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Title	Switched capacitor charge pump voltage-controlled current source
Authors	Avallone, Luca;Napoli, Ettore;Kennedy, Michael Peter
Publication date	2018-12-24
Original Citation	Avallone, L., Napoli, E. and Kennedy, M. P. (2018) 'Switched capacitor charge pump voltage-controlled current source', 29th Irish Signals and Systems Conference (ISSC 2018), Belfast, UK, 21-22 June. doi:10.1109/ISSC.2018.8585387
Type of publication	Conference item
Link to publisher's version	https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/8585387 - 10.1109/ISSC.2018.8585387
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Switched Capacitor Charge Pump Voltage-Controlled Current Source

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***Abstract*—This manuscript describes a switched-capacitor current source for applications such as driving high brightness LEDs and lasers. By introducing a third phase of operation into a two-phase charge pump DC-DC converter, the proposed design offers a potential solution to the excessive power typically consumed in regulating the diode or laser current. This results in a highly integrable voltage-to-current regulator.**

***Index Terms*—high brightness LED driver, switched capacitor DC-DC converter, current source**

I. Introduction

With recent improvements in LEDs and semiconductor lasers in terms of reduced size and increased output power capabilities, drive currents of higher than $1A$ can be required, outputting over $1W$ of light per solid-state device [1], [2]. As these devices are commonly used in portable electronic systems, high efficiency and highly integrable power converters must be used. In this context, inductor-based Buck/Boost converters are starting to be replaced by switched capacitor DC-DC converters [3]– [6].

LEDs and lasers need to be driven by a constant current to eliminate problems associated with variations in the voltage supply and temperature that can shift their I-V curve and, in the worst case, cause thermal runaway. To achieve this, a current regulating transistor biased in saturation is often used. Unfortunately, such a series transistor can dissipate a large amount of power, and result in significant degradation of power efficiency in these systems.

The goal of this work is to present a switched capacitor charge-pump power converter which regulates current through the inherent design of the charge pump itself and not through a separate means of regulation. Furthermore, the proposed solution is compatible with the current trend of implementing converters for series connections of multiple devices, as current only needs to be regulated for one path.

The proposed solution has been simulated, design rules have been found and a prototype has been constructed.

In Section II we describe the architecture. Design rules are presented in Section III. We compare theoretical and simulated results in Section IV. The results of the constructed model have been proposed in Section V.

The analysis and the experimental results obtained in this paper are mainly based on the theoretical background provided in [7].

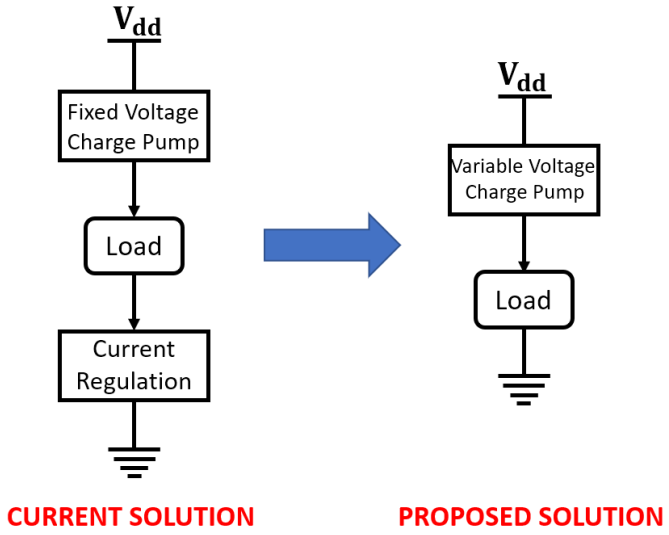


Fig. 1. Currently implemented solution (left) and proposed solution (right)

II. Architecture

Fig. 1 shows on the left a conventional current source based on a charge pump [8]– [11]. The current I_{bias} that is delivered to the load by the Charge Pump, is controlled by Current Regulation block. In most cases, the current regulator is a simple transistor biased in saturation. Consequently, there is a voltage drop across it, V_{DS}, that results in a power loss, P_{loss}, defined by:

$$P_{loss} = V_{DS} I_{bias}, \tag{1}$$

where I_{bias} is the current flowing through the transistor.

The proposed design (shown in Fig. 1 on the right) avoids this problem by removing the large regulating transistor. Instead, the current is regulated within the charge pump itself. The architecture of the switched-capacitor current source introduced in this work is shown in Fig. 2.

Charge is transferred from a voltage source (denoted V_{dd} in Fig. 2) to a load (shown as a resistor R_2 in Fig. 2) via a flying

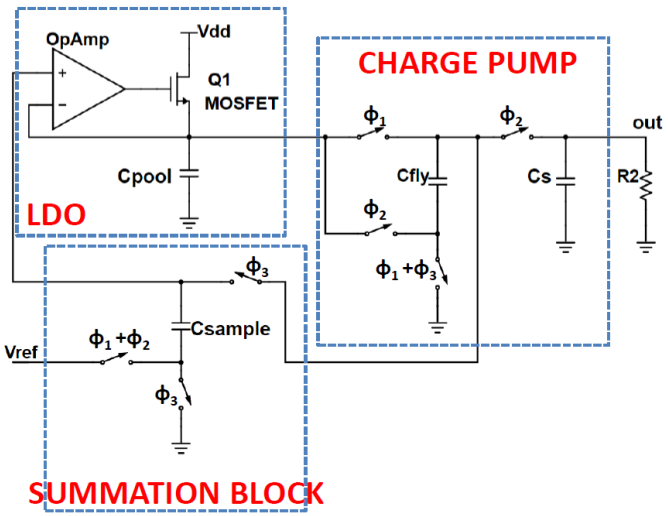


Fig. 2. Block diagram of the charge pump voltage-to-current converter

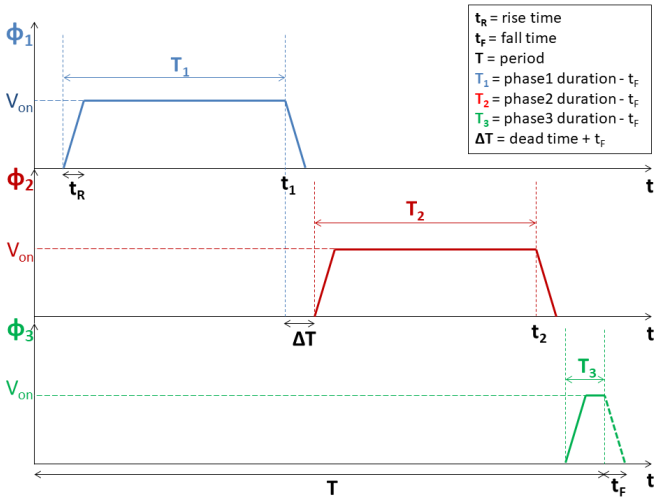


Fig. 3. Clock phases

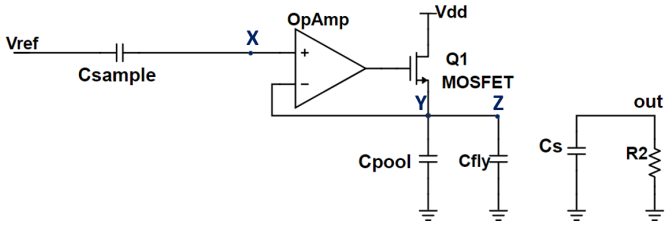


Fig. 4. Circuit topology in ϕ_1

capacitor C_{fly}. After a start-up transient, the circuit reaches equilibrium when the charge delivered to C_{fly} during the first clock phase (denoted ϕ_1) equals the charge delivered to the load during the second phase (denoted ϕ_2).

The circuit in Fig. 2 can be divided into three main parts:

- A charge pump that doubles the voltage on C_{pool};
- A summation block that adds the sampled voltage on C_{fly} to a reference voltage V_{ref};
- A low-dropout (LDO) regulator that acts as a peak detector of the voltage on the non-inverting input of the operational amplifier (OpAmp), called V_{sum}.

Unlike conventional switched capacitor circuits, three non-overlapping phases ϕ_1, ϕ_2 and ϕ_3 are employed, as shown in Fig. 3. The charge transfer phases ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 are approximately half a cycle long; the measurement phase ϕ_3 can be much shorter, as only the sampling of the voltage on C_{fly} is required in this phase.

Fig. 4 shows the circuit topology during clock phase ϕ_1. The potential on node X, called V_{sum}, is the sum of the voltage on C_{sample} (that is the sampled voltage on C_{fly} in ϕ_3) and V_{ref}. It is applied to the LDO that acts as a peak detector. Therefore, C_{pool} and C_{fly} are charged to the value of V_{sum} that it is assumed maximum and constant during ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 in this first order analysis. Meanwhile, C_s is discharging into the load; as a result, V_{out} is decreasing.

Fig. 5 shows the circuit topology during clock phase ϕ_2. During ϕ_2, only one function is performed, namely driving the load via C_{fly}. The voltage on C_{pool} can be considered constant because the LDO keeps the potential on node Y (shown in Fig. 4) constant and equal to the one on node X, that is assumed constant too in ϕ_2.

Fig. 6 shows the circuit topology during clock phase ϕ_3. During ϕ_3, C_{sample} measures the remaining charge on C_{fly} at the end of ϕ_2. Also in this phase, C_s is discharging into the load, resulting in a decrease in V_{out}.

III. Design Rules

Qualitatively, the system adds the reference voltage V_{ref} to the output voltage on each cycle, while the output is decaying at the load. After the transient, the output decreases at the same rate at which V_{ref} is being added to it. At this point, one can

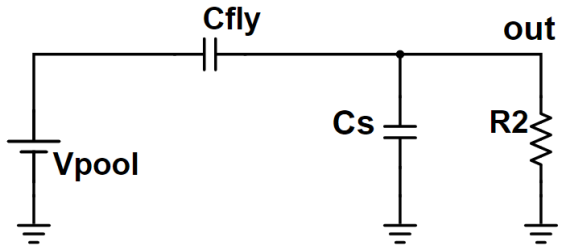


Fig. 5. Circuit topology in ϕ_2

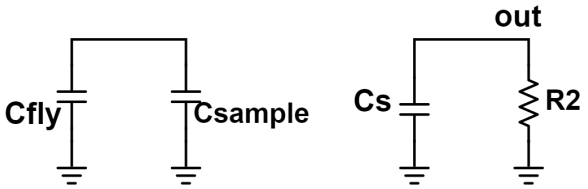


Fig. 6. Circuit topology in ϕ_3

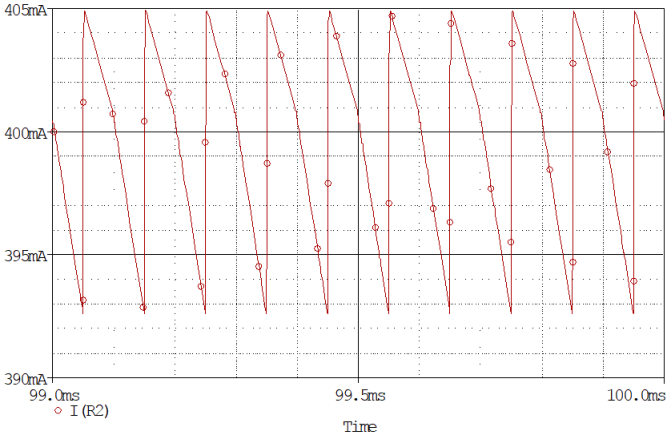


Fig. 7. Output current waveform, showing ripple

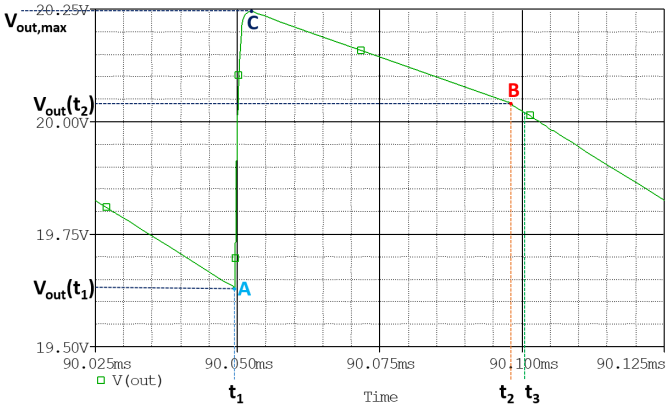


Fig. 8. Output voltage waveform in a period

determine the charge being delivered to the load per period, and subsequently the current, as it is directly proportional to the reference voltage V_{ref}.

A. Average output current

The average current delivered to the load is defined by

$$I_{out,av} = \frac{Q}{T}, \tag{2}$$

where Q is the charge transferred during a period T.

In particular,

$$Q = C_{fly}\, V_{ref}. \tag{3}$$

With the values of C_{fly} and T fixed, the average current delivered to the load is proportional to V_{ref}, namely

$$I_{out,av} = \left(\frac{C_{fly}}{T}\right) V_{ref}. \tag{4}$$

While the total charge per cycle, Q, is delivered during ϕ_2, the smoothing capacitor C_s gives apparent continuous operation. Nevertheless, the output current exhibits ripple, as shown in Fig. 7

B. Ripple

A set of four equations that describes the behaviour of V_{out}, the output voltage, and V_{pool}, the voltage on C_{pool}, in a period in steady-state has been derived. It also allows us to estimate the peak-to-peak ripple of the output current waveform, as we will see in this section.

Note that the times denoted in Fig. 8 as t_1, t_2, and t_3, indicate respectively the end of ϕ_1, ϕ_2 and ϕ_3.

Looking at the configuration of the circuit in ϕ_2, shown in Fig. 5:

$$V_{fly}(t_2) = V_{out}(t_2) - V_{pool}(t_2), \tag{5}$$

where V_{fly} is the voltage on C_{fly}.

Looking at the configuration of the circuit in ϕ_3, shown in Fig. 6, and assuming that $C_{fly} >> C_{sample}$ (we will explain this assumption later):

$$\begin{aligned} V_{sum}(t_3) &= V_{fly}(t_2) \\ V_{sum}(t_3) &= V_{out}(t_2) - V_{pool}(t_2). \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

Looking at the configuration of the circuit in ϕ_1, shown in Fig. 4:

$$V_{sum}(t_1) = V_{sum}(t_3) + V_{ref}. \tag{7}$$

Substituting $V_{sum}(t_3)$, found in (6), into (7):

$$V_{sum}(t_1) = V_{out}(t_2) + V_{ref} - V_{pool}(t_2). \tag{8}$$

Since the LDO works as the peak detector of the voltage V_{sum}, that is assumed maximum and constant in ϕ_1, V_{pool} is assumed constant over the entire period:

$$V_{pool}(t_2) \simeq V_{pool} = V_{sum}(t_1). \tag{9}$$

It means that Equation (8) can be written as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} V_{pool} &= V_{out}(t_2) + V_{ref} - V_{pool} \\ V_{pool} &= \frac{V_{out}(t_2) + V_{ref}}{2}. \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

The relationship between $V_{out}(t_2)$ and $V_{out}(t_1)$ can be easily found as follows:

$$V_{out}(t_1) = V_{out}(t_2)\, \exp\left(-\frac{(T - T_2)}{(R_2\, C_s)}\right). \tag{11}$$

Furthermore, at the end of ϕ_1, the voltage on C_{fly} is approximately V_{pool}. Therefore, at the beginning of ϕ_2, the potential on the node denoted as Z in Fig. 4, is equal to $2 \times V_{pool}$, that is greater than $V_{out}(t_1)$. It means that, ideally, the voltage $2 \times V_{pool} - V_{out}(t_1)$ is distributed instantaneously between the two capacitances C_s and C_{fly}:

$$V_{out,max} = V_{out}(t_1) + \frac{(2\, V_{pool} - V_{out}(t_1))\, C_{fly}}{(C_s + C_{fly})}. \tag{12}$$

After reaching its maximum value at the beginning of the second phase, the output voltage decreases (as shown also in Fig. 8) with a time constant, that has been evaluated using the open circuit time constant method:

$$\tau = R_2 C_s + R_2 * C_{fly} = R_2(C_s + C_{fly}).$$

Therefore, the relationship between $V_{out,max}$ and $V_{out}(t_2)$ is as follows:

$$V_{out}(t_2) = V_{out,max}\, \exp\left(\frac{-T_2}{R_2\, (C_s + C_{fly})}\right). \tag{13}$$

TABLE I
PARAMETER VALUES FOR TWO CASES

PARAMETER	CASE I (SLOW)	CASE II (FAST)
C_{pool}	$50\mu F$	$5\mu F$
C_{fly}	$40\mu F$	$4\mu F$
C_s	$50\mu F$	$5\mu F$
C_{sample}	$2\mu F$	$2\mu F$
T_1	$48.5\mu s$	$485ns$
T_2	$48\mu s$	$480ns$
T_3	$2\mu s$	$20ns$
T	$100\mu s$	$1\mu s$
R_2	50Ω	50Ω
ΔT	$0.5\mu s$	$5ns$
$t_r = t_f$	$100ns$	$1ns$
V_{dd}	$12V$	$12V$

The system of the four equations (10)–(13), returns the values of V_{out} in the points denoted as A, B and C in Fig. 8 and V_{pool} in steady-state conditions, given the values of V_{ref}, R_2, T, T_2, C_s and C_{fly}. *MATLAB* has been used to solve it. This set of equations can also be used to estimate the peak-to-peak ripple of the output current waveform, as $V_{out,max}$ and $V_{out}(t_1)$ are respectively the maximum and minimum values of V_{out} in a period:

$$I_{ripple} = \frac{V_{out,max} - V_{out}(t_1)}{R_2}. \tag{14}$$

IV. SIMULATION RESULTS

The circuit has been simulated with *PSpice* using the parameter values of Table I. Case I is a slow clock; the clock in Case 2 is a hundred times faster. The times associated with the three phases are as indicated in Fig. 3. All switches are assumed ideal, with on and off resistances of $10m\Omega$ and $1M\Omega$, respectively, and no parasitic capacitance. For more accurate results, better switch models have been used, as we will see later in this section.

Fig. 9 shows the output current and the output voltage with V_{ref} varying from 0V to 1.00V in steps of 0.25V (a) and from 0V to 0.100V in steps of 0.025V (b), respectively. $R_2 = 50\Omega$ in both cases.

The plots are almost identical for other loads, once the voltage required to drive the specified current does not exceed the maximum voltage that the charge pump can deliver. The minor variations in both response time and ripple are as a result of the difference in time constants between the load and output smoothing capacitor. However, the average current delivered is identical for both cases and is accurately predicted by (4). Note also that the output current varies linearly with V_{ref}, as expected.

In Section III, we have assumed that $C_{fly} >> C_{sample}$, but the values of these two capacitances in the two cases shown in Table I (specially in the fast one), do not satisfy this assumption. However, the circuit still works well. Once the system reaches steady-state, C_{sample} will already have an initial voltage across it (from the last cycle) that will be very close, if not identical, to that across C_{fly}. As a result, only a small charge, if any, will need to be transferred in ϕ_3 between the two capacitances in order to reach the same potential. Therefore, even if the assumption $C_{fly} >> C_{sample}$ is not satisfied, Equation (6) is still valid with a very good approximation.

TABLE II
SIMULATED RESULTS VS PREDICTED RESULTS IN THE SLOW CASE

Variable	Equation	Simulation	Error (%)
$I_{out,av}$	$400.0mA$	$398.8mA$	0.3
V_{pool}	$10.527V$	$10.523V$	< 0.1
$V_{out}(t_1)$	$19.644V$	$19.631V$	< 0.1
$V_{out,max}$	$20.270V$	$20.249V$	< 0.1
$V_{out}(t_2)$	$20.053V$	$20.040V$	< 0.1
I_{ripple}	$12.523mA$	$12.315mA$	1.7

TABLE III
SIMULATED RESULTS VS PREDICTED RESULTS IN THE FAST CASE

Variable	Equation	Simulation	Error (%)
$I_{out,av}$	$400.0mA$	$400.1mA$	< 0.1
V_{pool}	$10.053V$	$10.062V$	< 0.1
$V_{out}(t_1)$	$19.964V$	$19.976V$	< 0.1
$V_{out,max}$	$20.027V$	$20.037V$	< 0.1
$V_{out}(t_2)$	$20.005V$	$20.019V$	< 0.1
I_{ripple}	$1.219mA$	$1.258mA$	3.2

A. Output current and ripple

Tables II and III compare the predicted and simulated results respectively in the slow case (with $V_{ref} = 1V$) and the fast case (with $V_{ref} = 0.1V$) of Table I. They confirm that the equations describe very well the normal operation of the circuit. Note that they do not work well under particular operating conditions, for example when the charge pump saturates. In fact, V_{dd} does not appear in any equation.

B. Ideal switches vs real MOSFETs

Further simulations have been performed replacing the ideal switches with real MOSFETs in order to obtain more accurate results and to find the operating limits of the circuit.

The Power MOSFETs produced by Infineon Technologies, called IRF1010EZ (its datasheet is presented in [12]), has been chosen for its low ON resistance ($8.5m\Omega$) and robust handling capabilities.

The two main consequences of this replacement are:

- Due to the presence of an inherent body diode in Power MOSFETs, current is blocked in just one direction when the MOSFET is OFF. As a result, if the MOSFET Drain is not always at a higher potential than its Source, as happens for the three switches circled in red in Fig. 10 on the left, we are forced to replace the ideal bi-directional switch with two Power MOSFETs in a back-to-back configuration, shown in Fig. 10 on the right.
- Due to the high parasitic capacitances of these MOSFETs, the circuit does not work properly if the capacitance values of C_{fly}, C_{pool} and C_{sample} are too small.

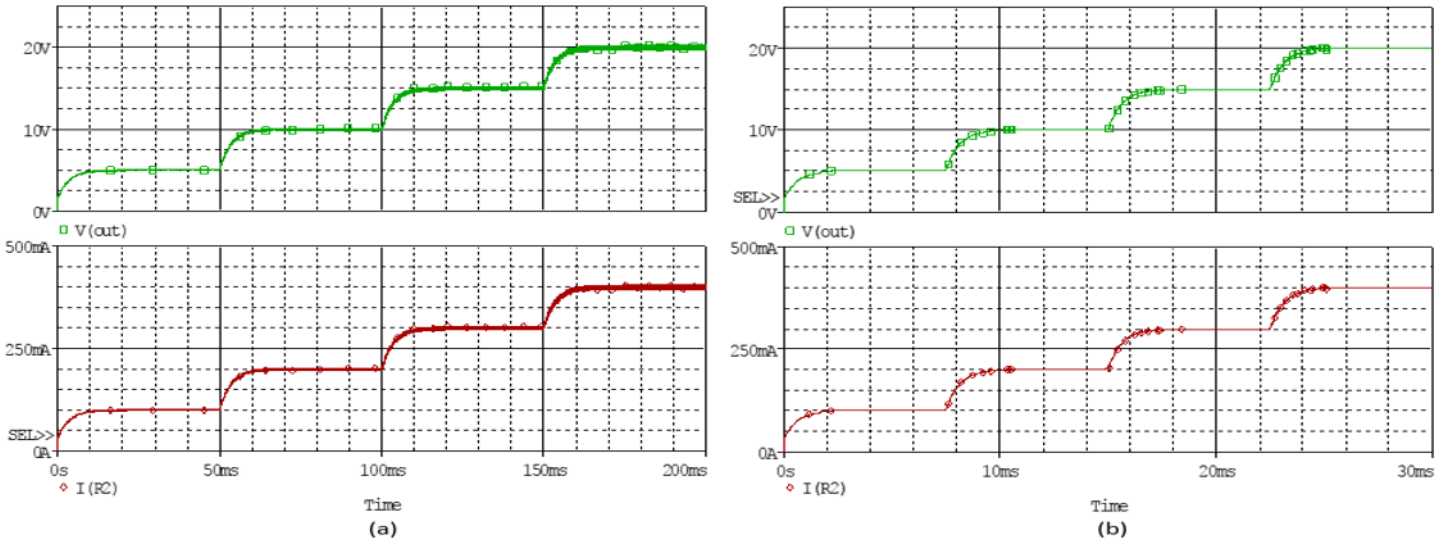


Fig. 9. Output voltage (green) and current (red) in response to linear step increase in V_{ref} in CASE I (a) and in CASE II (b)

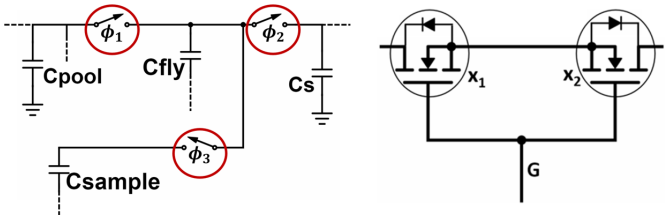


Fig. 10. The three critical switches circled in red (left) and the back-to-back configuration (right)

In particular, simulations show that the value of C_{sample} (and therefore also the values of C_{fly} and C_{pool}, since they have to be greater than it) cannot be smaller than $1\mu F$. This is the reason why from the slow case to the fast one, all the capacitance values are scaled except for the one of C_{sample}.

The simulation results are almost identical to the ones shown in Fig. 9, obtained using ideal switches, and they are consistent with the mathematical analysis too.

V. Prototype

The constructed prototype is depicted in Fig. 11. The device operates effectively as a current source. Any changes in the load result in a maximum of $3mA$ change to the drive current, once the output is not saturated at its maximum possible output voltage. This prototype has been demonstrated driving a string of four high power LEDs [13] within a variable current range of $0-400mA$. The output current could be linearly changed by varying the applied V_{ref} voltage. Fig. 11 shows the prototype constructed on breadboard along with oscilloscope, ammeter, and dual voltage supply. The V_{dd} supplied to the circuit is $10.3V$ allowing for a maximum drive voltage of $20.6V$. The clock pulses are driven at $26.7V$ to ensure high-side driving of the NMOS transistors dealing with the highest potentials

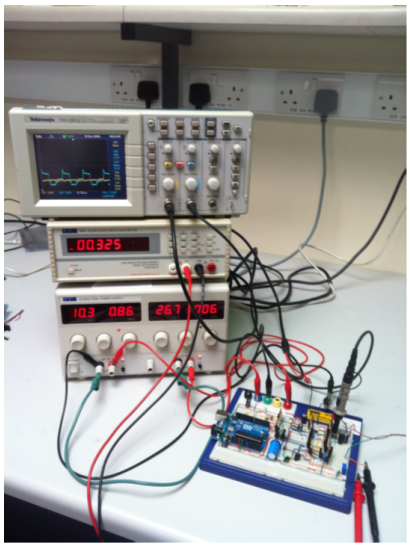


Fig. 11. Prototype setup

in the circuit. In total, eleven IRF1010EZ have been used to implement the seven switches (two for each critical switch) and the MOSFET driven by the OpAmp.

Fig. 12 and Fig. 14 show, on the right, the four high brightness LEDs driven respectively at $152mA$ and $312mA$ and, on the left, the corresponding instrument displays. In particular, the blue and yellow voltages (shown on the oscilloscope) are the potentials on the nodes denoted respectively as Z and Y in Fig. 4 and the output current is shown on the ammeter. The displayed results have been obtained by choosing the following discrete capacitances and frequency for the prototype: $C_{fly} = C_{pool} = 47\mu F$, $C_s = 470\mu F$, $C_{sample} = 2.2\mu F$, $f = 3.268kHz$ ($T \simeq 300\mu s$). V_{ref} has been doubled from $1V$ to $2V$ to show the linear dependence of the output current.

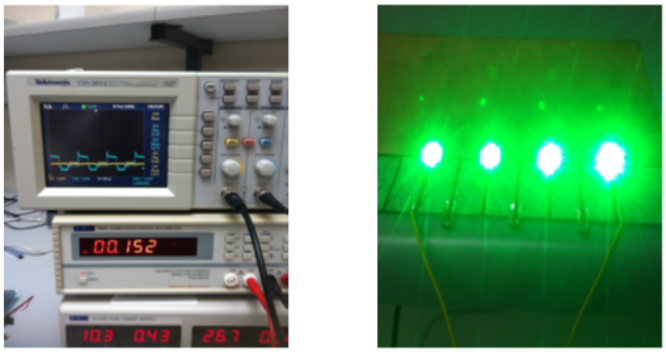


Fig. 12. Four LEDs driven at $152mA$ (right) and the correspondent instrument readings (left)

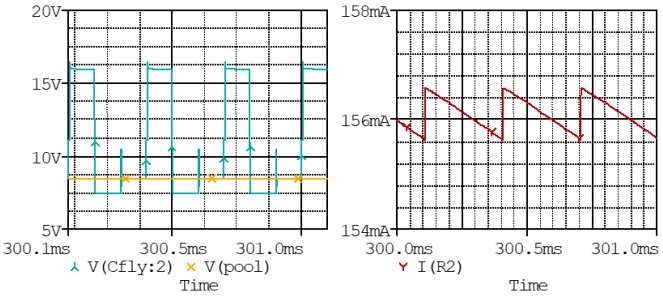


Fig. 13. *PSpice* reproduction of the results shown in Fig. 12: voltages on node Z (blue) and Y (yellow) on the left and the output current (red) on the right

These results have been reproduced using *PSpice* simulations reported in Fig. 13 and Fig. 15. The values of the prototype have been used and the effective load values, 102Ω and 51Ω, have been estimated as follows:

$$R_{on,N} = \frac{V_{f,max} N}{I_{out,av}}, \tag{15}$$

where N is the number of LEDs (4 in our case), $V_{f,max}$ is the maximum forward voltage of each LED ($3.99V$ from datasheet) and $I_{out,av}$ has been evaluated by (4).

Finally, the operation of the prototype is consistent with the theoretical analysis and the simulation results shown in the previous sections.

VI. Conclusion

We have presented a switched-capacitor current source in which the current regulating function is built into the charge pump. A third phase of the clock is used to measure the residual charge on the flying capacitor. There are several advantages to this design over currently implemented topologies. It can provide large output currents, suitable for driving LEDs and semiconductor lasers. Furthermore, it is highly efficient (low line impedance) and highly integrable (no inductors).

Acknowledgment

This work was supported in part by Science Foundation Ireland and Enterprise Ireland under grants 13/IA/1979 and 13/RC/2077, and TC-2015-0019, respectively.

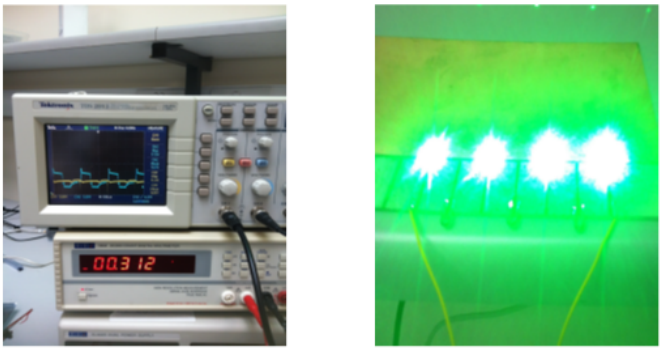


Fig. 14. Four LEDs driven at $312mA$ (right) and the correspondent instrument readings (left)

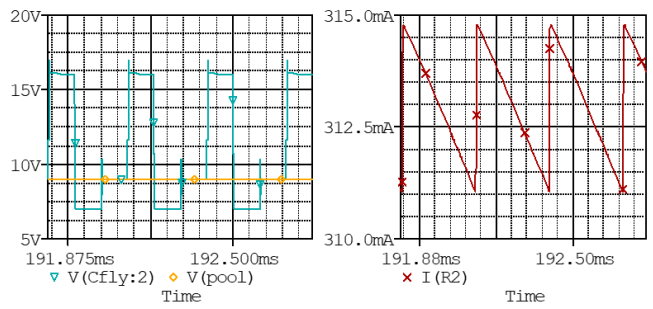


Fig. 15. *PSpice* reproduction of the results shown in Fig. 14: voltages on node Z (blue) and Y (yellow) on the left and the output current (red) on the right

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