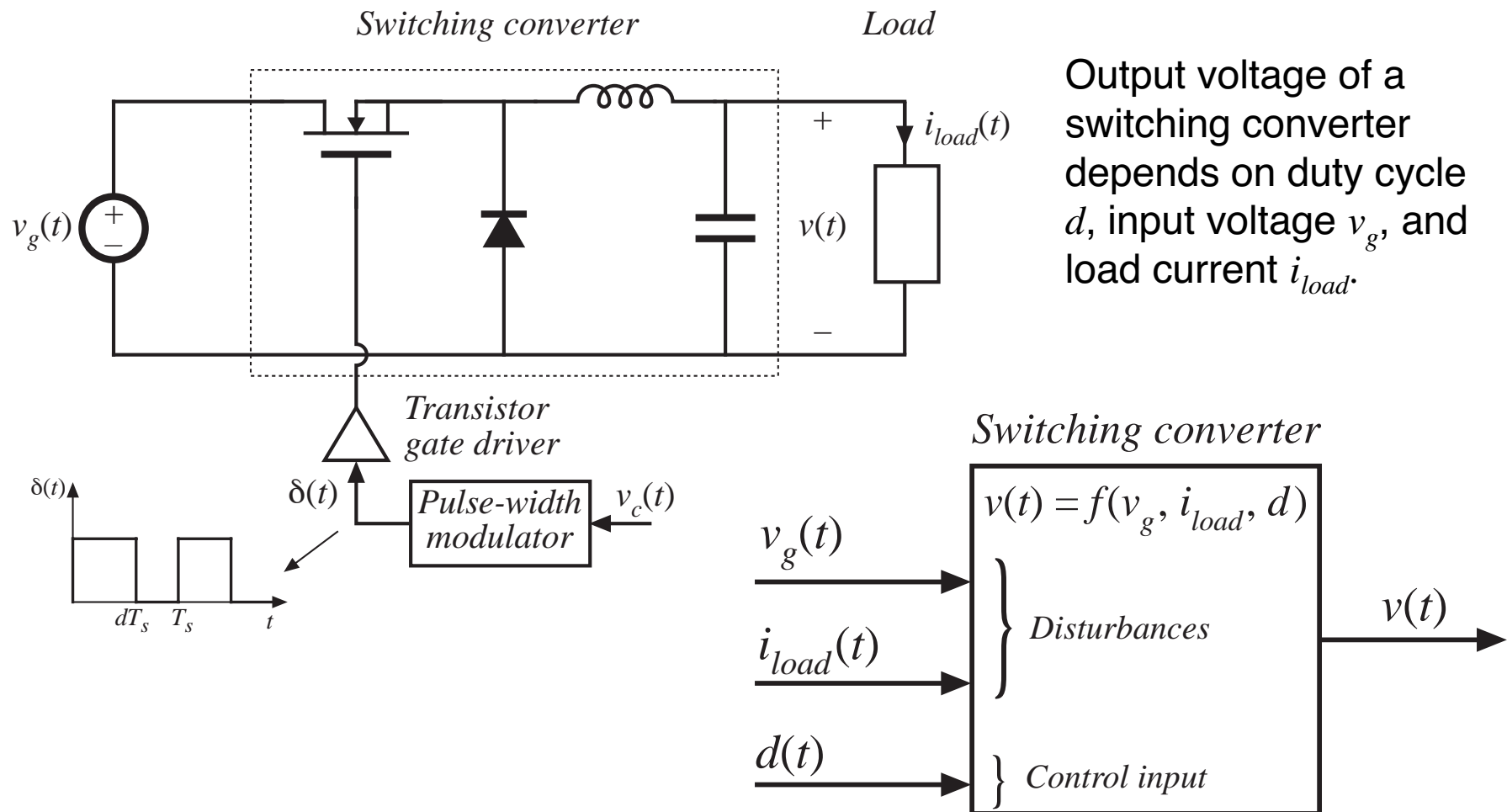


Controller Design



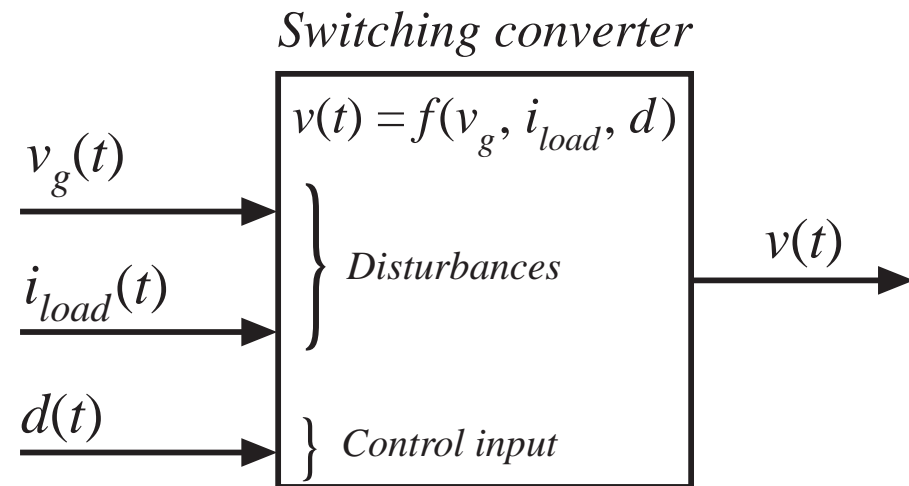
Output voltage of a switching converter depends on duty cycle d , input voltage v_g , and load current i_{load} .

The dc regulator application

Objective: maintain **constant output voltage** $v(t) = V$, in spite of disturbances in $v_g(t)$ and $i_{load}(t)$.

Input source variation

Typical variation in $v_g(t)$: 100Hz or 120Hz ripple, produced by rectifier circuit.



Load variation

Load current variations: a significant step-change in load current, such as from 50% to 100% of rated value, may be applied.

A typical output voltage regulation specification: $5V \pm 0.1V$.

Circuit elements are constructed to some specified tolerance. In high volume manufacturing of converters, all output voltages must meet specifications.

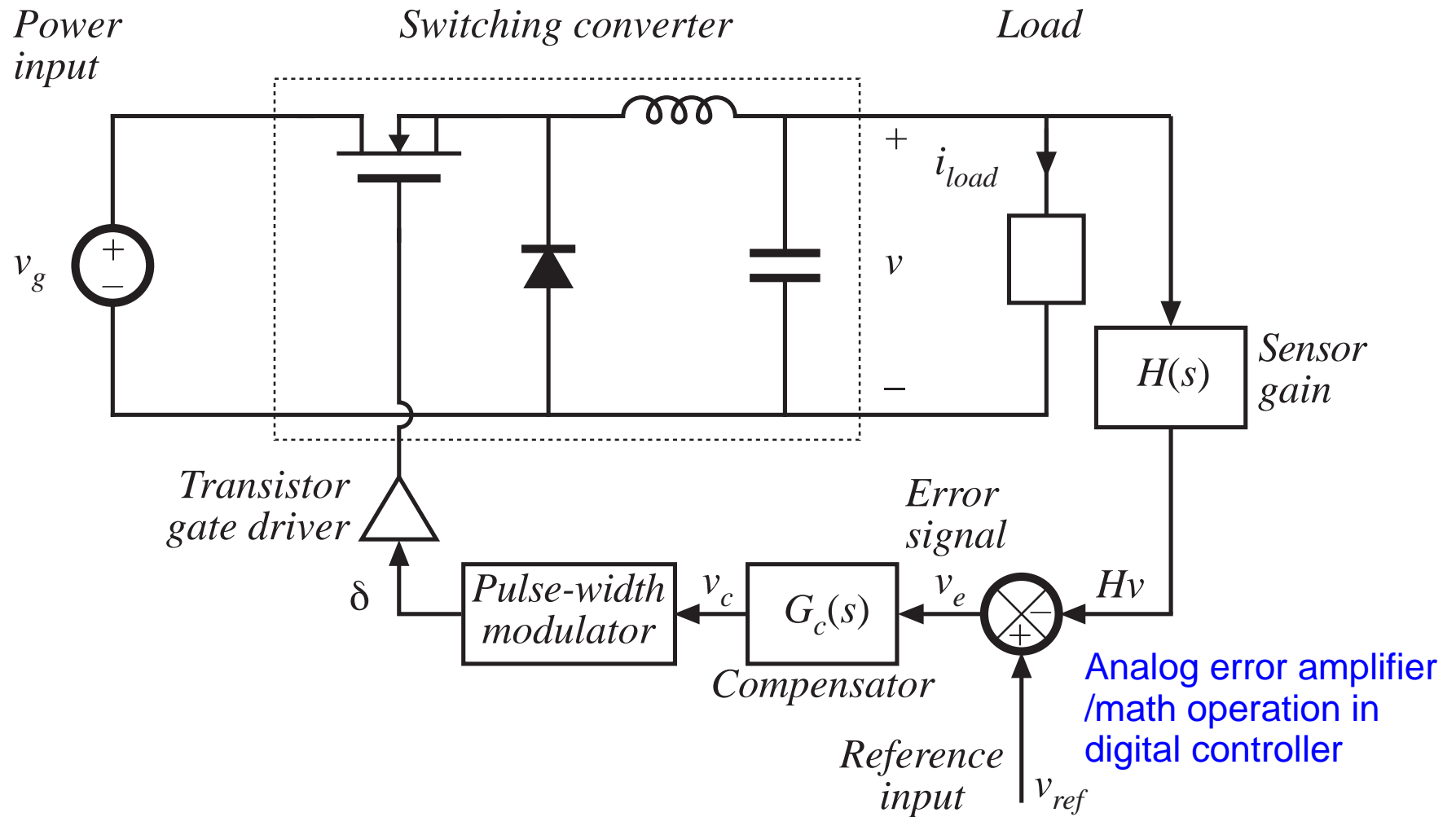
converter need to resist the disturbances and maintain a constant output

The dc regulator application

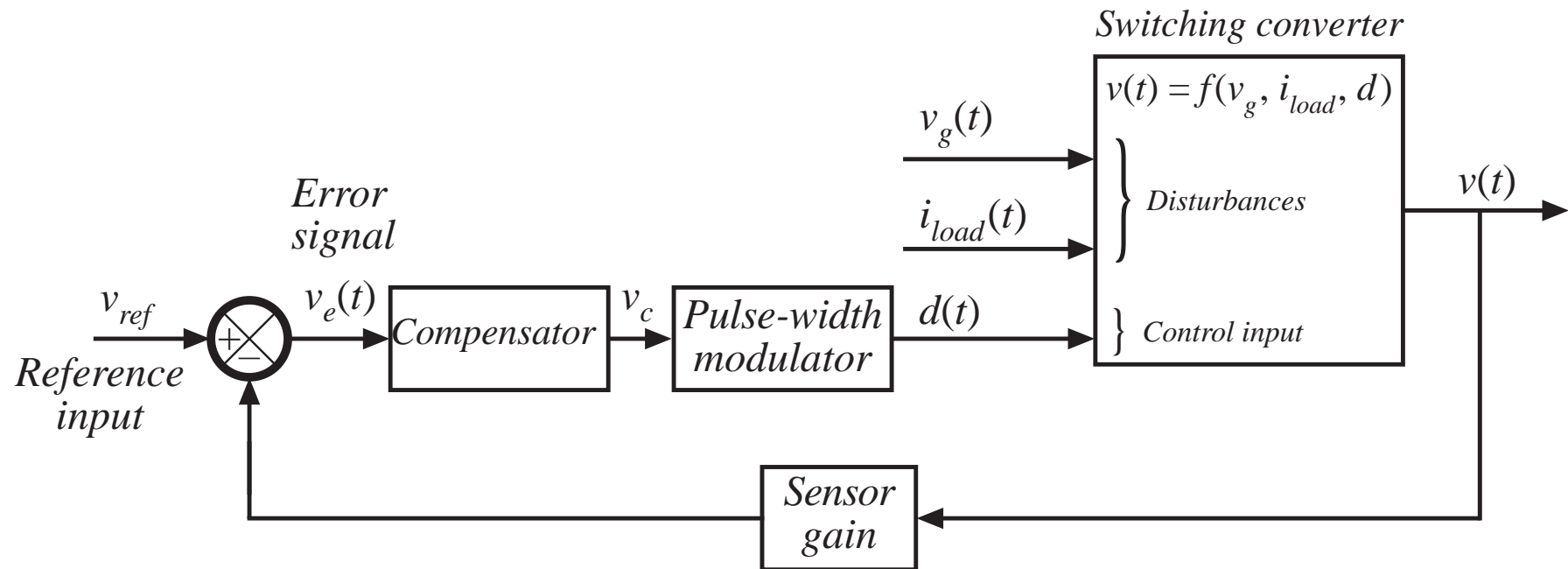
So we cannot expect to set the duty cycle to a single value, and obtain a given constant output voltage under all conditions.

Negative feedback: build a circuit that automatically adjusts the duty cycle as necessary, to obtain the specified output voltage with high accuracy, regardless of disturbances or component tolerances.

Negative feedback: a switching regulator system

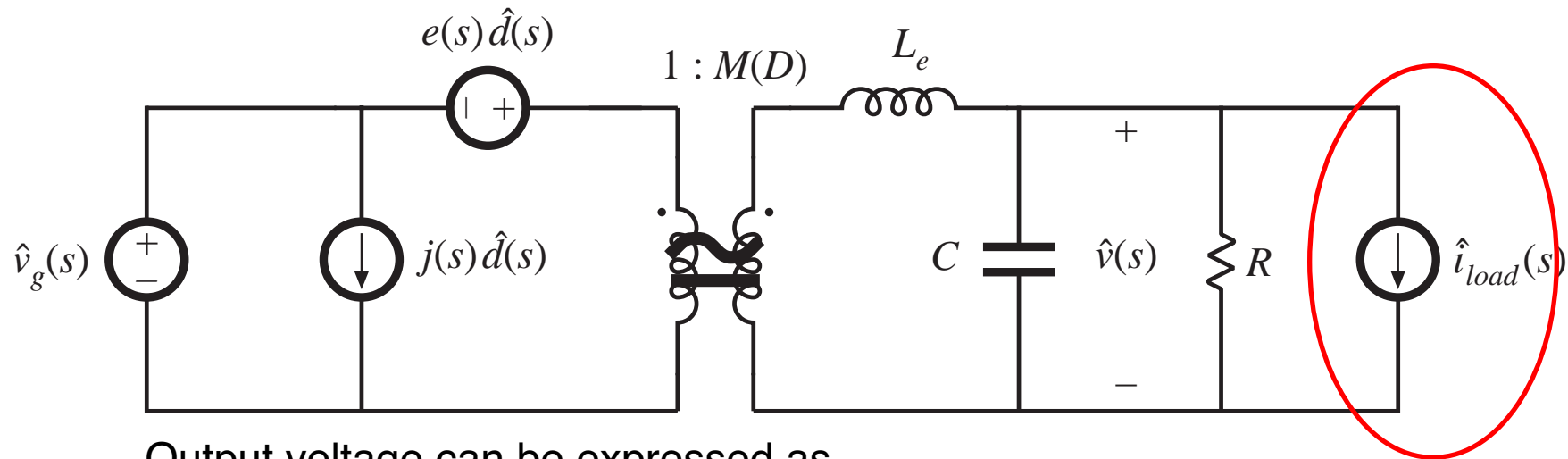


Negative feedback



9.2. Effect of negative feedback on the network transfer functions

Small signal model: open-loop converter



Output voltage can be expressed as

$$\hat{v}(s) = G_{vd}(s) \hat{d}(s) + G_{vg}(s) \hat{v}_g(s) - Z_{out}(s) \hat{i}_{load}(s)$$

where

$$G_{vd}(s) = \left. \frac{\hat{v}(s)}{\hat{d}(s)} \right|_{\substack{\hat{v}_g=0 \\ \hat{i}_{load}=0}}$$

$$G_{vg}(s) = \left. \frac{\hat{v}(s)}{\hat{v}_g(s)} \right|_{\substack{\hat{d}=0 \\ \hat{i}_{load}=0}}$$

$$Z_{out}(s) = - \left. \frac{\hat{v}(s)}{\hat{i}_{load}(s)} \right|_{\substack{\hat{d}=0 \\ \hat{v}_g=0}}$$

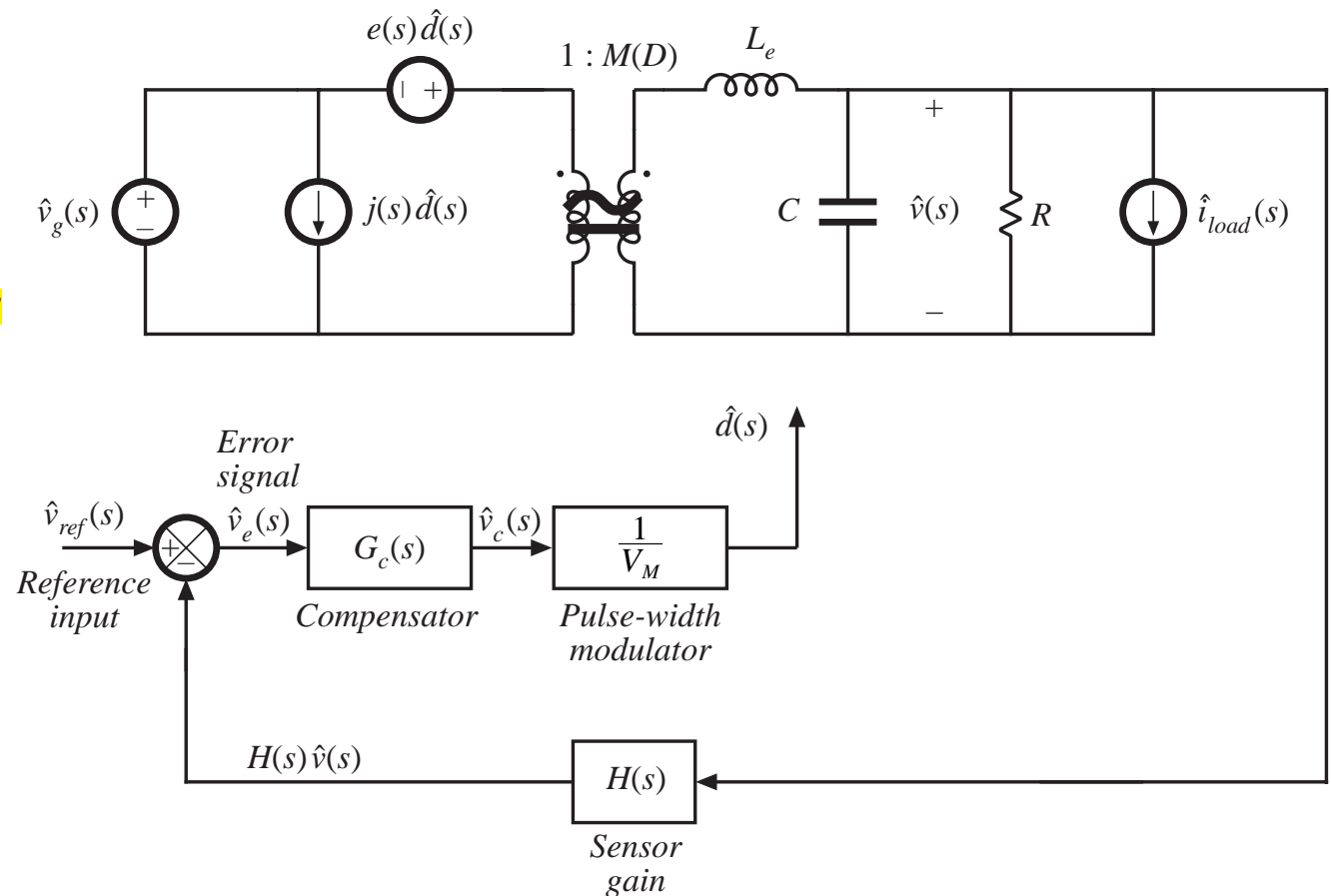
Voltage regulator system small-signal model

- Use small-signal converter model
- **Perturb and linearize remainder of feedback loop:**

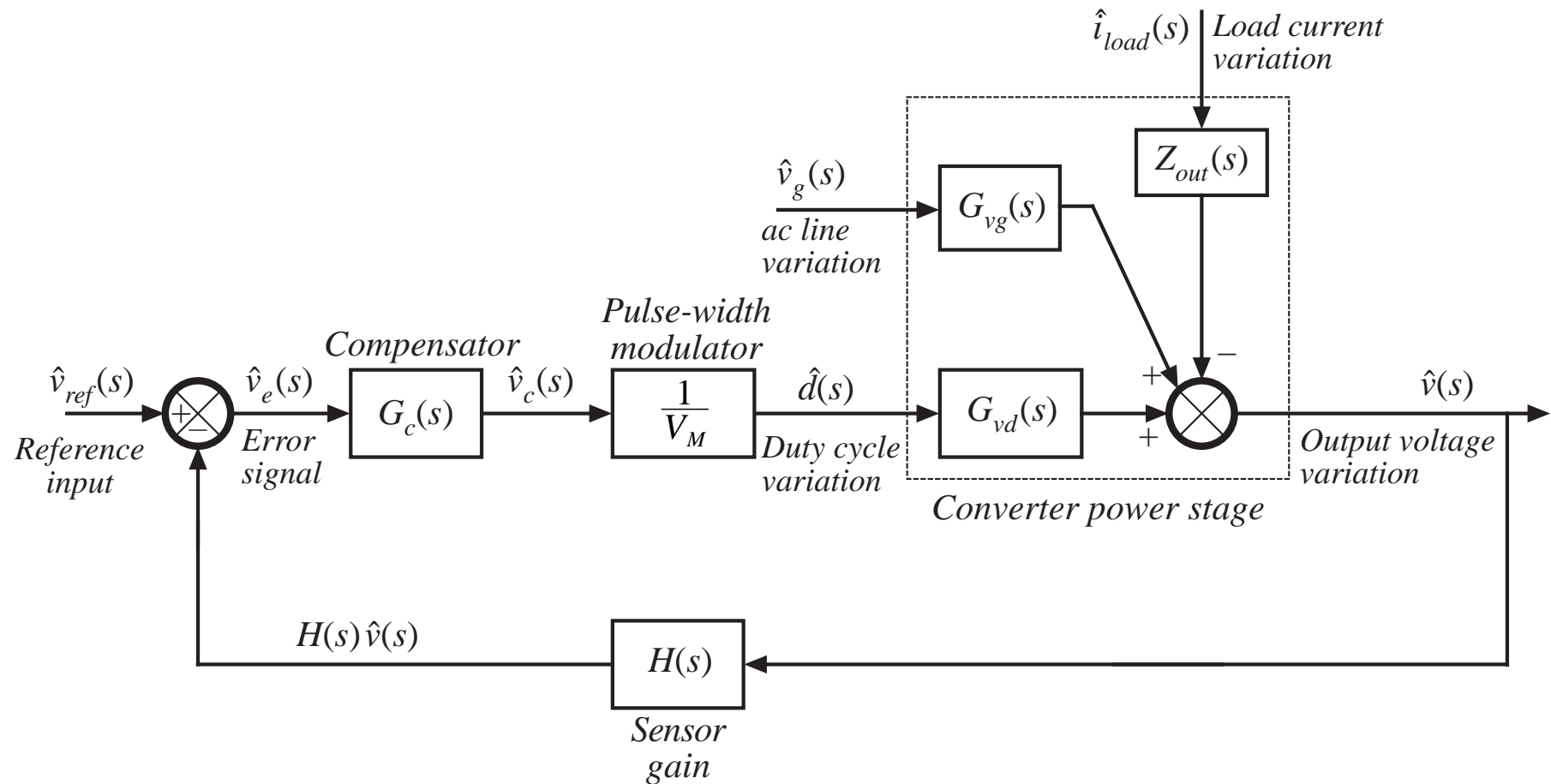
$$v_{ref}(t) = V_{ref} + \hat{v}_{ref}(t)$$

$$v_e(t) = V_e + \hat{v}_e(t)$$

etc.



Regulator system small-signal block diagram



Solution of block diagram

Manipulate block diagram to solve for $\hat{v}(s)$. Result is

Retro: $Y(s)/X(s) = H'(s)/[1+\beta H'(s)]$

$$\hat{v} = \hat{v}_{ref} \frac{G_c G_{vd} / V_M}{1 + \boxed{HG_c G_{vd} / V_M}} + \hat{v}_g \frac{G_{vg}}{1 + HG_c G_{vd} / V_M} - \hat{i}_{load} \frac{Z_{out}}{1 + HG_c G_{vd} / V_M}$$

where, $H'(s)$ open loop gain; β = feedback gain
which is of the form

$$\hat{v} = \hat{v}_{ref} \frac{1}{H} \frac{T}{1+T} + \hat{v}_g \frac{G_{vg}}{1+T} - \hat{i}_{load} \frac{Z_{out}}{1+T}$$

with $\boxed{T(s) = H(s) G_c(s) G_{vd}(s) / V_M = \text{"loop gain"}}$

where, $T(s) = \beta H'(s)$

Loop gain $T(s)$ = products of the gains around the negative feedback loop.

9.2.1. Feedback reduces the transfer functions from disturbances to the output

Original (open-loop) line-to-output transfer function:

$$G_{vg}(s) = \left. \frac{\hat{v}(s)}{\hat{v}_g(s)} \right|_{\substack{\hat{d}=0 \\ \hat{i}_{load}=0}}$$

With addition of negative feedback, the line-to-output transfer function becomes:

$$\left. \frac{\hat{v}(s)}{\hat{v}_g(s)} \right|_{\substack{\hat{v}_{ref}=0 \\ \hat{i}_{load}=0}} = \frac{G_{vg}(s)}{1 + T(s)}$$

Feedback reduces the line-to-output transfer function by a factor of

$$\frac{1}{1 + T(s)}$$

If $T(s)$ is large in magnitude, then the line-to-output transfer function becomes small.

Closed-loop output impedance

Original (open-loop) output impedance:

$$Z_{out}(s) = - \left. \frac{\hat{v}(s)}{\hat{i}_{load}(s)} \right|_{\substack{\hat{d}=0 \\ \hat{v}_g=0}}$$

With addition of negative feedback, the output impedance becomes:

$$\left. \frac{\hat{v}(s)}{-\hat{i}_{load}(s)} \right|_{\substack{\hat{v}_{ref}=0 \\ \hat{v}_g=0}} = \frac{Z_{out}(s)}{1 + T(s)}$$

Feedback reduces the output impedance by a factor of

$$\frac{1}{1 + T(s)}$$

If $T(s)$ is large in magnitude, then the output impedance is greatly reduced in magnitude.

9.2.2. Feedback causes the transfer function from the reference input to the output to be **insensitive** to variations in the gains in the forward path of the loop

Closed-loop transfer function from \hat{v}_{ref} to $\hat{v}(s)$ is:

$$\left. \frac{\hat{v}(s)}{\hat{v}_{ref}(s)} \right|_{\substack{\hat{v}_g=0 \\ \hat{i}_{load}=0}} = \frac{1}{H(s)} \frac{T(s)}{1+T(s)}$$

If the loop gain is large in magnitude, i.e., $\|T\| \gg 1$, then $(1+T) \approx T$ and $T/(1+T) \approx T/T = 1$. The transfer function then becomes

$$\frac{\hat{v}(s)}{\hat{v}_{ref}(s)} \approx \frac{1}{H(s)}$$

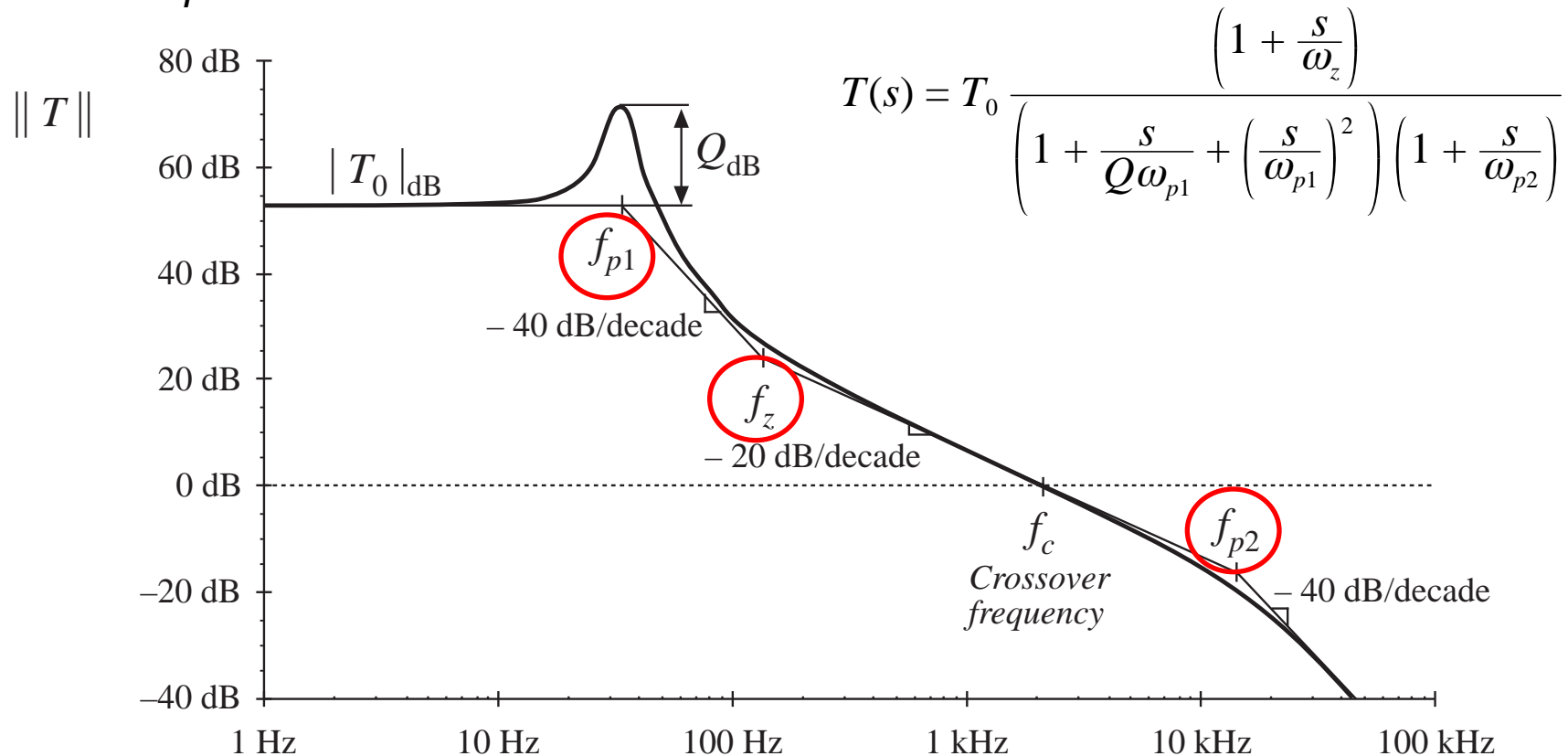
which is independent of the gains in the forward path of the loop.

This result applies equally well to dc values:

$$\frac{V}{V_{ref}} = \frac{1}{H(0)} \frac{T(0)}{1+T(0)} \approx \frac{1}{H(0)}$$

9.3. Construction of the important quantities $1/(1+T)$ and $T/(1+T)$

Example



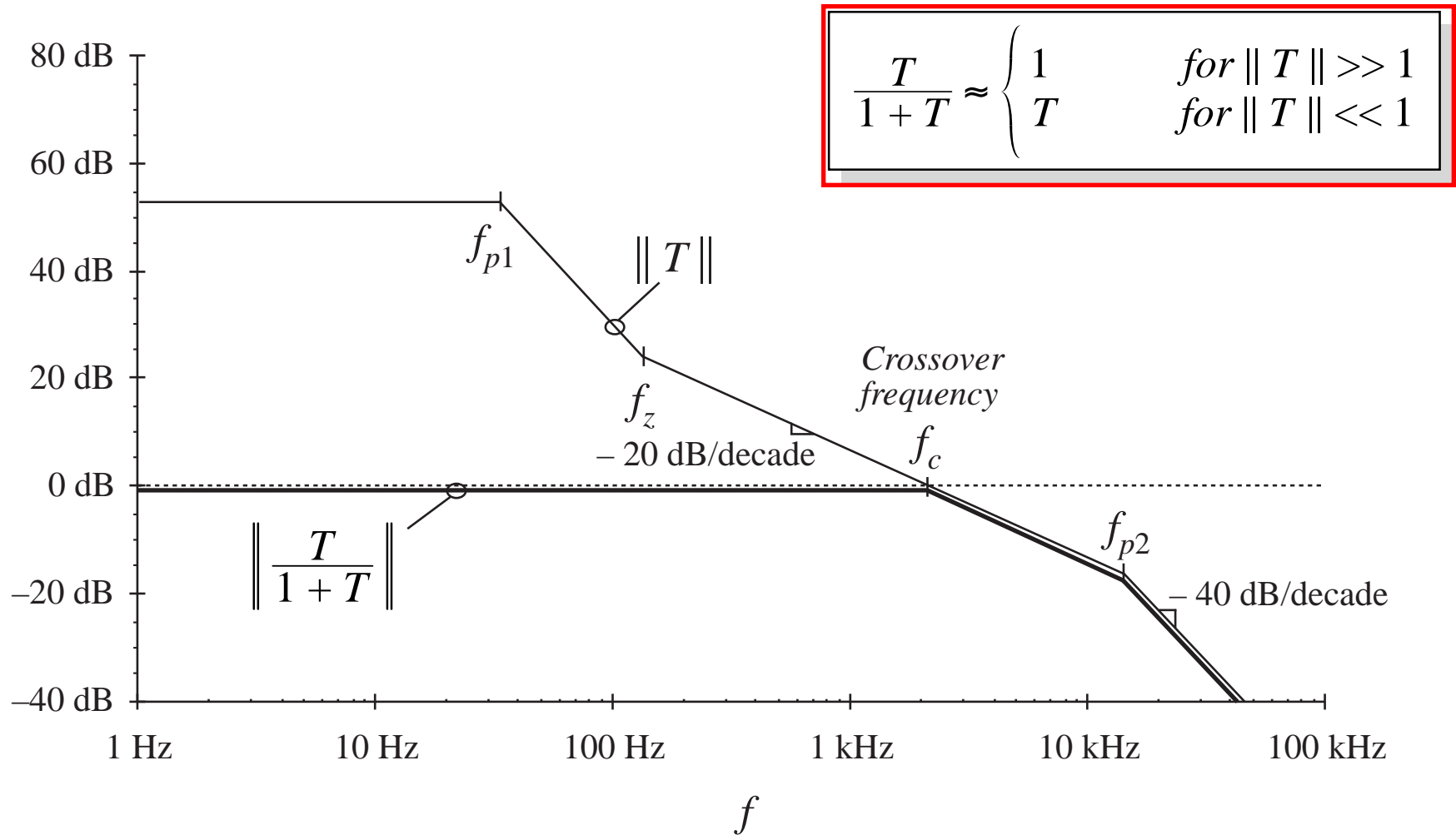
At the crossover frequency f_c , $\|T\| = 1$ f

Approximating $1/(1+T)$ and $T/(1+T)$

$$\frac{T}{1+T} \approx \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } \|T\| \gg 1 \\ T & \text{for } \|T\| \ll 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{1}{1+T(s)} \approx \begin{cases} \frac{1}{T(s)} & \text{for } \|T\| \gg 1 \\ 1 & \text{for } \|T\| \ll 1 \end{cases}$$

Example: construction of $T/(1+T)$



Example: analytical expressions for approximate reference to output transfer function

for $f < f_c$, $\|T\| \gg 1$, therefore,

$$\frac{\hat{v}(s)}{\hat{v}_{ref}(s)} = \frac{1}{H(s)} \frac{T(s)}{1 + T(s)} \approx \frac{1}{H(s)}$$

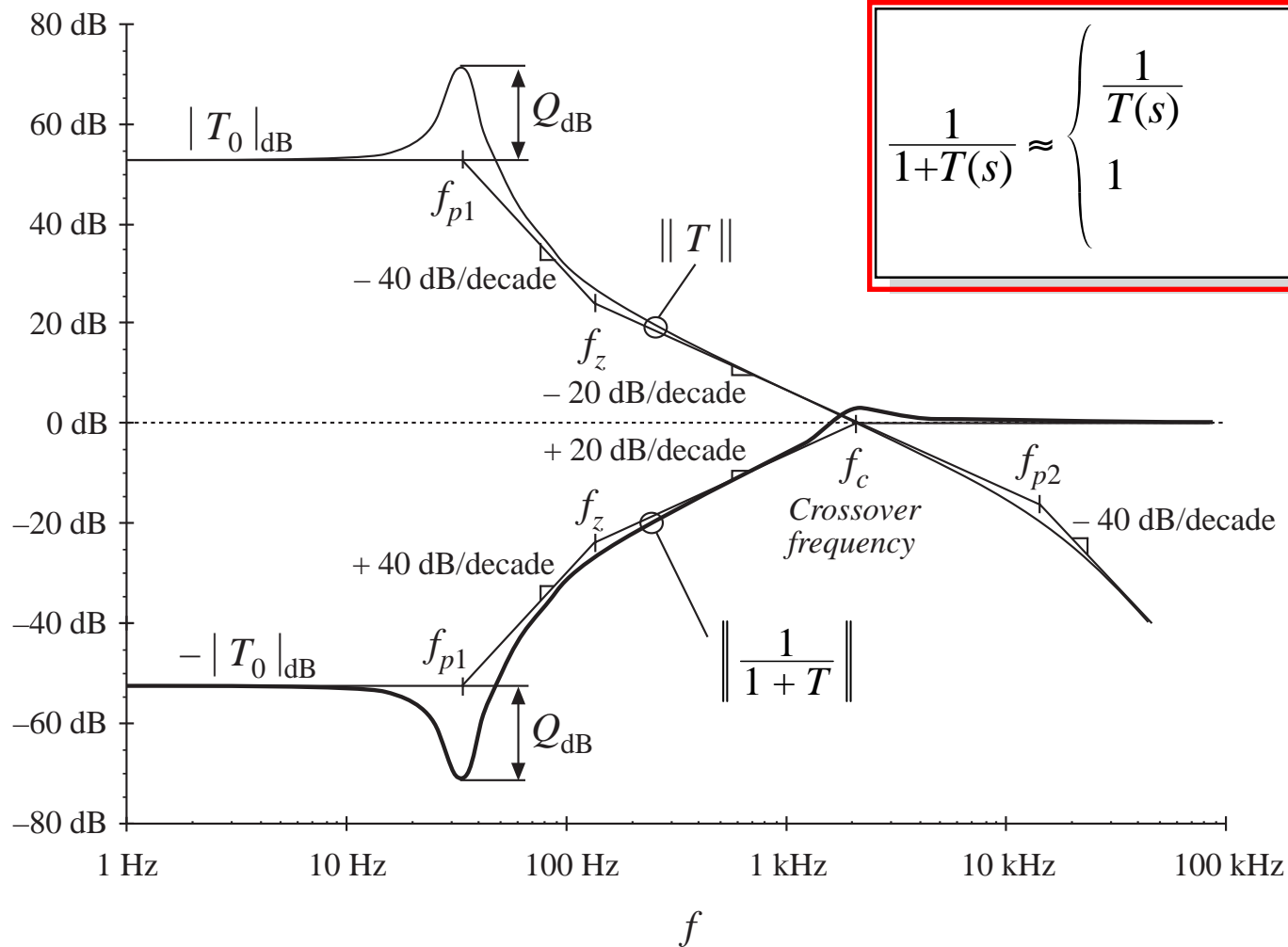
The output follows the reference according to the ideal gain $1/H(s)$

At frequencies above the crossover frequency, $\|T\| < 1$. The quantity $T/(1+T)$ then has magnitude approximately equal to 1, and we obtain

$$\frac{\hat{v}(s)}{\hat{v}_{ref}(s)} = \frac{1}{H(s)} \frac{T(s)}{1 + T(s)} \approx \frac{T(s)}{H(s)} = \frac{G_c(s)G_{vd}(s)}{V_M}$$

This coincides with the open-loop transfer function from the reference to the output. At frequencies where $\|T\| < 1$, the loop has essentially no effect on the transfer function from the reference to the output.

Same example: construction of $1 / (1+T)$



Interpretation: how the loop rejects disturbances

Below the crossover frequency: $f < f_c$
and $\| T \| > 1$

Then $1/(1+T) \approx 1/T$, and
disturbances are reduced in
magnitude by $1/\| T \|\$

Above the crossover frequency: $f > f_c$
and $\| T \| < 1$

Then $1/(1+T) \approx 1$, and the
feedback loop has essentially
no effect on disturbances

$$\frac{1}{1+T(s)} \approx \begin{cases} \frac{1}{T(s)} & \text{for } \| T \| \gg 1 \\ 1 & \text{for } \| T \| \ll 1 \end{cases}$$

Terminology: open-loop vs. closed-loop

Original transfer functions, before introduction of feedback (“open-loop transfer functions”):

$$G_{vd}(s) \quad G_{vg}(s) \quad Z_{out}(s)$$

Upon introduction of feedback, these transfer functions become (“closed-loop transfer functions”):

$$\frac{1}{H(s)} \quad \frac{T(s)}{1 + T(s)} \quad \frac{G_{vg}(s)}{1 + T(s)} \quad \frac{Z_{out}(s)}{1 + T(s)}$$

The loop gain:

$$T(s)$$

9.4. Stability

Even though the original open-loop system is stable, **the closed-loop transfer functions can be unstable** and contain right half-plane poles. Even when the closed-loop system is stable, **the transient response can exhibit undesirable ringing and overshoot**, due to the high Q -factor of the closed-loop poles in the vicinity of the crossover frequency.

The feedback might destabilize the system: the denominator $(1+T(s))$ terms in the closed-loop transfer functions contain roots in the right half-plane (i.e., with positive real parts).

Suppose: $T(s) = N(s)/D(s)$, then,

$$\frac{T(s)}{1 + T(s)} = \frac{\frac{N(s)}{D(s)}}{1 + \frac{N(s)}{D(s)}} = \frac{N(s)}{N(s) + D(s)}$$

$$\frac{1}{1 + T(s)} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{N(s)}{D(s)}} = \frac{D(s)}{N(s) + D(s)}$$

- Could evaluate stability by evaluating $N(s) + D(s)$, then factoring to evaluate roots. **However,** This is a lot of work, and is not very illuminating.

Determination of stability directly from $T(s)$

Think about what we covered in the last lecture!

- Nyquist stability theorem: general result.
- A special case of the Nyquist stability theorem: the phase margin test

Allows determination of closed-loop stability (i.e., whether $1/(1+T(s))$ contains RHP poles) directly from the magnitude and phase of $T(s)$.

A good design tool: yields insight into how $T(s)$ should be shaped, to obtain good performance in transfer functions containing $1/(1+T(s))$ terms.

9.4.1. The phase margin test

A test on $T(s)$, to determine whether $1/(1+T(s))$ contains RHP poles.

The crossover frequency f_c is defined as the frequency where

$$\|T(j2\pi f_c)\| = 1 \Rightarrow 0\text{dB}$$

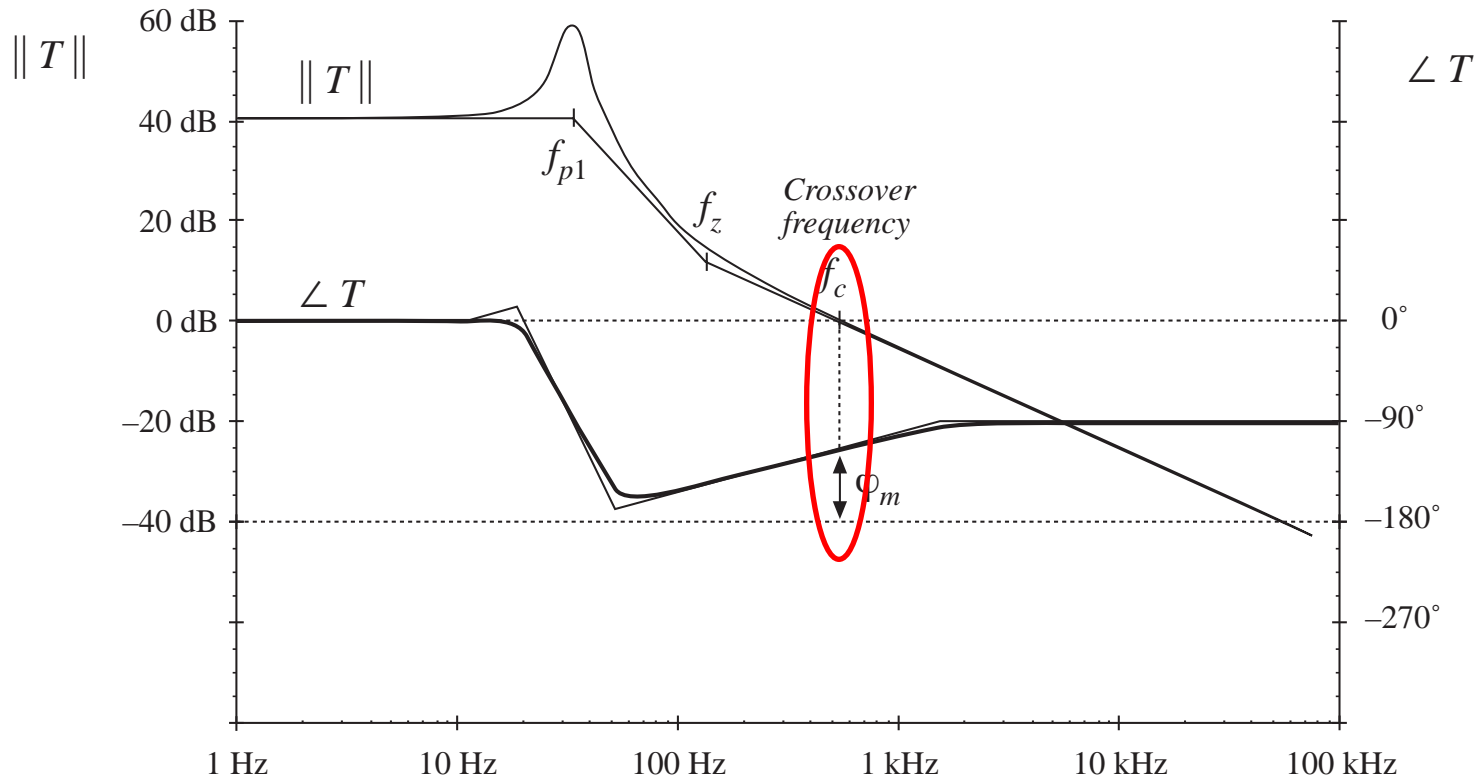
The phase margin φ_m is determined from the phase of $T(s)$ at f_c , as follows:

$$\varphi_m = 180^\circ + \angle T(j2\pi f_c)$$

If there is exactly one crossover frequency, and if $T(s)$ contains no RHP poles, then

the quantities $T(s)/(1+T(s))$ and $1/(1+T(s))$ contain no RHP poles whenever the phase margin φ_m is positive.

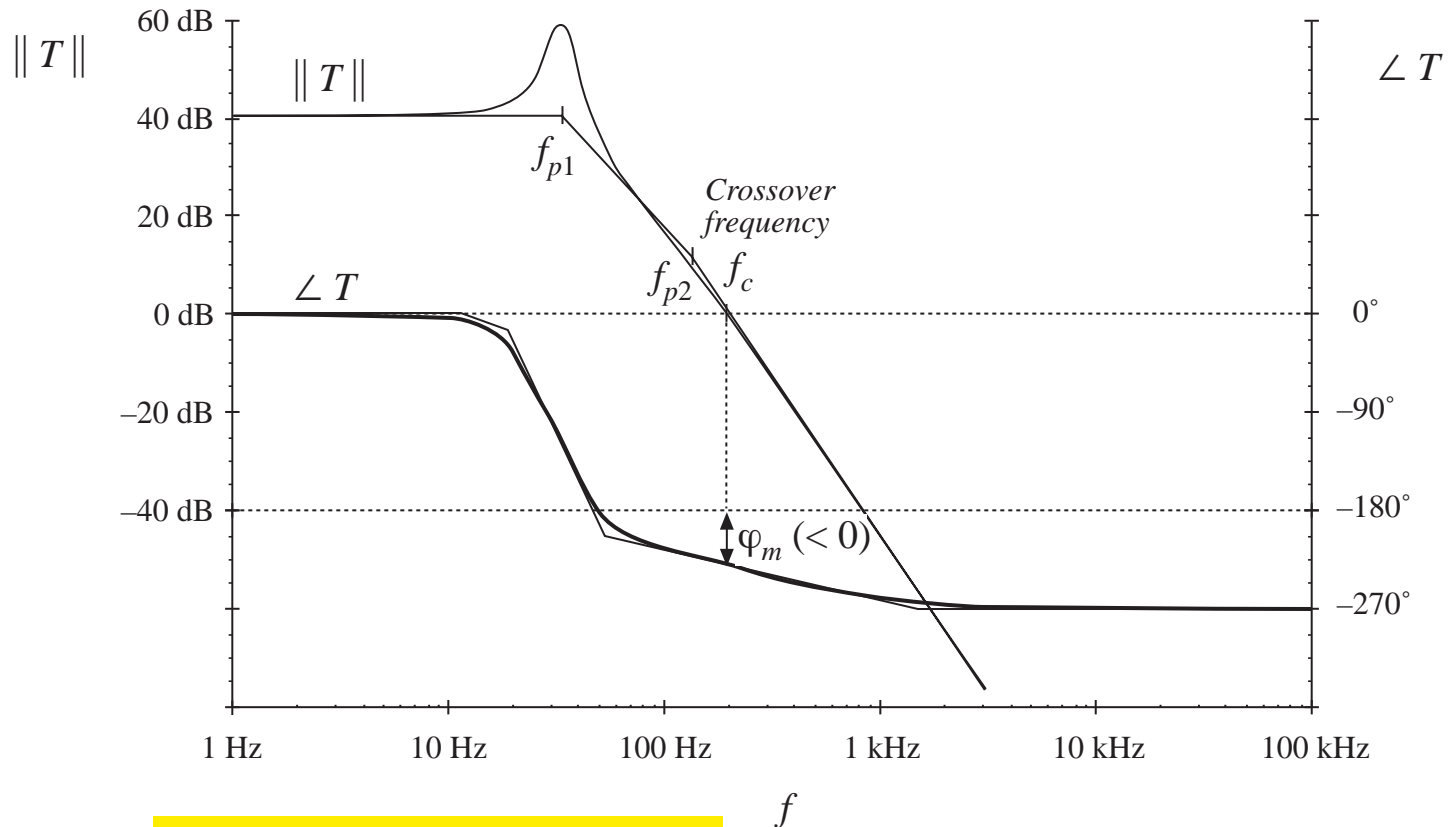
Example: a loop gain leading to a **stable** closed-loop system



$$\angle T(j2\pi f_c) = -112^\circ$$

$$\phi_m = 180^\circ - 112^\circ = +68^\circ$$

Example: a loop gain leading to an **unstable** closed-loop system



$$\angle T(j2\pi f_c) = -230^\circ$$

$$\varphi_m = 180^\circ - 230^\circ = -50^\circ$$

9.4.2. The relation between phase margin and closed-loop damping factor

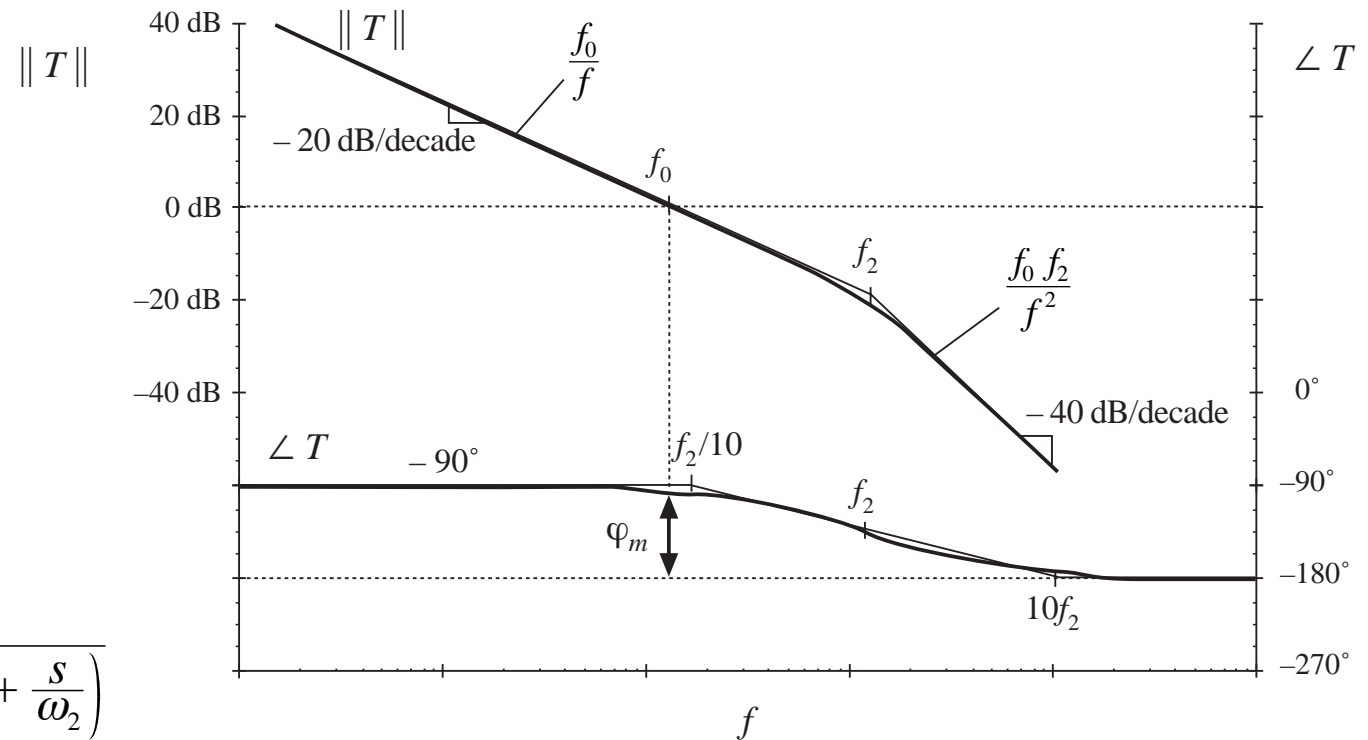
How much phase margin is required?

A small positive phase margin leads to a stable closed-loop system having complex poles near the crossover frequency with high Q . The transient response exhibits overshoot and ringing.

Increasing the phase margin reduces the Q . Obtaining real poles, with no overshoot and ringing, requires a large phase margin.

A simple second-order system

$$T(s) = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{s}{\omega_0}\right) \left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_2}\right)}$$



f_0 : magnitude crossover frequency

Closed-loop response

If

$$T(s) = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{s}{\omega_0}\right)\left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_2}\right)}$$

Then

$$\frac{T(s)}{1 + T(s)} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{T(s)}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{s}{\omega_0} + \frac{s^2}{\omega_0\omega_2}}$$

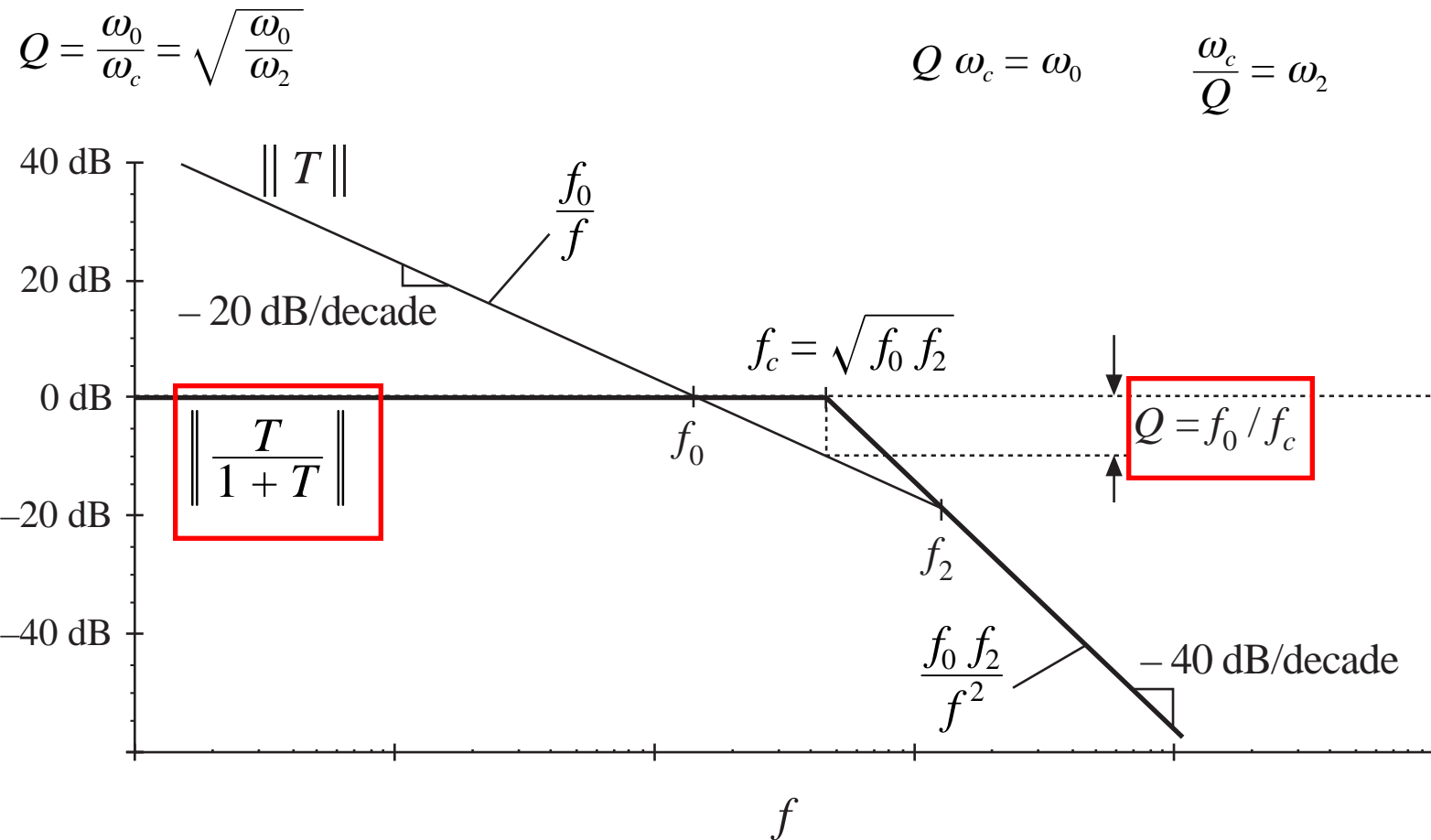
or,

$$\frac{T(s)}{1 + T(s)} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{s}{Q\omega_c} + \left(\frac{s}{\omega_c}\right)^2}$$

where

$$\omega_c = \sqrt{\omega_0\omega_2} = 2\pi f_c \quad Q = \frac{\omega_0}{\omega_c} = \sqrt{\frac{\omega_0}{\omega_2}}$$

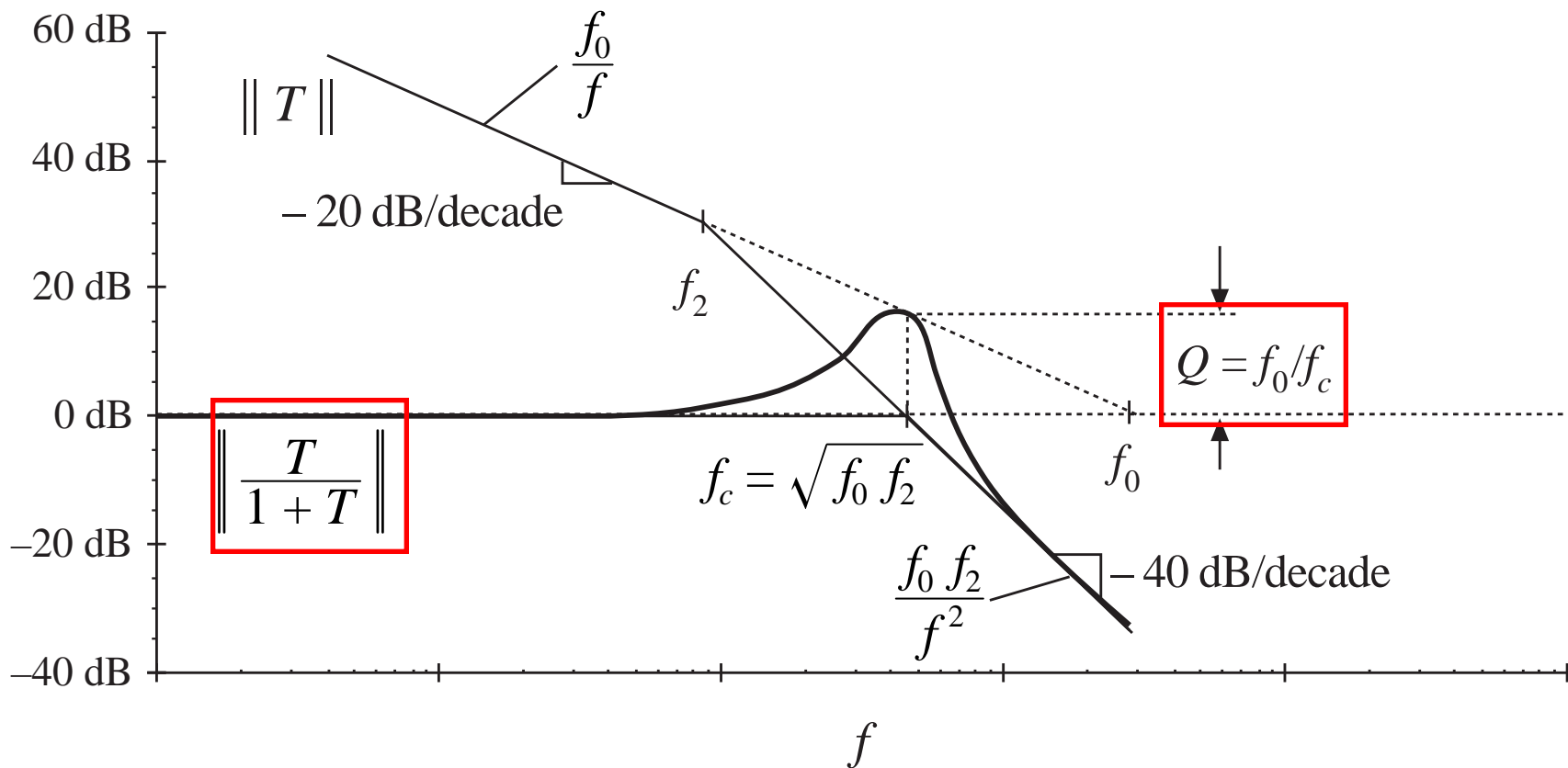
Low-Q case



High-Q case

$$\omega_c = \sqrt{\omega_0 \omega_2} = 2\pi f_c$$

$$Q = \frac{\omega_0}{\omega_c} = \sqrt{\frac{\omega_0}{\omega_2}}$$



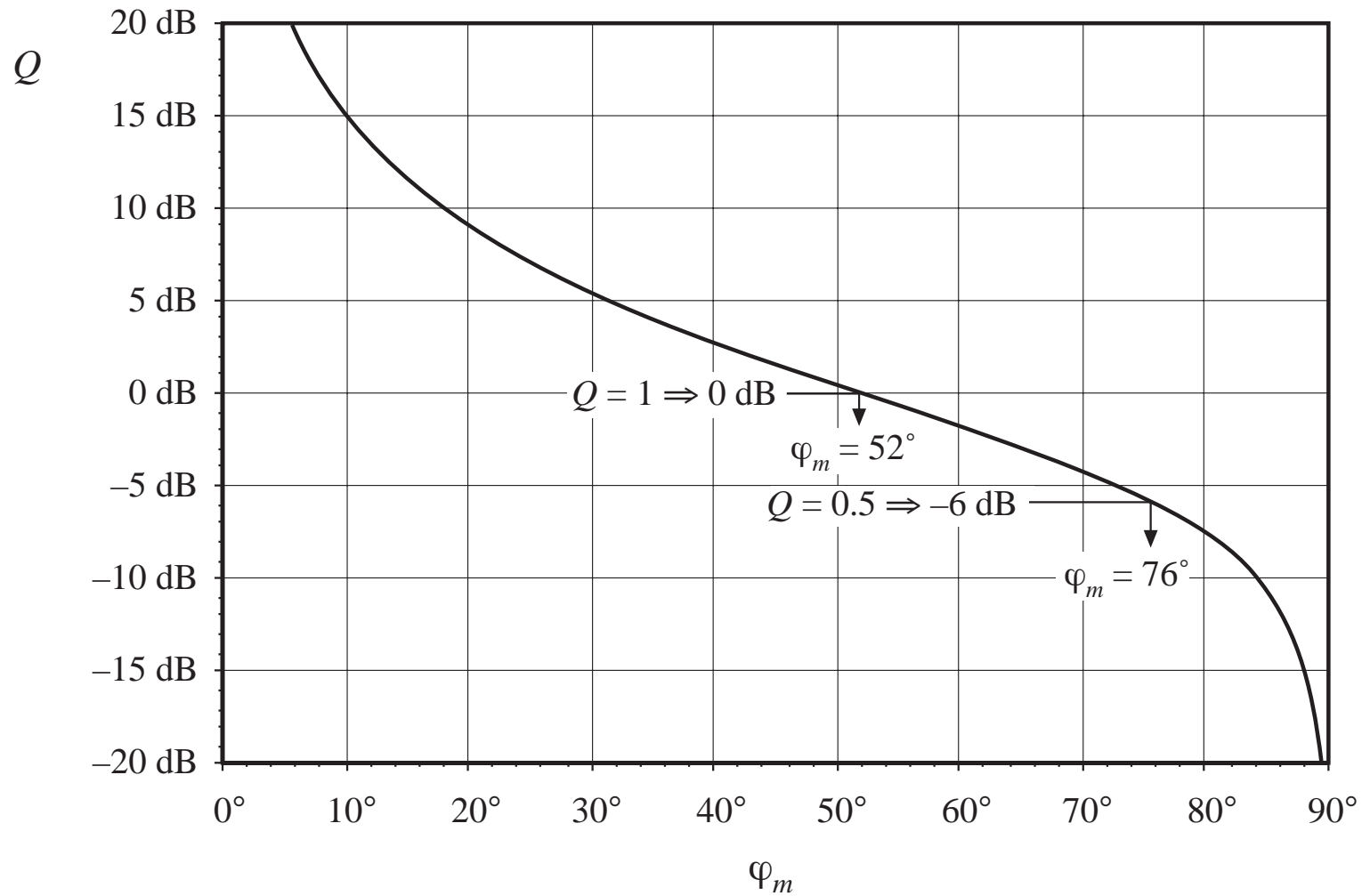
Q vs. φ_m

Solve for exact crossover frequency, evaluate phase margin, express as function of φ_m . Result is:

$$Q = \frac{\sqrt{\cos \varphi_m}}{\sin \varphi_m}$$

$$\varphi_m = \tan^{-1} \sqrt{\frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 4Q^4}}{2Q^4}}$$

Q vs. φ_m



9.4.3. Transient response vs. damping factor

Unit-step response of second-order system $T(s)/(1+T(s))$

$$\hat{v}(t) = 1 + \frac{2Q e^{-\omega_c t/2Q}}{\sqrt{4Q^2 - 1}} \sin \left[\frac{\sqrt{4Q^2 - 1}}{2Q} \omega_c t + \tan^{-1} \left(\sqrt{4Q^2 - 1} \right) \right] \quad Q > 0.5$$

$$\hat{v}(t) = 1 - \frac{\omega_2}{\omega_2 - \omega_1} e^{-\omega_1 t} - \frac{\omega_1}{\omega_1 - \omega_2} e^{-\omega_2 t} \quad Q < 0.5$$

$$\omega_1, \omega_2 = \frac{\omega_c}{2Q} \left(1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4Q^2} \right)$$

For $Q > 0.5$, the peak value is

$$\text{peak } \hat{v}(t) = 1 + e^{-\pi/\sqrt{4Q^2 - 1}}$$

Transient response vs. damping factor

