

# POWER CONSIDERATIONS



# OUTLINE

- Overview
- Voltage Regulation and DC/DC Converters
- Utility Power Considerations
- Battery Power Considerations
- Alternative Power Considerations
- Power Design Techniques
- Other Power Considerations
- Thermal Considerations



### **OVERVIEW**

- Why is power circuitry important?
  - All electrical circuits need voltage/power/current
  - All electrical components have strict V/I/P limits which must be adhered to
  - Limited range of input voltage levels (utility power, battery voltage levels, etc.)
  - Digital circuits often operate at one (or more) voltage levels (5V, 3.3V, 2.5V, 1.8V, 1.2V, 0.9V, etc.)
  - Need to convert from input levels to appropriate output levels



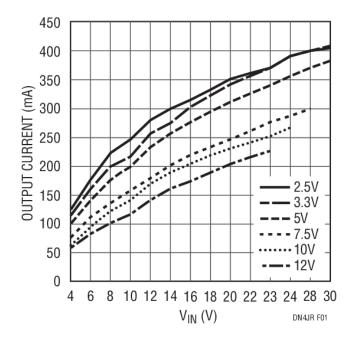
#### **Overview**

- Objective: accept a given input voltage and convert it to a desired output voltage level
- Provide a "flat" voltage with minimal transients
- Common Regulator Approaches:
  - Linear regulators and Low Dropout (LDO) regulators
  - Switching regulators:
    - Buck converters
    - Boost converters
    - Buck-Boost converters
    - Flyback converters
    - Other converters (Cuk, SEPIC, Push-Pull, etc.)



#### **Regulator Considerations**

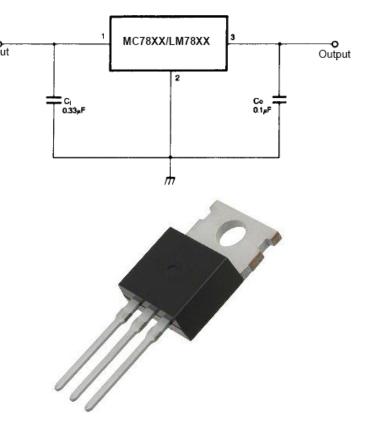
- Power/Voltage/Current: Maximum device ratings (W/V/A)
- Efficiency: % input power transferred to regulator output
- Ripple/Regulation: "Smoothness" of output voltage (transient suppression)
- <u>Isolation:</u> Amount of isolation provided by device (V or kV)
- Dropout: Depending on desired output current and output voltage levels, a certain minimum input voltage is required (example: obtaining 5V@200mA might require 5.5V Vin but 5V@4A might require 7V or 8V Vin)





#### **Regulator Types: Linear Regulators**

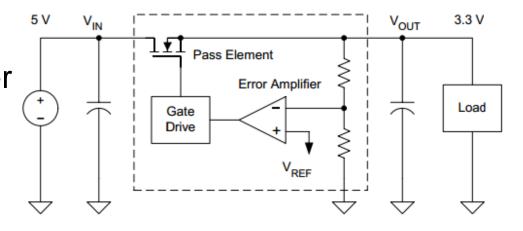
- Regulator acts as a resistive divider with a fixed input voltage, dissipating excess input power as heat
- Common parts: LM7805, LM78xx and variants
- Pros: Extremely simple, cheap
- Cons: Generate significant amounts of heat, require high input voltages, require external components (resistors, caps), inefficient (typical efficiencies of 30%~50%)
- Legacy design; largely obsolete





#### **Regulator Types: Low Dropout Regulators**

- Similar operation to a linear regulator, but designed to operate with a lower dropout than traditional linear regs.
- Used when a fixed voltage level is needed but current demands are low (generally < 0.5A) (dropout < 3V)</li>
- Pros: Simple, cheap, improved efficiency, lower dropout
- Cons: Significant power lost as heat, require external components, inefficient at high output currents





#### **Regulator Types: Switching Regulators**

- Operate by switching power to load at high speeds
- High efficiencies: (80%+ efficiency typical)
- Recommended for most digital design applications
- Separated by energy storage mode: (forward vs. flyback)
  - Forward: Energy delivered directly to load (no delay)
  - Flyback: Energy stored in magnetic fields, later delivered to load
- Separated by input/output (buck vs. boost vs. buck-boost)
  - Buck: Higher Vin is "stepped down" to lower Vout
  - Boost: Lower Vin is "boosted up" to higher Vout
  - Buck-Boost: Topology offering buck and/or boost URDUE operation

#### **Switching Regulators: Buck Converters**

- Switch an inductor on and off:
  - Switch Closed: Inductor V<sub>L</sub> opposes input voltage V<sub>in</sub>

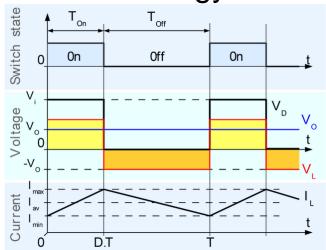
• Switch Open: Inductor discharges stored energy

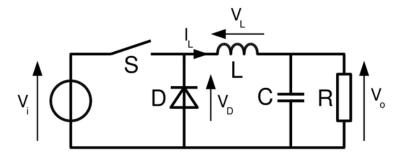
through load

"Steps down" voltage (V<sub>O</sub> < V<sub>I</sub>)

 Pros: Efficient, no need for large transformers, lower thermal requirements

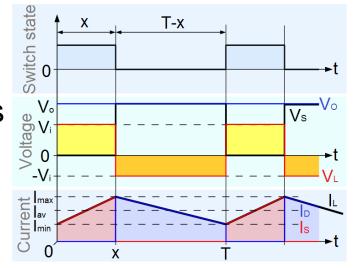
Cons: Switching introduces
 voltage ripple and EMI, current
 can vary significantly over
 switching cycle, complexity

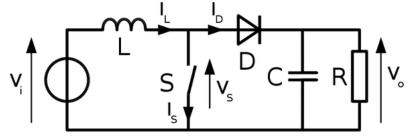




#### **Switching Regulators: Boost Converters**

- Switch an inductor on and off:
  - Switch Closed: Inductor charged via Vin
  - Switch Open: Inductor discharges into capacitor/load
- Output voltage is "stepped up" (V<sub>O</sub> > V<sub>I</sub>)
- Pros: Efficient, can power systems from small power sources, lower thermal requirements
- Cons: Switching introduces voltage ripple and EMI, complexity (ICs available)



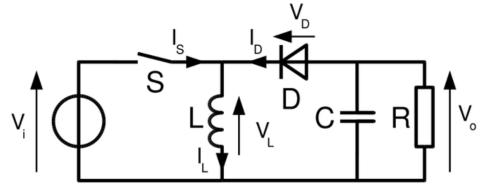




#### **Switching Regulators: Buck-Boost Converters**

- Circuit operation:
  - Switch Closed: Inductor charges, capacitor supplies power to load
  - Switch Open: Inductor supplies power to capacitor and load
  - Output voltage can be bucked or boosted
- Pros: Efficient, versatile, lower thermal requirements
- Cons: Switching introduces voltage ripple and EMI,
  - complexity, output voltage polarity reversed





#### **Switching Regulators: Flyback Converters**

- Similar in operation to a buck-boost converter, but inductor is split to form a transformer
- Capable of doing AC/DC or DC/DC conversion
- Pros: Efficient, versatile, provides isolation

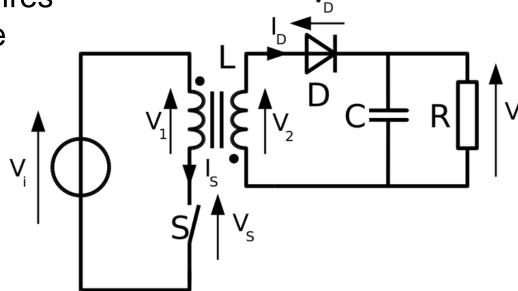
• Cons: Switching introduces voltage ripple and EMI,

complexity, requires

(potentially large

and heavy)

transformer





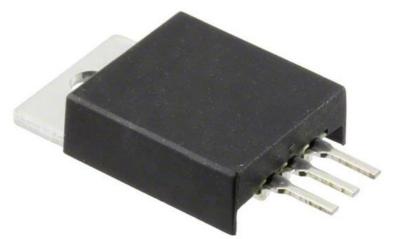
#### **Switching Regulators: Other Topologies**

- Other common switching converter topologies:
  - <u>Ćuk:</u> Boost stage followed by buck stage with shared capacitor for energy storage, continuous output current
  - SEPIC: Similar to Buck-boost, but capable of shutdown (0V output) and output is non-inverting
  - <u>Push-Pull:</u> Smoother current, higher efficiencies, less noise, higher cost (than Buck-boost)
  - Charge Pump: Uses capacitors (rather than inductors) as primary storage elements, low complexity, high efficiency (up to 95%), load-dependent output voltage



#### **Switching Regulators: COTS Converter Examples**

- A few commercial off-the shelf (COTS) DC/DC converter examples:
  - Murata OKL-T-W12: 2.9-14Vin, 0.9-5Vout, 1A, 5W max, \$3.10/unit
  - Rohm BP5275-50: 6-14Vin, 5Vout, 0.5A, 3W max, direct replacement to TO-220 linear regulators, \$5.63/unit

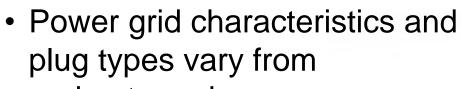






#### **Overview**

- Utility power: (sometimes known as "mains electricity")
  - AC power drawn from wall outlets
  - US power grid standards:
    - 110-127V @ 60Hz
    - Max circuit current draw: 10A, 15A, 20A common (check your breaker box!)











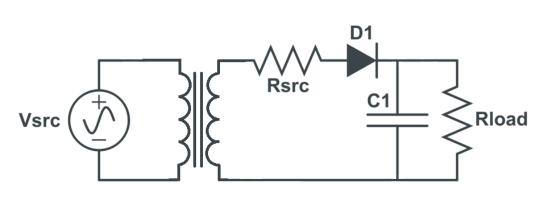
#### **Anatomy of an AC Adapter**

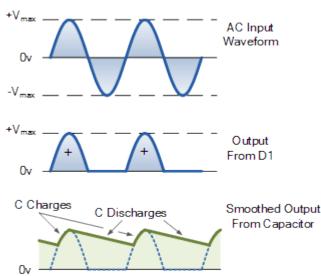
- <u>Rectifier:</u> A circuit which converts AC electricity to DC. (This current is not necessary constant, but it flows in a single direction)
- As of the mid-2000s, mostly switching supplies are used.
   Two (deprecated) analog techniques:
  - Half-Wave: Current flows during one-half of the phase of the AC voltage waveform (deprecated)
  - Full-Wave: Current flows during both phases of the AC voltage waveform (deprecated)



#### **Anatomy of an AC Adapter: Half-Wave Rectifier**

- Half-wave rectifiers use specialized diodes rated for high voltage, current, and power
- Pros: Extremely simple and (comparatively) cheap
- Cons: Half-wave designs introduce significant amounts of voltage ripple at the output (more difficult to keep capacitor charged between phases)



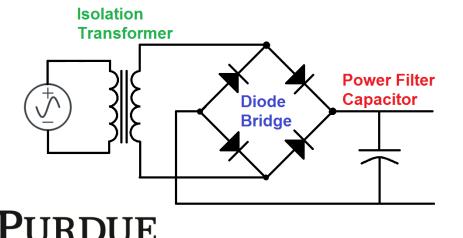


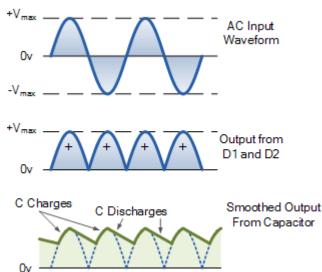


#### **Anatomy of an AC Adapter: Full-Wave Rectifier**

- Full-wave rectifiers typically use a group of 4 diodes (sometimes known as a "diode bridge")
- Pros: Simpler/cheaper than AC/DC converters (flyback), less output voltage ripple than half-wave
- Cons: More expensive than half-wave, typically use (large, heavy, expensive) transformers (flyback designs)

can reduce transformer size)





#### **Full-Wave Rectifier: Considerations**

- Depending on your circuit demands a full-wave rectifier may need to be followed by additional power filtering and/or regulation circuitry
- Need to choose components rated for desired voltages and currents
- The filter capacitor must be appropriately sized to achieve a desired level of ripple voltage:

$$\Delta V_{out} = \frac{I_{out}}{f_{in}C} \begin{array}{c} \Delta V_{out} : \text{Output voltage ripple(V)} \\ I_{out} : \text{Load current(A)} \\ f_{in} : \text{Input frequency(Hz)} \\ C : \text{Power filter capacitance(F)} \end{array}$$



#### **Battery Considerations**

- Capacity(C): Charge storeable in battery (Ah or mAh)
- <u>Current(I)</u>: Max charge/discharge rates often expressed in terms of battery capacity (e.g. 1C, 5C, 0.65C, etc.) or A
- Voltage(V): Voltage provided by battery (V). Based on battery chemistry. Varies with time, temperature
- Rechargeability: Some chemistries can be recharged
- Shelf Life: How well the battery retains its charge when not in use
- Cycles (for rechargeables): How many charging cycles the battery can sustain and retain its life
- Chemistry: Alkaline? Lithium? NiMH? Li-Ion? LiFePO<sub>4</sub>?
   Other?

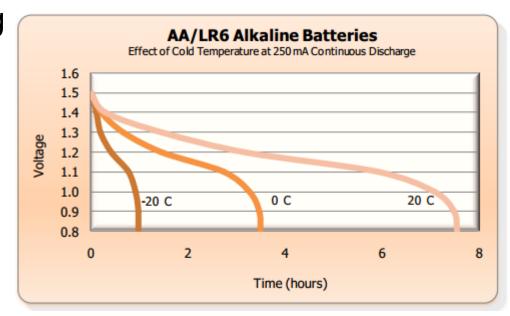
#### **Battery Discharge Curves**

 As a battery is used, its voltage decreases. The rate of this decrease depends on temperature, rate of current draw, and battery chemistry

 Voltage decrease is nonlinear, therefore simple measurement of battery voltage may be a poor technique

for predicting remaining battery life.

Some chemistries
 (such as Li-Ion) have
 minimum voltages
 needed for safe
 operation





#### **Battery Chemistries: Alkaline**

- <u>Electrodes:</u> Zinc (-) and Manganese Dioxide (+)
- Chemical Reaction:

$$Zn_{(s)} + 2MnO_{2(s)} \rightleftharpoons ZnO_{(s)} + Mn_2O_{3(s)}[e^o = 1.43V]$$

- <u>Capacity</u>: Load and cell size dependent, 700-1500mAh common (for AA cells)
- Voltage: 1.5V (nominal), 1.65V (max, no load), 1.1 1.3V (average, under load), 0.8V 1.0V (fully discharged)
- <u>Current:</u> Size dependent; 700mA for AA cells typical
- Other: Shelf life of 10+ years, generally not rechargeable





#### **Battery Chemistries: Lithium**

- Electrodes: Various materials but lithium anodes
- Capacity: Varies by specific chemistry, 30mAh 1000mAh
- Voltage: Varies by chemistry, 1.5V 3.7V nominal
- Other: High capacity, not rechargeable, long shelf life, more expensive
- Common Types: CRxxxx coin cells and "button cells"





#### **Battery Chemistries: Nickel Metal Hydride (NiMH)**

- <u>Electrodes:</u> NiOOH (+), hydrogen absorbing alloy (-)
- Chemical Reaction: (M: metal, MH: metal hydride)

$$NiO(OH) + MH \Longrightarrow Ni(OH)_2 + M(e^0 = 1.2V)$$

- Capacity: Varies by size, ~3000mAh AA cells common
- Voltage: 1.2V nominal, 1.4V fresh, 1.0-1.1V discharged
- Notes: High self-discharge rates (up to 4%/day), high cycle life (can be repeatedly recharged without substantial memory effects), recyclable, environmentally friendly, high energy densities (improvement



#### **Battery Chemistries: Lithium Ion (Li-Ion)**

- <u>Electrodes:</u> Lithium cobalt oxide (LiCoO<sub>2</sub>) (+), various alloys (-). Pass lithium ions between anode and cathode when charging/discharging
- Capacity: 2000mAh+ common (pack below is 6000mAh)
- Voltage: 3.7V nominal, 4.2V fresh, ~3.0V discharged

• Notes: High energy densities, no memory effects, low self

discharge rates

Pressurized

 and flammable –
 can pose safety
 risks (especially when damaged)



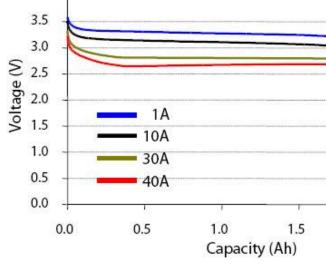
#### Battery Chemistries: Lithium Iron Phosphate (LifePO<sub>4</sub>)

- <u>Electrodes:</u> Lithium Iron Phosphate (LiFePO<sub>4</sub>) (+), various alloys (-). Variant of conventional Lithium Ion batteries
- Capacity: 2000mAh+ common (pack below is 6000mAh)
- Voltage: 3.2V nominal, 3.6V fresh, 2.0-2.5V discharged

Notes: Lower energy density than Li-Ion, but improved

4.0

cycle life, longer lasting, and considerably safer



Discharge characteristics, 25 deg C

2.0

2.5

#### **Battery Chemistries: Other Battery Chemistries**

- Zinc: Non-rechargeable chemistry. Worse performance than alkaline but substantially cheaper
- Silver Oxide: Non-rechargeable chemistry. Safer and more energy dense than lithium-ion tech. \$\$\$\$\$\$\$
- Nickel Cadmium (NiCd): Rechargeable chemistry. Less energy dense than NiMH but lower discharge rate
- <u>Lead-Acid:</u> Rechargeable chemistry. Most commonly found in cars. Heavy but capable of supplying very high surge currents. Cheap vs. comparable Li-Ion.
- <u>Lithium-Sulfur Battery (Li-S):</u> Potential emerging battery technology, offers substantial energy density improvements over conventional Li-Ion battery tech



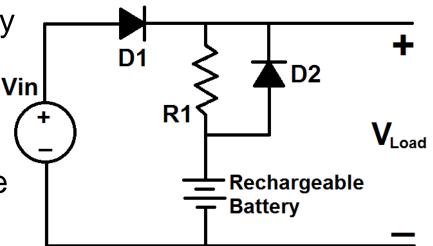
#### **Battery Charging Techniques**

- Depending on battery chemistry, different charging techniques are available to charge cells safely (cells can be severely damaged from excessive voltage, current, temperature, etc.):
  - Trickle charging: Provide small amount of current to maintain present battery state (often used for battery backups)
  - <u>Fast charging:</u> Utilize built-in safety features within certain batteries to charge batteries more quickly
  - <u>CC/CV charging:</u> 2-step charging process, in which a battery is initially charged with a constant current. Once a threshold is reached, the charger switches over to a fixed voltage to complete charging

#### **Battery Charging: Trickle Charging**

 Simple trickle charger battery backup example

 R1 must be sized properly to allow for safe charging current to be delivered to the battery



- Power normally supplied via Vin (regulated AC adapter or other source)
- When device is unplugged or power source for Vin otherwise fails, D1 is reverse biased and D2 forward biased, allowing the rechargeable battery to power the load

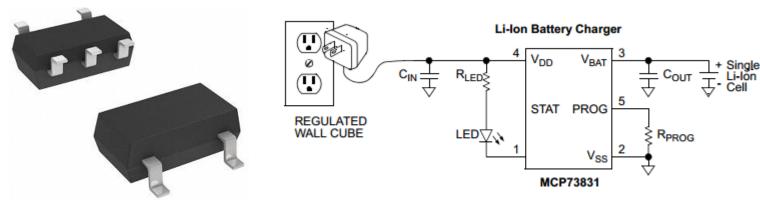


#### Charging, Monitoring, and Power Management ICs (PMICs)

- Modern electronics systems can have complicated power requirements, such as:
  - <u>Battery Charging:</u> Needed for safely charging some chemistries, especially lithium ion variants
  - <u>Power Source Selection:</u> Multiple power sources (utility, USB, battery backup, solar, etc.) may exist; need to select the appropriate power source at a given time
  - Power Sequencing: Depending on the application, some systems/circuits/devices may need to be powered on (or off) before others
  - <u>Battery Monitoring:</u> Determine remaining battery life at a given time (simple voltage measure often insufficient)

Charging, Monitoring, and Power Management ICs (PMICs)

- Solution to power management issues? Dedicated ICs.
  - Battery Charger: Used to charge batteries with a particular charging algorithm
  - Battery Monitoring: Used to measure battery level and estimate remaining battery life
  - <u>Battery Protection:</u> Used to protect battery from excessive voltages and/or currents



### AMBIENT POWER CONSIDERATIONS

#### **Energy Harvesting**

- Depending on device power demands and environment, ambient sources of power may be available:
  - Solar: Draw energy from light sources with solar cells
  - RF: Draw power from TV, radio, satellite, etc. signals
  - Motion and Vibration: Harvest power from natural motion (small turbines, footsteps, etc.)
  - Heat: Harvest energy from heat sources (waste heat from an engine, body heat, etc.)



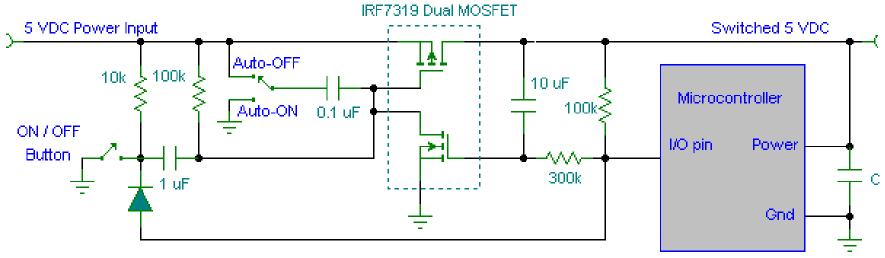




## **POWER DESIGN TECHNIQUES**

#### Simple Programmable Shutdown

### Latching Push Button High Side Power Controller for Microcontrollers (Press-ON / Controlled Shut-Down / Hold-OFF)

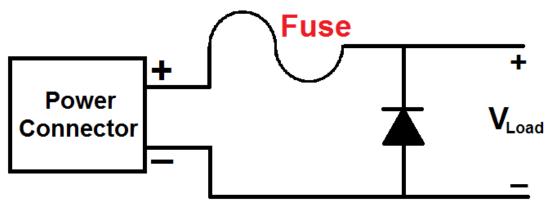


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### **POWER DESIGN TECHNIQUES**

Simple Reverse Polarity Protection



- Q: What happens if somebody accidentally hooks up power backwards?
  - A (w/ no protection): Bzzzzzzt! \*Smoke\* Nooooooooo!
  - A (w/ protection): Nothing.
- Other techniques include polarized or reversible connectors (only one way to connect or connector orientation doesn't matter)



### OTHER POWER CONSIDERATIONS

#### **Wireless Transmission of Power**

 Transfer power from one location to another without the use of dedicated wires

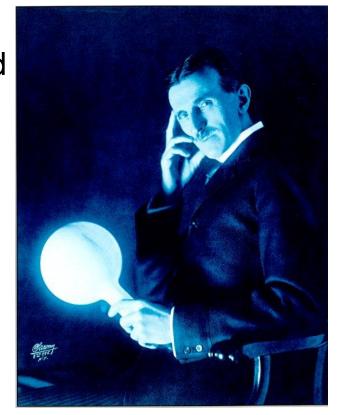
Popular for charging, situations where wires could twist or

get tangled, etc.

 Inductive coupling: A magnetic field is induced by a transmitter and received by a separate device (RFID tags, etc.)

- Air core: Lossy, easy alignment
- Magnetic core: Similar to a transformer; method used by electric toothbrushes





- Power electronics can be a significant source of HEAT
- Electrical performance of most components degrades as temperature increases
- User safety concerns (don't want end users to be burnt)
- Need design techniques to safely dissipate heat (heat sinking, thermal paste, ventilation and fans)



#### **Temperature, Power, and Thermal Resistance**

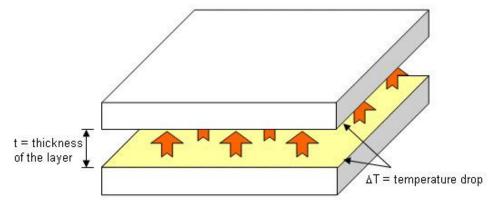
- Power: P = IV (measured in W)
- <u>Temperature:</u> Maximum temperature is generally a design constraint (recall lecture 2)
- Thermal Resistance: A value given to heatsinks and components, details a junction's resistance to heat flow (°C/W) (↓Resistance → ↑Performance)

$$\Delta T = Q \cdot R_{\theta}$$

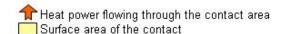
 $\Delta T$ : Temperature change

Q:Heat flow

 $R_{\theta}$ :Thermal resistance



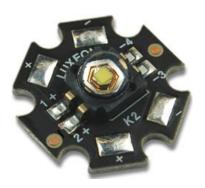


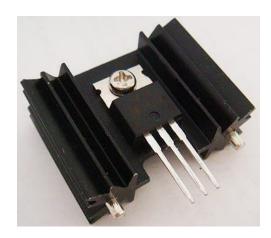


#### **Heat Sinks**

- Heat Sinks: Passive devices used to transfer heat away from a location and dissipate it into the environment
- Many varieties, depending on form factor, thermal resistance, size, etc.
- Better thermal performance generally requires:
  - <u>Size:</u> Larger heat sink = more thermal mass AND/OR
  - Cost: More exotic and expensive materials

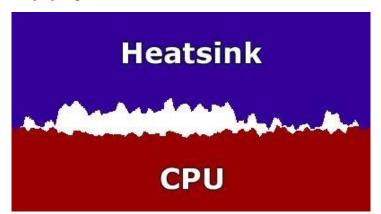






#### **Thermal Paste**

- While heat sinks are excellent conductors of heat, the physical junction between it and a component of interest is not
- Thermal Paste: Specialized compound designed to provide adhesion and improve heat transfer at component/heatsink junction
- Apply with care; some thermal pastes are conductive







#### **Fans and Ventilation**

- Heat sinks/thermal paste can effectively dissipate heat from the immediate electrical junction, but sometimes this heat must be further dissipated
- Adding ventilation for airflow may be an option for your design (can allow outside contaminants and dust in)
- Fans can further increase airflow and heat dissipation in your designs







#### **Thermal Design Example**

- Example: Suppose we have a linear voltage regulator designed to regulate 6-10V input down to 5V while passing up to 1A. For safety and performance purposes this regulator should not exceed 122°F (50°C) (assume room temperature operation of 25°C)
- Questions: How much power can the regulator dissipate?
  What temperature will the regulator reach without a
  heatsink? What thermal resistance will be necessary to
  meet the performance/safety spec.? What parts might we
  use, and what might they cost (passive and forced air
  cases)?



#### **Thermal Design Example 2**

Dissipated Power:

$$P_{\text{max}} = V_{\text{max}}^* I_{\text{max}} = 5V * 1A = ??????$$

• Estimated Temperature Change (no Heatsink):

R<sub>e</sub>(junction to case): 1.5°C/W

R<sub>θ</sub>(junction to air) : 65°C/W

 $\Delta T = Q^*R_0 = 5W^*(65^{\circ}C/W) = ??????$ 

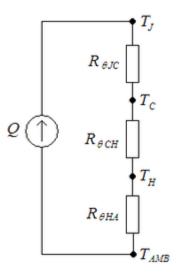
 $T = T_{ambient} + \Delta T = 25^{\circ}C + ?????$ 



$$R_{\theta} = \Delta T/Q = 25^{\circ}C/5W \approx ??????$$

Assuming thermal grease resistance of  $0.1^{\circ}\text{C/W}$  (typical), need heatsink with  $R_{\theta} = (5 - 1.5 - 0.1)^{\circ}\text{C/W} = ?????$ 





#### **Thermal Design Example 3**

Dissipated Power:

$$P_{max} = V_{max}^* I_{max} = 5V * 1A = 5W$$

• Estimated Temperature Change (no Heatsink):

R<sub>e</sub>(junction to case): 1.5°C/W

R<sub>e</sub>(junction to air) : 65°C/W

$$\Delta T = Q^*R_0 = 5W^*(65^{\circ}C/W) = 325^{\circ}C$$

 $T = T_{ambient} + \Delta T = 25^{\circ}C + 325^{\circ}C$ 

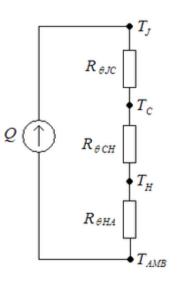
 $=350^{\circ}C(662^{\circ}F)$ 



$$R_{\theta} = \Delta T/Q = 25^{\circ}C/5W \approx 5^{\circ}C/W$$

Assuming thermal grease resistance of  $0.1^{\circ}\text{C/W}$  (typical), need heatsink with  $R_{\theta} = (5 - 1.5 - 0.1)^{\circ}\text{C/W} = 3.4^{\circ}\text{C/W}$ 





#### **Thermal Design Example 4**

- Heat sink parts meeting  $R_{\theta} = 3.4^{\circ}\text{C/W}$  (without fan):
  - Dimensions: 63.5mm (height) x 41.91mm (width)
  - Minimum cost: \$1.63/unit
- Reliability can be further improved using fans, ventilation,

and other techniques



# Questions?

