output(2) = 0; // FET2
    Output(3) = 0; // FET3
    Output(4) = 0; // FET4
    Output(5) = 0; // FET5
    Output(6) = 0; // FET6
    Output(7) = 1; // FET7
    Output(8) = 0; // FET8
    Output(9) = 1; // FET11
}
// state = 3 – 4
if ((V1 > 250) && (V1 <= 300))
{
    Output(0) = 0; // FET10
    Output(1) = 1; // FET1
    Output(2) = 0; // FET2
    Output(3) = 0; // FET3
    Output(4) = 0; // FET4
    Output(5) = 0; // FET5
    Output(6) = 1; // FET6
    Output(7) = 0; // FET7
    Output(8) = 0; // FET8
    Output(9) = 1; // FET11
}
// state = 2 – 3
if ((V1 > 200) && (V1 <= 250))
{
    Output(0) = 0; // FET10
    Output(1) = 1; // FET1
    Output(2) = 0; // FET2
    Output(3) = 0; // FET3
Output(4) = 0; //FET4
Output(5) = 1;  //FET5
Output(6) = 0;  //FET6
Output(7) = 0;  //FET7
Output(8) = 0;  //FET8
Output(9) = 1;  //FET11
}
//state=1−2
if (V1>150) && (V1 ≤ 200))
{
    Output(0) = 0; //FET10
    Output(1) = 1; //FET1
    Output(2) = 0; //FET2
    Output(3) = 0; //FET3
    Output(4) = 1; //FET4
    Output(5) = 0; //FET5
    Output(6) = 0; //FET6
    Output(7) = 0; //FET7
    Output(8) = 0; //FET8
    Output(9) = 1; //FET11
}
//state=0−1
if (V1>100) && (V1 ≤ 150))
{
    Output(0) = 0; //FET10
    Output(1) = 1; //FET1
    Output(2) = 0; //FET2
    Output(3) = 1; //FET3
    Output(4) = 0; //FET4
    Output(5) = 0; //FET5
    Output(6) = 0; //FET6
    Output(7) = 0; //FET7
    Output(8) = 0; //FET8
    Output(9) = 1; //FET11
}
Bibliography


