

# Controlling the Input Impedance of Constant Power Loads

Manuel Gutierrez<sup>†</sup>, Peter Lindahl<sup>†</sup>, Arijit Banerjee<sup>‡</sup>, and Steven B. Leeb<sup>†</sup>

<sup>†</sup>Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science  
Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, USA

<sup>‡</sup>Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering  
University of Illinois, Urbana, IL, USA

**Abstract**—Power electronic circuits often regulate load power and present a constant power load (CPL) to the utility or other electrical source. Because CPLs exhibit a negative incremental input impedance, they pose stability concerns in both DC and AC systems. This paper presents a power converter for a constant power LED lighting load that mitigates these stability concerns by presenting a controllable input impedance to the electrical source. The use of an energy buffer allows the converter to control input power to resemble a resistive load over short times, while still delivering constant output power. Experimental results demonstrate that the converter exhibits a resistive input impedance at frequencies over 0.5 Hz while maintaining constant power to the LED load.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Constant power loads (CPLs) are becoming major power consumers on the electric grid. For example, actively controlled components of HVAC systems can demand constant power from the utility over certain time intervals, as can uninterruptible power supplies. Another example can be found in LED lighting. The energy savings projections from LED use versus traditional lighting technologies are the force behind LEDs replacing other technologies altogether [1], [2]. LED lighting can feature drivers designed to keep the light intensity impervious to fluctuations in voltage supply, which is done by commanding constant output power. This prevents the lamp from producing noticeable and annoying flickering. The consequence, however, is that if there is a decrease in voltage, the power converter responds by increasing the current draw. Thus, this CPL presents a negative incremental input impedance, which can cause instability in both DC and AC systems [3]–[6]. This paper presents the application of an electronic energy buffer for LED lighting in order to maintain constant output conditions while relaxing constant power input demands over short time intervals.

The presented converter, a switched-mode power supply, consists of two cascaded stages separated by an energy buffer. The boost step-up stage ensures that the lamp input mimics a resistive load over short transients, while the buck step-down stage implements aggressive feedback control to provide constant power to the LEDs for flicker-free light. A capacitor between the two stages buffers short-term input and output power imbalances with active control of the converter power flow accomplished with a combination of analog and digital

methods. This paper presents the converter by describing the design from an energy flow standpoint and presenting test results and performance data of the prototype lamp.

## Mathematical Notation

- Large signal DC quantities are denoted by capital letters, e.g.  $Y_{in}$ .
- Constant quantities or parameters are also denoted by capital letters.
- A small signal quantity is denoted by a hatted lowercase letter, e.g.  $\hat{y}_{in}$ .
- A total quantity, comprised of both large signal and small signal quantities, is denoted by a lowercase letter, e.g.  $y_{in} = Y_{in} + \hat{y}_{in}$ .

## II. ENERGY BALANCE

Different load types present different input impedances to the electrical source. A resistive load, e.g. an incandescent lamp, follows Ohm's law so that the load's power  $p_r$  relates to its resistance  $R$  and the supplied voltage  $v$  as

$$p_r = \frac{v^2}{R}. \quad (1)$$

A CPL consumes constant power  $P_{cpl}$ , and the supplied voltage and load current  $i$  follow an inverse relationship:

$$P_{cpl} = iv. \quad (2)$$

Consider these two loads with the same nominal voltage and current operating point  $V_0$  and  $I_0$ , respectively. For resistive loads, the incremental admittance is  $\frac{I_0}{V_0}$ . For CPLs, noting that  $P_{cpl} = I_0 V_0$ , the incremental admittance is  $-\frac{I_0}{V_0}$ . Since the CPL has an inverse I-V characteristic, its incremental admittance is negative. A load that exhibits a negative incremental impedance can destabilize a DC or AC system. For DC systems, stability criteria can determine the level of CPL penetration which will cause instabilities [4], [5]. In AC systems, CPLs generally interface through either a passive or active rectifier. This complicates the stability analysis due to the nonlinear characteristics of rectifiers. However, under certain scenarios, there are methods that can be applied to determine the stability criteria [7]–[10]. In general, decreasing the dominance of CPLs tends to stabilize an AC system.



imbalance in input and output power is absorbed by  $C_b$ , and its voltage  $v_{cb}$  determines how much energy remains stored in the energy buffer. A third feedback loop is implemented digitally as a discrete-time PI controller. It acts at low bandwidth to ensure that over large time scales, the energy storage capacitor  $C_b$  remains charged to its steady-state value.

### III. AVERAGE MODEL FEEDBACK DESIGN

Circuit averaging is a powerful tool for modeling and analyzing the stability of switched converters [16]–[18], and the use of linearized small signal models further simplify the analysis. Classical control design methods are then used to determine controller gains for stable and desired performance.

Both stages of the converter operate at a switching frequency of  $f_{sw} = 80$  kHz. The DC circuit input voltage  $v_{dc}$  is the output of the passive rectifier, and is approximated as 160 V during the design process, though the completed converter is designed to operate over a wide range of input voltages. The boost stage maintains a nominal voltage of 200 V on the energy buffer capacitor  $C_b$ , while the buck stage regulates the LED array load to the operating point of 65 V, 85 mA.

#### A. Topology Overview

The buck stage operates in continuous conduction mode (CCM), allowing for the switching duty ratio to not depend on the load [19]. The boost stage is intentionally designed to operate in discontinuous conduction mode (DCM) to occupy less space and improve efficiency by using a smaller inductor  $L_b$ . This also allows greater control over the current flowing into the boost capacitor  $i_{boost}$  [20], [21]. This is useful in order to command the converter input power at a high bandwidth.

The capacitor  $C_b$  is both the output capacitor for the boost stage, and the energy buffer storage element. A larger  $C_b$  allows the converter to sustain an imbalance in input and output power for longer durations, but is also physically larger and/or more expensive. Two parameters related to the extent of an input voltage disturbance help to determine an appropriate size for  $C_b$ , the relative drop in input voltage  $\delta_v$ , and the voltage drop duration  $t_{drop}$ . These parameters are the amount the input voltage decreases as a percentage, and for how long, respectively. The converter input power  $p_{in}$  is the power provided to  $C_b$  by the boost stage. The buck stage draws power  $P_{load}$  from  $C_b$ . Then the net power  $p_{cb}$  into  $C_b$  is

$$p_{cb} = p_{in} - P_{load}. \quad (5)$$

Under steady state operation and neglecting lossless, the input power matches the load power ( $p_{in} = P_{load}$ ), and there is no net power into  $C_b$ . However, for the input to behave as a resistive load with an admittance  $Y_{in}$ ,  $p_{in}$  should depend on  $v_{ac,rms}$  as

$$p_{in} = v_{ac,rms}^2 Y_{in}. \quad (6)$$

Then, to reconcile that  $p_{in} = P_{load}$  when there is no input voltage drop, i.e. when  $\delta_v = 0$ ,

$$p_{in} = (1 - \delta_v)^2 P_{load}. \quad (7)$$

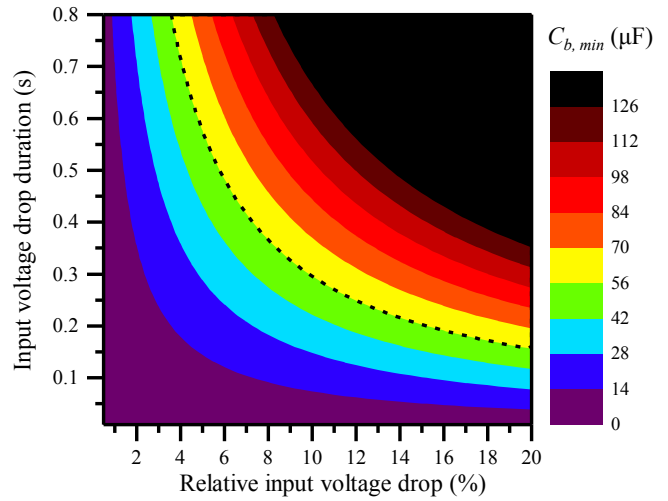


Figure 2: Minimum  $C_b$  for various voltage drop parameters  $\delta_v$  and  $t_{drop}$ .

Then from (5) and (7), for an input voltage drop decrease lasting  $t_{drop}$  seconds, the capacitor acting as the energy buffer must provide  $E_{eb}$  energy to the load.

$$E_{eb} = - \left( (1 - \delta_v)^2 - 1 \right) P_{load} t_{drop} \quad (8)$$

The capacitor voltage  $v_{cb}$ , which is  $V_{cb} = 200$  V in steady state, will decrease as it provides energy to the load. However, the diode in the boost stage prevents the output voltage from falling below the peak input voltage. If  $v_{cb}$  drops to this value, then the boost stage will no longer operate as intended. Therefore, we constrain that  $v_{cb}$  may not decrease below  $V_{ac,pk} = 170$  V, the maximum voltage at the input, equal to the peak input AC voltage. The maximum energy  $E_{eb,max}$  that  $C_b$  can provide to the load is then

$$E_{eb,max} = \frac{1}{2} C_b (V_{cb}^2 - V_{ac,pk}^2). \quad (9)$$

Substituting (8) into (9) and solving for  $C_b$  describes the minimum capacitor needed,

$$C_{b,min} = \frac{2 \left( 1 - (1 - \delta_v)^2 \right) P_{load} t_{drop}}{(V_{cb}^2 - V_{ac,pk}^2)}. \quad (10)$$

Figure 2 provides the minimum  $C_b$  needed corresponding to a range of values for  $\delta_v$  and  $t_{drop}$  according to (10). For the converter design described in this paper, we chose a capacitor  $C_b$  sized 56  $\mu\text{F}$  to provide enough storage to completely buffer a 5% input voltage drop for up to 0.5s. Table I provides values for the converter's passive components along with the corresponding nominal operating characteristics. The resistance  $R$  is the incremental resistance of the nonlinear LED array at the operating point.

#### B. Buck Stage Feedback Design

The buck stage is a self-contained circuit designed to behave as a CPL. This is done by maintaining a constant current on the

inductor  $L$  through a high bandwidth feedback controller [22], [23]. This control scheme is shown in the buck stage of Fig. 1. The high bandwidth compensator  $PI_1$  has a proportional gain  $K_1$ , and an integral gain to proportional gain ratio  $\alpha_1$ . Acting as a CPL, flicker-free lighting is produced, but the buck stage presents a negative incremental input impedance to the output of the boost stage.

### C. Boost Stage Feedback Design

The boost stage is designed to provide a resistive converter input impedance. The switching duty ratio in this stage dictates the average diode current  $i_{boost}$ . This allows control over the input power since by neglecting switching losses, this is equal to the power into the boost capacitor, i.e.

$$p_{in} = i_{boost} v_{cb}. \quad (11)$$

The boost stage mimics a resistive load by drawing power proportional to the stage input voltage squared, i.e.

$$p_{in} = v_{dc}^2 Y_{in}, \quad (12)$$

where  $Y_{in}$  is the input admittance. Then, substituting (11) into (12) and solving for  $i_{boost}$  gives

$$i_{boost,ref} = \frac{v_{dc}^2 Y_{in}}{V_{cb}}. \quad (13)$$

This is the desired average diode current needed to present a resistive input impedance. If the controller is able to track this quantity, then the input impedance will be resistive. This control scheme is shown within the boost stage in Fig. 1.

The high bandwidth compensator  $PI_2$  has a proportional gain  $K_2$ , and an integral gain to proportional gain ratio  $\alpha_2$ . With the compensator gains shown in Table I, the controller can track  $i_{boost,ref}$  as desired, at frequencies up to 100 Hz.

### D. Energy Buffer Feedback Design

A third control loop is used to keep the energy buffer charged to 200 V. In fact, there is an inherent instability caused by the previous two control loops. The buck stage draws a constant  $P_{load}$  from the capacitor, while the boost stage provides  $v_{dc}^2 Y_{in}$  power to the capacitor. The net power into the boost capacitor is then

$$p_{cb} = v_{dc}^2 Y_{in} - P_{load}. \quad (14)$$

If the input and output power are not balanced and  $p_{cb} \neq 0$ , then  $v_{cb}$  will either increase or decrease without bound. This balance is not guaranteed from the input voltage alone, so adding a controller that adjusts the converter input admittance  $y_{in}$  can ensure  $v_{cb}$  settles to 200 V in the long term. This control loop has a relatively low bandwidth to preserve the favorable resistive input impedance that the previous control loops achieve. The controller bandwidth determines the frequencies at which the converter's input resembles either a CPL or a resistor.

This feedback loop is implemented as a discrete-time PI controller using a PSoC microcontroller with a sampling rate of 7.2 kHz. It can be approximated as a continuous PI

controller since it operates with a low bandwidth relative to the sampling rate. The PI compensator outputs  $y_{in}$ . The reference current  $i_{boost,ref}$ , which depends on  $y_{in}$ , is then computed and sent as an analog signal to the boost stage controller to command  $i_{boost}$  in order to present resistive input impedance. This control scheme is shown in the digital controller of Fig. 1. The low bandwidth compensator  $PI_3$  has a proportional gain  $K_3$ , and an integral gain to proportional gain ratio  $\alpha_3$ . It is expressed as  $K_3 C_3(s)$ , where  $C_3(s)$  is

$$C_3(s) = \frac{s + \alpha_3}{s}. \quad (15)$$

Because this controller operates at frequencies lower than either of the previous control loops, the low-frequency approximations of the two high bandwidth control loops can be used to simplify the analysis. The buck stage is replaced with an ideal CPL, and the boost diode current  $i_{boost}$  is replaced by an ideal tracking of the reference current  $i_{boost,ref}$  from (13). That is,

$$i_{buck} = \frac{P_{load}}{v_{cb}}, \quad \text{and} \quad i_{boost} = \frac{v_{dc}^2 y_{in}}{v_{cb}}. \quad (16)$$

The buck stage input current  $i_{buck}$  only depends on  $v_{cb}$ . Its linear approximation in terms of the constant  $B_4$  is

$$\hat{i}_{buck} = \underbrace{\frac{-P_{load}}{V_{cb}^2}}_{B_4} \hat{v}_{cb}. \quad (17)$$

From (16),  $i_{boost}$  is a function of three variables. The linear approximation in terms of the constants  $B_1$ ,  $B_2$ , and  $B_3$  is

$$\hat{i}_{boost} = \underbrace{\frac{V_{dc}^2}{V_{cb}}}_{B_1} \hat{y}_{in} + \underbrace{\frac{-V_{dc}^2 Y_{in}}{V_{cb}^2}}_{B_2} \hat{v}_{cb} + \underbrace{\frac{2V_{dc} Y_{in}}{V_{cb}}}_{B_3} \hat{v}_{dc}. \quad (18)$$

The current  $i_{lb}$  is  $v_{dc} y_{in}$ , and so its linear approximation is

$$\hat{i}_{lb} = V_{dc} \hat{y}_{in} + Y_{in} \hat{v}_{dc}. \quad (19)$$

These approximations are shown in the small signal feedback loop diagram in Fig. 3. A perturbation reference of zero implies that the controller aims to always eliminate any perturbation in  $v_{cb}$ , thereby maintaining it at 200 V.

The capacitor voltage is described in the Laplace domain by

$$\hat{v}_{cb} = \frac{1}{s C_b} (\hat{i}_{boost} - \hat{i}_{buck}). \quad (20)$$

The  $\hat{v}_{dc}$  to  $\hat{v}_{cb}$  transfer function is

$$\frac{\hat{v}_{cb}}{\hat{v}_{dc}} = \frac{B_3}{s C_b - B_2 + B_4 + B_1 K_3 C_3(s) H(s)}, \quad (21)$$

which can be rearranged to canonical form for root locus analysis as

$$\frac{\hat{v}_{cb}}{\hat{v}_{dc}} = \frac{\frac{B_3}{s C_b - B_2 + B_4}}{1 + K_3 \frac{B_1 C_3(s) H(s)}{s C_b - B_2 + B_4}}. \quad (22)$$

A minimum compensator gain  $K_{3,min} = 5 \times 10^{-9}$  is needed for marginal stability, and there is in fact a negative stability

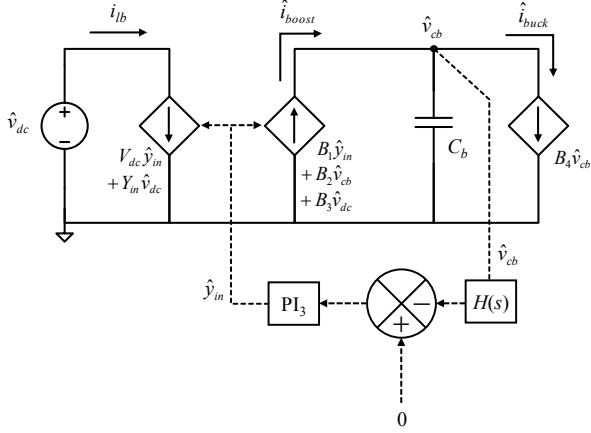


Figure 3: Linearized small signal boost capacitor feedback loop.

gain margin. A gain  $K_3 = 0.5 \times 10^{-6}$  is used to maintain resistive input impedance at frequencies above 0.5 Hz.

The overall input impedance is found by substituting the PI controller output  $\hat{y}_{in}$  into (19), i.e.

$$\hat{i}_{lb} = V_{dc} (-K_3 H(s) C_3(s) \hat{v}_{cb}) + Y_{in} \hat{v}_{dc}. \quad (23)$$

Then, dividing (23) by  $\hat{v}_{dc}$  and substituting the transfer function (21) reveals the incremental input admittance,

$$\frac{\hat{i}_{lb}}{\hat{v}_{dc}} = \frac{-V_{dc} B_3 K_3 H(s) C_3(s)}{s C_b - B_2 + B_4 + B_1 K_3 C_3(s) H(s)} + Y_{in}. \quad (24)$$

The inverse of (24) is the incremental input impedance. The limits at low and high frequencies are

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\hat{v}_{dc}}{\hat{i}_{lb}} = -\frac{V_{dc}}{I_{lb}}, \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\hat{v}_{dc}}{\hat{i}_{lb}} = \frac{V_{dc}}{I_{lb}}. \quad (25)$$

From the nominal operating point values from Table I, this corresponds to a 73 dB gain with  $-180^\circ$  and  $0^\circ$  phases, respectively. Figure 4 shows the incremental impedance Bode plot and compares it with the incremental impedance if the energy buffer were not in use (shown in red). At frequencies above 0.5 Hz, the impedance magnitude is as desired, with a resistive  $0^\circ$  phase. In the long term, the converter's input must present a negative incremental impedance to maintain the nominal charge in the boost capacitor. However, with the energy buffer and the presented control techniques, this is only present for frequencies under 0.2 Hz. The energy buffer increases the bandwidth of resistive input impedance by three decades compared to the input impedance of the CPL buck stage alone. The complete controller gains used in the design in order to produce this performance are shown in Table I.

#### IV. TEST SETUP AND MEASUREMENTS

Ultimately this converter would be integrated into the LED bulb, however for design and testing purposes we assembled the converter using two external PCBs. One board contains

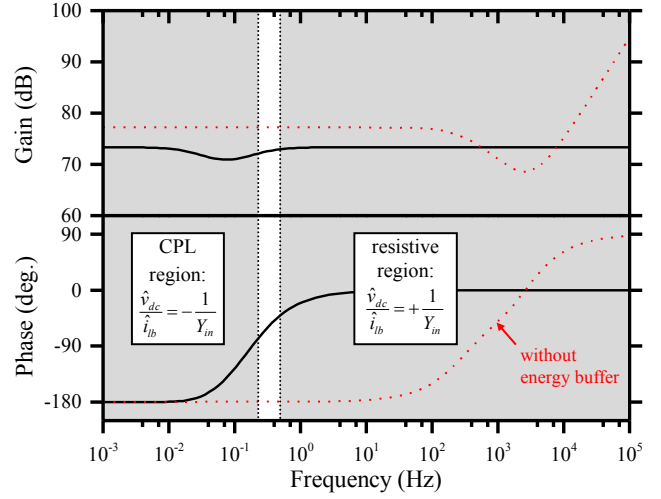


Figure 4: Bode plot of overall converter small signal input impedance. Note that the curve is 'resistive' at frequencies above 0.5 Hz, and that below 0.2 Hz, the curve exhibits  $-180$  degrees of phase, a negative resistance.

TABLE I  
OPERATING POINT, PASSIVE COMPONENTS, AND COMPENSATOR GAINS

Parameter	Value	Unit	Parameter	Value	Unit
$T_{sw}$	12.5	$\mu\text{s}$	$C_b$	56	$\mu\text{F}$
$P_{load}$	5.53	W	$L$	6.8	mH
$V_{dc}$	160	V	$C$	2	$\mu\text{F}$
$V_{cb}$	200	V	$R$	100	$\Omega$
$V_c$	65	V	$K_1$	1	
$I_{lb}$	34.5	mA	$\alpha_1$	5000	
$I_{boost}$	27.6	mA	$K_2$	0.7	
$D_b$	0.102		$\alpha_2$	$2 \times 10^4$	
$D$	0.325		$K_3$	$0.5 \times 10^{-6}$	
$L_b$	1.5	mH	$\alpha_3$	0.2	

the buck stage and the other contains the boost stage and a microcontroller for digital control. Figure 5 shows these PCBs inside an insulating housing.

A PSoC microcontroller digitally implements the control loop from Sec. III-D and calculates and commands the reference current  $i_{boost,ref}$  needed to present the input admittance  $y_{in}$ . In terms of the RMS of the AC input voltage  $v_{ac,rms}$ , the current  $i_{boost}$  needed to present an input admittance  $y_{in}$  is

$$i_{boost,ref} = \frac{v_{ac,rms}^2 y_{in}}{v_{cb}}. \quad (26)$$

The PSoC measures  $v_{cb}$  and the AC input voltage to determine and output  $i_{boost,ref}$ .

In order to test the converter, a test setup is used that allows an arbitrary AC high voltage to be delivered as an input to the device while voltage, current, and luminous output measurements are recorded. A high bandwidth light intensity sensor is contained in an enclosure placed over the test lamp, ensuring consistent illuminance measurements across various tests.

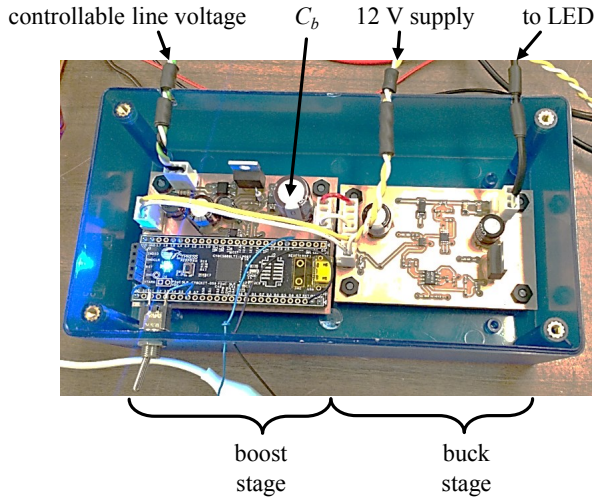


Figure 5: Energy buffer power converter and connections.

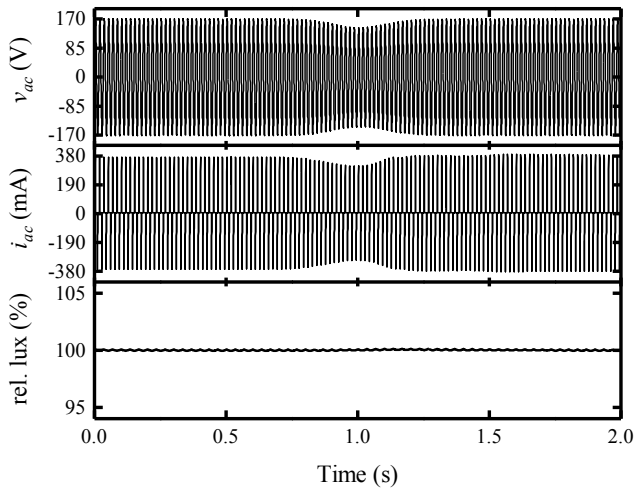


Figure 6: Measured AC voltage and current during a 15% dip in input voltage lasting 0.5 seconds. The response resembles that of a resistive load, and the light output is steady with imperceptible flicker.

#### A. Input Current and Power

A voltage dip fluctuation can be simulated by modulating the AC waveform by a Gaussian function. Figure 6 shows input measurements during a 15% input voltage dip lasting approximately 0.5s, along with the AC input current and luminous output. The current waveform resembles that of a resistive load since it follows a direct relationship to the input voltage. Simultaneously, the light sensor measures no significant light output fluctuations. This shows that the output continues to consume constant power as intended.

Plotting RMS or average quantities helps clarify the portrayed information. Average AC power is computed by moving average, and dividing this power by  $v_{ac, rms}$  gives the in-phase current fundamental RMS, denoted by  $i_{d, rms}$ .

For a short 15% input voltage dip, the input current for four

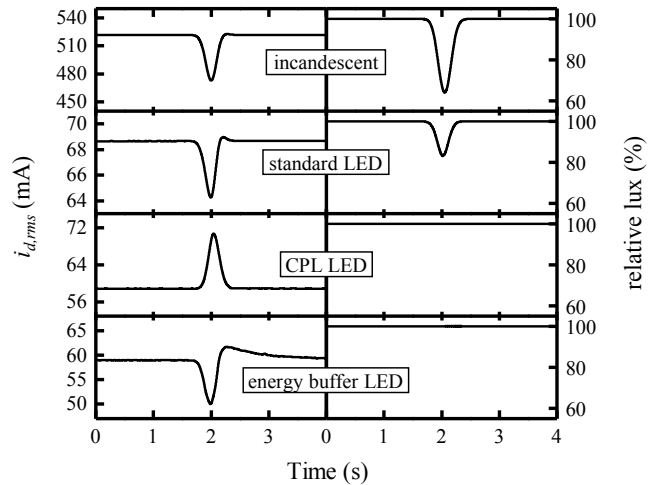


Figure 7: Response of various loads (as indicated) to a 15% dip in input voltage lasting 0.5 seconds. The input current on the vertical axis is expressed as the RMS of the in-phase fundamental current. Only the CPL and energy-buffered CPL produce steady light output with imperceptible flicker.

different lamps is compared in Fig. 7. The incandescent bulb is the best resemblance of an ideal resistive load. However, with no energy buffer, its light output is highly susceptible to the input voltage fluctuation. A standard LED bulb also exhibits resistive input impedance, but the lack of an energy buffer again results in a luminance drop. The lamp labeled “CPL LED” is the presented power converter with the boost stage shut down. In this way, the energy buffer is not active and so the input resembles a CPL since current increases during the dip in voltage. However, the light output is consistent. Finally, the presented power converter with an energy buffer exhibits favorable characteristics for both measures; Its input resembles a resistive load, and its light output is consistent and flicker free.

## V. CONCLUSIONS

This paper has presented a power converter with an energy buffer that drives a CPL to power an LED load while presenting a resistive input impedance. A switched-mode power supply is implemented with cascaded boost and buck converters. The output buck stage implements high bandwidth feedback control on the load to produce high quality, consistent lighting that rejects fluctuations in input voltage. However, this creates a negative incremental input impedance. This poses a stability concern, so a boost stage is added and implements active control over the converter input power. This allows the converter to appear as a resistive load. The boost stage output capacitor acts as an energy buffer, allowing momentary power imbalances between the input and output power. The converter can be used to power other types of CPLs, and be tailored to meet the input impedance needs required by the distribution system.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was supported by The Grainger Foundation, the MIT-KUST program, and by the Cooperative Agreement between the Masdar Institute of Science and Technology (Masdar Institute), Abu Dhabi, UAE and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), Cambridge, MA, USA - Reference 02/MI/MIT/CP/11/07633/GEN/G/00.

## REFERENCES

- [1] M. S. Lin and C. L. Chen, "An led driver with pulse current driving technique," *IEEE Transactions on Power Electronics*, vol. 27, no. 11, pp. 4594–4601, Nov 2012.
- [2] J. Penning, K. Stober, V. Taylor, and M. Yamada, "Energy savings forecast of solid-state lighting in general illumination applications," U.S. Department of Energy, Tech. Rep., Sept 2016. [Online]. Available: <https://energy.gov/eere/ssl/downloads/2016-ssl-forecast-report>
- [3] M. Cespedes, L. Xing, and J. Sun, "Constant-power load system stabilization by passive damping," *IEEE Transactions on Power Electronics*, vol. 26, no. 7, pp. 1832–1836, July 2011.
- [4] A. Emadi, A. Khaligh, C. H. Rivetta, and G. A. Williamson, "Constant power loads and negative impedance instability in automotive systems: definition, modeling, stability, and control of power electronic converters and motor drives," *IEEE Transactions on Vehicular Technology*, vol. 55, no. 4, pp. 1112–1125, July 2006.
- [5] A. Riccobono and E. Santi, "Comprehensive review of stability criteria for dc distribution systems," in *2012 IEEE Energy Conversion Congress and Exposition (ECCE)*, Sept 2012, pp. 3917–3925.
- [6] M. Belkhat, "Stability criteria for ac power systems with regulated loads," Ph.D. dissertation, Purdue University, 1997.
- [7] A. Emadi, "Modeling of power electronic loads in ac distribution systems using the generalized state-space averaging method," *IEEE Transactions on Industrial Electronics*, vol. 51, no. 5, pp. 992–1000, Oct 2004.
- [8] M. Molinas, D. Moltoni, G. Fascendini, J. A. Suul, and T. Undeland, "Constant power loads in ac distribution systems: An investigation of stability," in *2008 IEEE International Symposium on Industrial Electronics*, June 2008, pp. 1531–1536.
- [9] M. Molinas, D. Moltoni, G. Fascendini, J. A. Suul, R. Faranda, and T. Undeland, "Investigation on the role of power electronic controlled constant power loads for voltage support in distributed ac systems," in *2008 IEEE Power Electronics Specialists Conference*, June 2008, pp. 3597–3602.
- [10] J. Sun, "Ac power electronic systems: Stability and power quality," in *2008 11th Workshop on Control and Modeling for Power Electronics*, Aug 2008, pp. 1–10.
- [11] Z. Bing, K. J. Karimi, and J. Sun, "Input impedance modeling and analysis of line-commutated rectifiers," in *2007 IEEE Power Electronics Specialists Conference*, June 2007, pp. 1981–1987.
- [12] J. Sun and J. Colon, "Input impedance modeling of line-frequency rectifiers by the method of impedance mapping," in *2006 IEEE Workshops on Computers in Power Electronics*, July 2006, pp. 69–75.
- [13] Z. Bing and J. Sun, "Line-frequency rectifier dc-bus voltage instability analysis and mitigation," in *2010 IEEE 12th Workshop on Control and Modeling for Power Electronics (COMPEL)*, June 2010, pp. 1–5.
- [14] J. J. Cooley, P. Lindahl, C. L. Zimmerman, M. Cornachione, G. Jordan, S. R. Shaw, and S. B. Leeb, "Multiconverter system design for fuel cell buffering and diagnostics under uav load profiles," *IEEE Transactions on Power Electronics*, vol. 29, no. 6, pp. 3232–3244, June 2014.
- [15] P. T. Krein, R. S. Balog, and M. Mirjafari, "Minimum energy and capacitance requirements for single-phase inverters and rectifiers using a ripple port," *IEEE Transactions on Power Electronics*, vol. 27, no. 11, pp. 4690–4698, Nov 2012.
- [16] R. D. Middlebrook and S. Cuk, "A general unified approach to modelling switching-converter power stages," in *1976 IEEE Power Electronics Specialists Conference*, June 1976, pp. 18–34.
- [17] R. D. Middlebrook, "Input filter considerations in design and application of switching regulators," in *Industry Applications Society Annual Meeting, 1976 IEEE*, 1976.
- [18] R. D. Middlebrook, "Design techniques for preventing input-filter oscillations in switched-mode regulators," in *Proceedings of Powercon*, vol. 5, 1978.
- [19] N. Kondrath and M. K. Kazimierczuk, "Control-to-output transfer function including feed-forward gains of peak current-mode controlled pwm dc-dc converters in ccm," in *IECON 2013 - 39th Annual Conference of the IEEE Industrial Electronics Society*, Nov 2013, pp. 578–583.
- [20] S. Cuk and R. D. Middlebrook, "A general unified approach to modelling switching dc-dc converters in discontinuous conduction mode," in *1977 IEEE Power Electronics Specialists Conference*, June 1977, pp. 36–57.
- [21] N. Kondrath and M. K. Kazimierczuk, "Control-to-output transfer function of peak current-mode controlled pwm dc-dc boost converter in ccm," *Electronics Letters*, vol. 47, no. 17, pp. 991–993, August 2011.
- [22] N. Kondrath and M. K. Kazimierczuk, "Audio-susceptibility of the inner-loop of peak current-mode controlled pwm dc-dc buck converter in ccm," in *IECON 2012 - 38th Annual Conference on IEEE Industrial Electronics Society*, Oct 2012, pp. 250–255.
- [23] C. Petrea, "Audio susceptibility of the buck converter in current-mode power stage," *Acta Technica Napocensis: Electronics and Telecommunications*, vol. 49, 2008.