

# Integration of PID-MRAC and Novel GCC-C2C for Developing Adaptive Deterministic MPPT

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**Abstract**—This article proposes a new photovoltaic (PV) Maximum Power Point Tracker (MPPT) using PID-MRAC with a novel tracker of Gradual Capacitor-Charging (GCC) and Capacitor-to-Capacitor charge transfer (C2C). The research contribution is omitting the power fluctuation of optimisation-based MPPT and discontinuity or power loss of I-V sweep-based MPPT. GCC regularly and deterministically locates the maximum PV power voltage ( $V_{mpp}$ ) by connecting a parallel capacitor to PV only when the PV is isolated from the converter. If one cycle of I-V sweeping is completed, C2C empties the capacitor by transferring its charge to a power supply capacitor to avoid the power-loss problem. A PID and non-inverting buck-boost converter was assigned to regulate the PV output voltage ( $V_{pv}$ ) at  $V_{mpp}$ , thus enabling maximum energy harvesting. The Model Reference Adaptive Control (MRAC) adjusts the PID parameters to maintain the MPPT performance. Simulation results show that the MPPT worked well against load and irradiance changes,  $I_{ph}=2.0A$  for 0.6s and  $I_{ph}=3.8A$  for 1.4s. The GCC-C2C successfully locates  $V_{mpp}$  within 410ms. The PID could regulate  $V_{pv}$  to  $V_{mpp}$  with a settling time of 200ms at the initial stage or less than 10ms at the next stages. The MRAC also successfully tuned the PID parameters during operation. The superiority of this method over the P&O MPPT is its capability to deliver more power at various load power rates. Harvesting efficiency of the proposed MPPT at 5 ohm and 50 ohm loads is 96% and 82%, respectively, while P&O is only 84% and 21%.

**Keywords**—Gradual Capacitor Charging (GCC); Capacitor-to-Capacitor (C2C); Adaptive; Deterministic MPPT; PID-MRAC.

## I. INTRODUCTION

The International Energy Agency (IEA) stated that more than 60% of the world's electricity was generated by power plants, which are widely known as not environmentally friendly [1]. Global warming has prompted a campaign to achieve a zero-carbon emission by 2050 [2], [3]. Various renewable energy sources (RES) have been explored to increase the capacity of green electricity, including solar power, which offers several advantages over other RES [4]–[6]. A Maximum Power Point Tracker (MPPT) is required by solar power plants or photovoltaic (PV) systems to determine the maximum power point ( $P_{mpp}$ ), which enables the optimal harvesting of solar energy [7], [8]. MPPT can be classified into single and multiple peaks MPPT [9]–[12]. Single-peak MPPT, such as P&O [13]–[15] and INC [16], are only suitable for single-module PV systems or PV systems whose I-V curve contains only one power peak. On the other hand, the multiple-peak MPPT can be applied to multi-module PV systems as it can locate the global peak power among several

local peak powers [17], [18]. This type of MPPT includes a modified P&O [19], reduced search space P&O [20], Adaptive step size P&O [21], Fuzzy [22]–[24], ANFIS [25], PPO-IC [26], MCA-FOCV [27], RP-FOSMC [28], ANN [29]–[31], PSO [32], GTO [33], GWO [34], GWO-Enhanced PSO [35], PSO, GWO-IC [36], GWO-WOA [37], Bee Colony, Heat Transfer Search [38], AFO [39], Sliding Mode Fuzzy-2 [40], Improved Sliding Mode [41], snake [42], Honey Badger [41], and many more. Most of their work relied on an optimisation algorithm. They perform well and are easy to implement [43]. However, they still result in unavoidable power losses since their  $P_{mpp}$  tracking is performed by testing several duty cycles (forecasted using an optimisation algorithm) directly on the converter of the PV system [44]. These losses can easily be identified by their PV voltage ( $V_{pv}$ ) that fluctuates around the PV maximum power voltage ( $V_{mpp}$ ) as shown in Fig. 1.

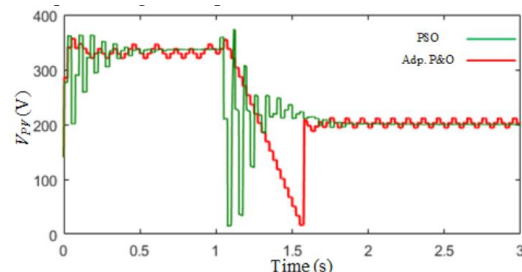


Fig. 1. PV output fluctuations caused by optimisation-based MPPT [45]

At  $t=0s-1s$ ,  $V_{mpp}$  is 350V, and at  $t=1s-3s$ ,  $V_{mpp}$  is 200V.  $V_{pv}$  of adaptive P&O (green curve) fluctuates around  $V_{mpp}$  both in transient and steady state. Meanwhile, the  $V_{pv}$  of PSO (red curve) fluctuates only in a transient state. The  $V_{pv}$  fluctuation contributes to the power loss of ( $V_{mpp}-V_{pv}$ ) times the PV current ( $I_{pv}$ ). This loss will be minimized if  $V_{mpp}-V_{pv}$  is reduced or  $V_{pv}$  does not contain fluctuation.

The I-V curve-based MPPT offers a more deterministic  $P_{mpp}$  tracking, without trial and error of duty cycle, thus lower losses [46]. This type of MPPT is based on photovoltaic I-V characterisation [47]–[49]. The I-V curve is obtained by measuring the PV currents and voltages while the PV system receives a varying artificial load. Several methods for generating the I-V curve have been described in [50] and [51]. These include the voltage zone (VZ), electronic load [52], series capacitors [53], parallel capacitors [54]–[56], DC-DC converters [57], and embedded parallel capacitors (EPC) [58]. VZ-based MPPT has been reported to fail to find

Pmpp if the PV system configuration is changed or if some PV modules in the PV system are damaged or short-circuited [45]. The series capacitor-based MPPT and EPC MPPT cannot be applied for large loads (draw large currents), as this causes the capacitor voltage to never reach  $V_{mpp}$  [58]. The DC-DC converter-based MPPT experiences high power losses because it drives the converter with a linear duty cycle ranging from 0% to 100% during its I-V sweep. Meanwhile, the parallel capacitor-based MPPT has two weaknesses: energy transfer from the PV system to the load is cut off during I-V sweeping, and power is lost when the capacitor is discharged (short-circuited to ground) [59]. Among the types of I-V tracers that can still be improved to enhance the MPPT performance is the Parallel Capacitor method. To address these two weaknesses, novel methods called Gradual Capacitor Charging (GCC) and charge transfer between capacitors (C2C) are proposed. The authors are optimistic that the successful implementation of the GCC-C2C method would become an important contribution and result in a new MPPT with a low power-loss Pmpp tracker and non-blocking energy transfer. To ensure maximum harvested energy at any time, the PV voltage should be maintained at  $V_{mpp}$ , i.e. the voltage determined by GCC-C2C. This requirement will be accomplished by employing a PID-MRAC controller. This controller not only regulates PV voltage output at  $V_{mpp}$  but also maintains its performance regardless of the plant condition, which is influenced by converter dynamics and load variation. When the plant condition is changed, these changes are detected by the MRAC, and the MRAC then retunes the PID parameters based on a selected reference model, thus performance will be maintained [60], [61].

The main contributions of the proposed method are reduced power losses, deterministic tracking, and converter-load adaptability, hence higher harvesting efficiency, as it can deliver more power at various loads. This principle is opposite to recent MPPT, which provides power to the load as much as required. This is possible because the proposed MPPT always tries to maintain the PV voltage ( $V_{pv}$ ) at  $V_{mpp}$ . If a load suddenly changes and requires more power, as the PV system is being operated at  $V_{mpp}$ , then the proposed MPPT can supply the load changes faster.

## II. METHODS

The MPPT development starts by constructing a block diagram, designing a circuit diagram, defining a flowchart, deriving a PID-MRAC formula, writing pseudocode, and testing the design using Proteus simulation. Its performance (transient response and harvesting efficiency) is compared to the commonly known P&O MPPT when both systems experience changes in irradiance and load.

### A. MPPT Block Diagram

The MPPT block diagram is designed as shown in Fig. 2. The MPPT consists of two main parts: GCC-C2C (D4a) and PI-MRAC (D4b, D4c). The GCC-C2C traces  $V_{mpp}$  by sweeping the PV current and voltage. The GCC-C2C is designed to operate with negligible power losses and does not interrupt the energy transfer between the PV and load. As described by its name, GCC-C2C comprises both GCC and C2C. GCC traces  $V_{mpp}$  by sweeping the current and voltage of the PV system. This is achieved by connecting the PV

system to the capacitor load only when the converter switch is open. C2C empties the capacitor at the end of the sweeping session by transferring the capacitor charge to the power supply capacitor. Meanwhile, the PID-MRAC is responsible for maintaining the PV voltage equal to  $V_{mpp}$  by adjusting the converter duty cycle. The PID parameters are tuned automatically by the MRAC; hence, the performance of maintaining  $V_{mpp}$  is not affected by plant parameter variations occurring in the converter or load.

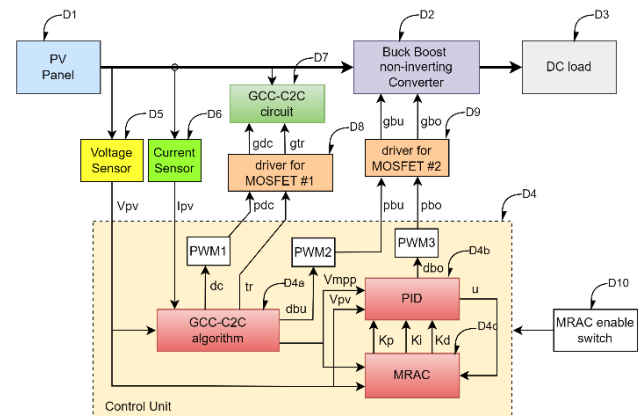


Fig. 2. Diagram for PID-MRAC MPPT using GCC-C2C tracker

Both GCC-C2C and PID-MRAC algorithms are implemented in the Control Unit (D4). This design is equipped with a voltage sensor (D5), a current sensor (D6), GCC-C2C circuit (D7), MOSFET driver for the GCC-C2C circuit (D8), and MOSFET driver (D9) for the non-inverting buck boost converter.

### B. Circuit Diagram

Main MPPT circuits include the GCC-C2C and Converter as shown in Fig. 3. The GCC-C2C circuit in Fig. 3(a) comprises a capacitor C1 for I-V sweeping and C2 for charge transfer. Q1 is activated only when the converter switch Q3 is open. This forces the PV current to flow to C1, and the C1 voltage will gradually increase from zero volts to  $V_{oc}$  (open-circuit voltage of the PV). The GCC algorithm (D4a) locates the values of  $V_{mpp}$  through the current and voltage measurements.

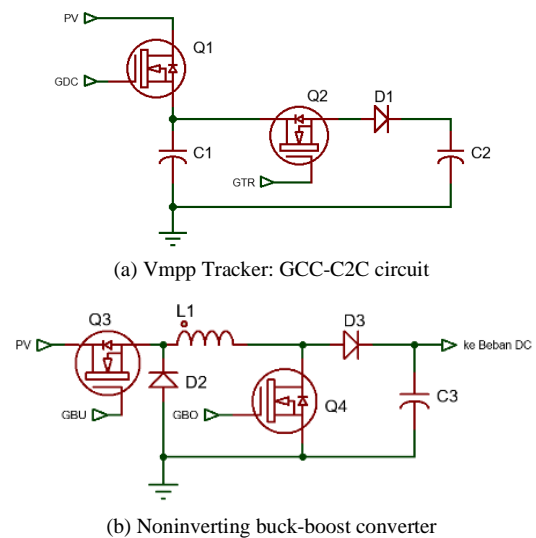


Fig. 3. MPPT circuits including Vmpp tracker and Converter

When the  $C1$  voltage level no longer increases, the  $C2C$  algorithm empties  $C1$  by activating  $Q2$  shortly, hence the  $C1$  charge is transferred to  $C2$ . If  $C2$  is part of the power supply circuit, the transferred charge can be an additional supply for the controller circuit and is not wasted as heat, as occurred in previous studies. The circuit for  $D2$  of Fig. 2 is shown in Fig. 3(b).  $Q3$  is assigned to isolate PV from the remaining circuit while sweeping. Therefore,  $Q1$  must only be activated when  $Q3$  is open using  $pdc$  signal of Fig. 2. To prevent the  $C1$  voltage ( $V_{c1}$ ) from growing quickly, and to ensure the size of  $C1$  is sufficiently small,  $C1$  is designed to be charged shortly during  $\delta$  as shown in Fig. 4.

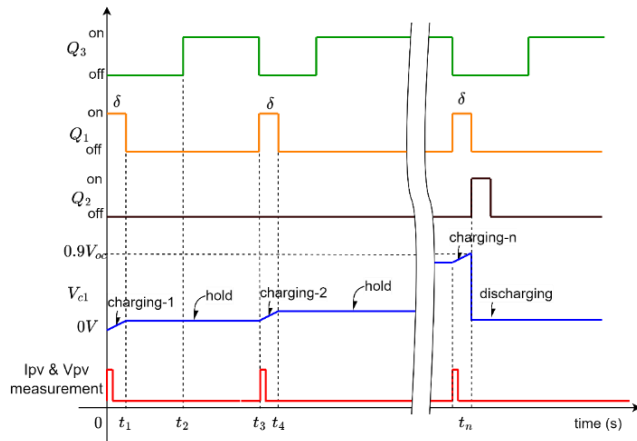


Fig. 4. Timing diagram of GCC-C2C

Each time  $C1$  is charged,  $V_{c1}$  increases, and when  $Q3$  is turned off, this voltage is maintained at its last level. Current and voltage were measured shortly after  $Q3$  was turned off. When  $V_{c1}$  has reached  $0.9V_{oc}$  or its level does not grow anymore,  $Q2$  is turned on for a short duration to transfer the electrical charge from  $C1$  to  $C2$ .

### C. MPPT Flowchart

The working principle of this MPPT is fully managed by the control unit, which consists of three processes, described by the flowcharts shown in Fig. 5.

The Fig. 5(a) shows the Main process, Fig. 5(b) shows the GCC-C2C process, and Fig. 5(c) illustrates the PID-MRAC process. When starting, F1 will initialise several variables, internal modules and enable both GCC-C2C and PID-MRAC algorithms. F3 verifies the state of the MRAC enable switch (D10). If the switch is on, the MRAC variable is set as 1 using F5; otherwise, it is set as 0 using F4. Finally, F7 select one of two conditions: stop or continue running. If it is continued, to save power consumption, a 1ms delay is provided to pause execution before reevaluating the MRAC switch.

If GCC-C2C is enabled and the rising edge of the  $pdc$  signal in Fig. 2 is detected, then GCC-C2C algorithm (D4a) will be executed, or the second flowchart will be entered. This flowchart is for updating the  $V_{mpp}$  value. In the first step, F8 initialises several variables. F9 reads the PV voltage and current through the voltage and current sensors, respectively. It also sets the  $gcc$  variable to one to indicate that the GCC circuit is connected to the PV. This variable is used in the third flowchart of Fig. 5(c). F10 evaluates whether  $V_{pv}$  has reached  $0.9V_{oc}$ . This is done by testing the slope of  $V_{pv}$  or

the difference between the current  $V_{pv}$  and the previous  $V_{pv}$ . If it is less than  $V_{th}$ , then the sweeping is completed. If so, F14 will disconnect  $C1$  from the PV, then discharge  $C1$  and save the last  $P_{mpp}$  and the last  $V_{mpp}$  as  $P_{mpp}$  and  $V_{mpp}$ , respectively. Otherwise, the sweeping is continued where F11 calculates the current PV power by multiplying the PV voltage and current. If the expression in F12 is true, then using F13, the flowchart assumes this power to become the last-highest power in this sweeping session.

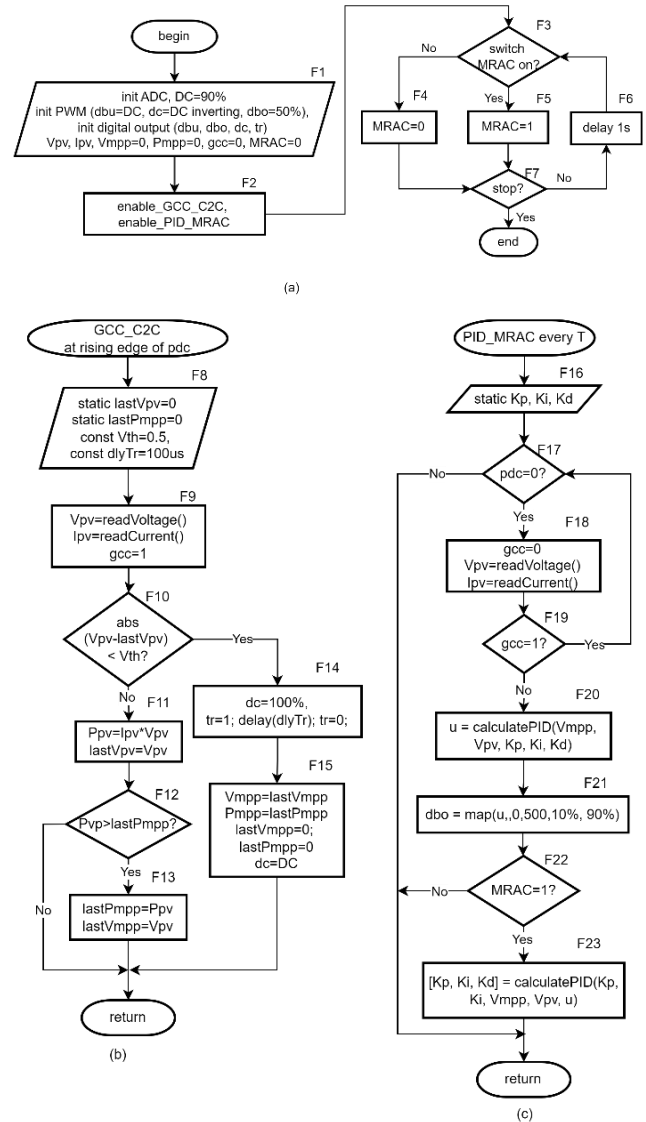


Fig. 5. Control Unit flowchart: (a) Main process, (b) GCC-C2C, and (c) PID-MRAC

If PID-MRAC is enabled, the third flowchart is entered periodically every sampling time  $T$ . Upon entering, F16 defines several static variables and then evaluates whether the  $pdc$  signal is low. If  $pdc$  is not low then it exits because the PV is connected to the GCC-C2C circuit. Otherwise, F18 will indicate that the PV is connected to a converter by clearing the  $gcc$  variable and then reading the PV current and voltage through sensors. However, if at the end of the reading of these sensors, the  $gcc$  variable changes to one, the flowchart will ignore the sensor reading because the GCC-C2C algorithm interrupts the PID-MRAC process and connects the PV to the GCC-C2C circuit. If this condition does not occur, PID-

MRAC algorithm continues to F20 that calculates PID, F21 converts the PID output into a duty cycle, and F23 runs the MRAC algorithm if F22 returns true.

#### D. PID-MRAC Derivation

To implement PID-MRAC in the Control Unit (D4), the PID-MRAC firstly must be derived into a mathematical formula, and then the resulting formula should be converted into a difference equation to enable the writing of code for the PID-MRAC. Assume that the plant is first order.

$$G = Y/U = b/(s + a) \quad (1)$$

Applying  $df(x)/dt = pf(x)$  to (1) results in

$$py = -ay + bu \quad (2)$$

The PID controller [62], [63] is as follows:

$$U = K_p E + K_i E/s + K_d sE \quad (3)$$

Then, the plant output equation becomes

$$y = (pbK_p + bK_i) u_c / ((1 + bK_d)p^2 + (a + bK_p)p + bK_i) \quad (4)$$

Its gain is one and its zero is at  $p = -K_i/K_p$ . To match this, the reference model was chosen as follows:

$$G_m = Y_m/U_c = \alpha s + \omega_m^2/(s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m s + \omega_m^2) \quad (5)$$

Hence output model is as follows.

$$y_m = (ds + \omega_m^2)u_c/(p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2) \quad (6)$$

It has zero at  $s = -\omega_m^2/d$ . To guide the plant to follow the reference model, we applied the following:

$$K_i = \omega_m^2(1 + bK_d)/b; K_p = d(a + bK_d)/b \quad (7)$$

However, this equation is not applicable, because  $a$  and  $b$  are unknown. MRAC adaptation uses the reference model output ( $y_m$ ), plant output ( $y$ ) and setpoint ( $u_c$ ) to adjust the parameters  $\theta$  ( $K_p$ ,  $K_i$ , and  $K_d$ ) such that the plant output is equal to the reference model output or the squared error of  $\varepsilon = y - y_m$  is minimised. In this case, the cost function is

$$J = 0.5 \varepsilon(\theta)^2 \quad (8)$$

Minimize (8) using the MIT Rule [64]:

$$d\theta/dt = -\alpha dJ/d\theta \quad (9)$$

and substituting  $\varepsilon$  and  $J$  into (9), yields:

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = -\frac{\alpha \varepsilon d\varepsilon}{d\theta} = -\frac{\alpha \varepsilon d(y - y_m)}{d\theta} = -\alpha \varepsilon \frac{dy}{d\theta}; \quad \theta = -(\alpha \varepsilon / p) dy/d\theta \quad (10)$$

To simplify, assume  $y = N/M$ ,  $N = (pbK_p + bK_i) u_c$ , and  $M = (1 + bK_d)p^2 + (a + bK_p)p + bK_i$ . Substituting (5) into  $d\theta = dK_p$ , we obtain:

$$\frac{dy}{dK_p} = (pbu_c M - Npb)/M^2 = \frac{pb(u_c - y)}{M} \quad (11)$$

Derivation (5) using  $d\theta = dK_i$  results in:

$$dy/dK_i = (bu_c M - Nb)/M^2 = b(u_c - y)/M \quad (12)$$

Derivation (5) using  $d\theta = dK_d$  results in:

$$\frac{dy}{dK_d} = -\frac{Nbp^2}{M^2} = -\frac{bp^2 y}{M} \quad (13)$$

Equation (11), (12) and (13) are unusable since  $M$  contains unknown plant parameters ( $a$ ,  $b$ ). Applying  $(a + bK_p)/(1 + bK_d) = 2\zeta\omega_m$  and  $bK_i/(1 + bK_d) = \omega_m^2$  to  $M$  yields

$$\begin{aligned} dy/dK_p &= (1 + bK_d)pb(u_c - y)/(p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2) \\ dy/dK_i &= (1 + bK_d)b(u_c - y)/(p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2) \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

$$dy/dK_d = -(1 + bK_d)bp^2 y/(p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2)$$

Combining (13) into (10) yields

$$K_p = -\alpha b(1 + bK_d)/p \cdot \varepsilon p/(p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2) \cdot (u_c - y) \quad (15)$$

$$K_i = -\alpha b(1 + bK_d)/p \cdot \varepsilon \cdot 1/(p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2) \cdot (u_c - y)$$

$$K_d = \alpha b(1 + bK_d)/p \cdot \varepsilon p^2/(p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2) y$$

Normalizing the model gain by putting  $\omega_m^2$  in the numerator and normalizing the bandwidth by replacing  $p$  with  $p/\omega_n$  produces  $K_p$  as follows:

$$K_p = \frac{-\alpha b(1 + bK_d)}{p/\omega_m} \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\omega_m}\right) \frac{p\omega_m^2(u_c - y)}{p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2} \quad (16)$$

and  $K_i$  was obtained as follows:

$$K_i = \frac{-\alpha b(1 + bK_d)}{p/\omega_m} \varepsilon \frac{\omega_m^2(u_c - y)}{p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2} \quad (17)$$

and produces  $K_d$  as follows:

$$K_d = \frac{\alpha b(1 + bK_d)}{p/\omega_m} \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\omega_m^2}\right) \frac{p^2 \omega_m^2 y}{p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2} \quad (18)$$

The  $K_p$ ,  $K_i$ , and  $K_d$  formulas still contain an unknown parameter,  $b$ . This problem can be addressed by introducing  $\gamma = \alpha b(1 + bK_d)\omega_m$ , which is a constant chosen to determine the adaptation speed of PID parameters. This results in the following adaptation formulas:

$$K_p = -(\gamma \varepsilon / \omega_m)/p \cdot p\omega_m^2 \cdot (u_c - y)/(p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2) \quad (19)$$

$$K_i = -\gamma \varepsilon / p \cdot \omega_m^2/(p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2) \cdot (u_c - y)$$

$$K_d = \gamma(\varepsilon/\omega_m^2)/p \cdot p^2 \omega_m^2/(p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2) \cdot y$$

To implement these formulae in a microcontroller program, they need to be converted into discrete forms using a bilinear transform through two stages: the model reference part and the remainder part. Assume that the model reference is:

$$h = \omega_m^2 e/(p^2 + 2\zeta\omega_m p + \omega_m^2) \quad (20)$$

Using assumption  $2\zeta\omega_m = a_m$ ;  $\omega_m^2 = b_m$ ;  $e = (u_c - y)$ .

$$h/e = b_m/(p^2 + a_m p + b_m) \quad (21)$$

Substitute the following bilinear transformation [65]

$$p \leftarrow \frac{K(1 - z^{-1})}{1 + z^{-1}}; K = \frac{2}{T} \quad (22)$$

into (19) to result in

$$h/e = (b_m + 2b_m z^{-1} + b_m z^{-2}) / (K^2 + a_m K + b_m + (2b_m - 2K^2)z^{-1} + (K^2 - a_m K + b)z^{-2}) \quad (23)$$

The discrete form of the model reference part is as follows:

$$h(k) = \left( -(2b_m - 2K^2)h(k-1) - (K^2 - a_m K + b_m)h_i(k-2) + b_m(e(k) + 2e(k-1) + e(k-2)) \right) / (K^2 + a_m K + b_m) \quad (24)$$

Hence, the difference equation for  $K_i$  is

$$K_i = A_i h/p; K_i = A_i h(K(1 - z^{-1})/(1 + z^{-1}))^{-1} \quad (25)$$

$$K_i(k) = (A_i/K)(h(k) + h(k-1) + K_i(k-1))$$

where  $A_i = -\gamma \varepsilon = -\gamma(y(k) - y_m(k))$ .

The difference equation for  $K_p$  is

$$K_p/h_i = A_p; K_p(k) = A_p h(k) \quad (26)$$

where  $A_p = -\gamma \varepsilon / \omega_m = -\gamma(y(k) - y_m(k)) / \omega_m$ .

The difference equation for  $K_d$  is

$$K_d/h = A_d K(1 - z^{-1}) / (1 + z^{-1}) \quad (27)$$

$$K_d(k) = A_d K(h(k) - h(k-1)) - K_d(k-1)$$

$A_d$  dan  $y_m$  are calculated as follows.

$$A_d = -\gamma \varepsilon / \omega_m^2 = -\gamma(y(k) - y_m(k)) / \omega_m^2 \quad (28)$$

$$y_m(k) = (2 - a_m T)y_m(k-1) + (-1 + a_m T - b_m T^2)y_m(k-2) + b_m T^2 u_c(k-2)$$

where  $a_m = 2\zeta\omega_m$ ,  $b_m = \omega_m^2$ , and  $T$  is the sampling time. The next step was to determine the proportional-integral-derivative (PID) formula. The PID transfer function is:

$$U = K_p E + K_i E/p + K_d E p \quad (29)$$

Using the following backward Euler discretization [66].

$$p \leftarrow (1 - z^{-1})/T \quad (30)$$

Equation (29) can be converted to the discrete form:

$$U = K_p E + K_i ET / (1 - z^{-1}) + (K_d/T)(1 - z^{-1})E \quad (31)$$

or to the following difference equation:

$$U(k) = P(k) + I(k) + D(k) \quad (32)$$

$$P(k) = K_p e(k)$$

$$I(k) = I(k-1) + K_i T e(k)$$

$$D(k) = (K_d/T)(e(k) - e(k-1))$$

#### E. Pseudocode for PID-MRAC

The PID-MRAC formulas include (25), (26), (27), and (32). These equations can be implemented into pseudocode, as shown in Listing 1. Lines 2-7 define several constants.

Line 8 reads the setpoint ( $u_c$ ). Line 9 reads the plant output ( $y$ ). Line 10 calculates the reference model output ( $y_m$ ). Line 11 and line 12 calculate errors ( $u_c - y$ ) and  $\varepsilon = y - y_m$ , respectively. Line 13 calculates  $h(k)$ . Lines 14-16 update PID parameters  $K_p$ ,  $K_i$ , and  $K_d$ .

Listing 1 Pseudocode for PID-MRAC

```

1  pid_mrac:
2  const
3  T=0.01; K=2/T; gamma=0.2
4  wm=10; zeta=1.0; am=2*zeta*wm; bm= wm*wm
5  yA=(2-am*T); yB=(-1+am*T-bm*T*T); yC=bm*T*T
6  hA=-(2*bm-2*K*K);
7  hB=-(K*K-am*K+bm); hC=K*K+am*K+bm
8  uc=read_uc()
9  y=read_y()
10 ym= yA*ym1 + yB*ym2 + yC*uc2
11 e=uc-y
12 eps=y - ym
13 h=(hA*h1 + hB*he2 + bm*(e+2*e1+e2))/hC
14 Ki=-gamma*eps*he/K + Kil
15 Kp=-gamma*(eps/wm)*K*h
16 Kd=-gamma*(eps/(wm*wm))*K*(h-h1)-Kd1
17
18 P=Kp*e
19 I=I1 + Ki*T*e
20 D=Kd*(e-e1)/T
21 u=P+I+D
22 setActuator(u)
23
24 e2=e1; e1=e
25 h1=h;
26 Kil=Ki
27 Kd1=Kd
28 I1=I
29 uc2=uc1; uc1=uc
30 ym2=ym1; ym1=ym

```

Lines 18-21 calculate the PID formula and line 22 sends the result to the actuator. Lines 24-30 update the states of all the variables. This pid\_mrac function must be executed once every fixed time interval  $T$  defined in Line 3. To make this possible, a particular timer overflow interrupt in the Control Unit should be appropriately configured to call this function.

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

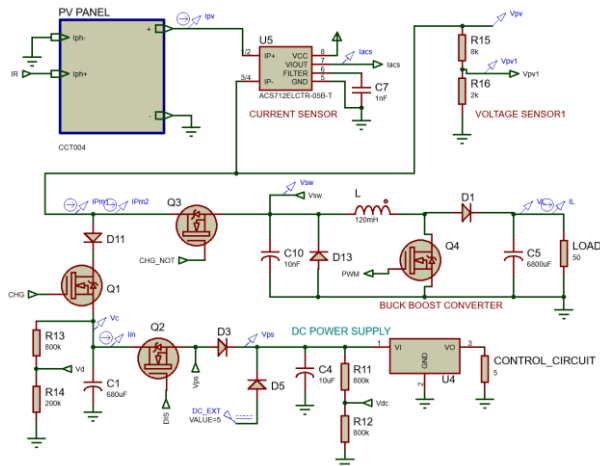
This section discuss the results of GCC-C2C, PID-MRAC, the proposed MPPT and its comparison with P&O MPPT. The commonly known P&O MPPT is used as comparison. Proteus simulation was used for these purposes as it can simulate a microcontroller running an MPPT C/C++ code [67]–[71]. This will result in a more realistic response compared to other simulation programs like Matlab [72]–[75] or PSIM [76]–[78].

#### A. GCC-C2C Result

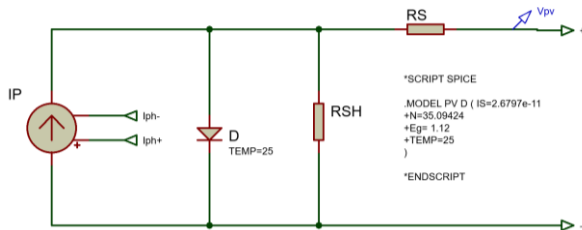
Complete PV system in Proteus using GCC-C2C, non-inverting buck boost converter, power supply circuit and load can be constructed as in Fig. 6. This simulation leverages the PV model developed by Mutohhir [79] and Ahmed Azi [80] that is receiving irradiance signal IR. As shown in Fig. 6(b), it is a single-diode 60WP PV model with a constant temperature of 25°C,  $V_{oc} = 23.2V$  and  $I_{sc} = 3.8A$ . As depicted by Fig. 6(a), the PV current is measured using ACS712 where its analog output is read by AVR Atmega328 through internal ADC module. PV voltage is also measured by AVR using internal ADC module. The MPPT algorithm is implemented in C programming code and run on AVR microcontroller Atmega328 operated at highest clock of



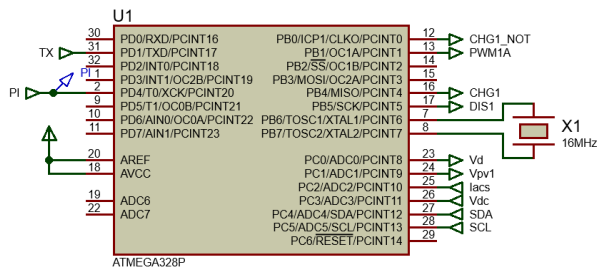
16MHz. Pin allocation for various peripherals is shown in Fig. 6(c). Meanwhile, C code for GCC-C2C is typed directly in the Source Code tab of Proteus, as shown in Fig. 6(d).



(a) Hardware circuit



(b) Internal circuit for PV PANEL



(c) Microcontroller pin allocation

```

File Project Build Edit Debug System Help
Schematic Capture X Source Code X Project Notes X
Projects
ATMEGA328P(U1)
Source Files
main.c
Header Files
i2c.h
main.c
106 float current;
107 float P;
108 float Pm = 0.0;
109
110 uint16_t adc_v;
111 uint16_t adc_i;
112
113 while (1){
114
115     chg_set(); //connect C1
116     chg_not_clr(); //disconnect buck boost converter
117     lock = 1;
118     adc_i = adc_read(ADC_I); //read current, Ipv
119     adc_v = adc_read(ADC_V); //read voltage, Vpv
120     lock = 0;
121     chg_clr(); //disconnect buck boost converter
122     chg_set(); //connect C1
123     voltage = ((float)adc_v*Vmax / 1023.0 + 0.4;
124     current = ((float)adc_i*5.0/1023.0)*5.0-12.5;
125
126     P = voltage*current; //calculate power
127
128     if(P>Pm){ //compare with previous power
129         Pm = P; //record candidat Pmpp
130         Vmpp = voltage; //record candidat Vmpp
131     }
132
133     //If Vpv is stuck then, assign Vmpp as setpoint and empties capacitor
134     if(abs(va[N-1]-voltage)<1e-1){
135
136         Pmpp = Pm;
137         Pm = 0.0;
138         uc = Vmpp;
139     }
140 }

```

(d) Microcontroller code

Running this simulation results in response shown in Fig. 7. This figure includes six signals describing the working principle of GCC-C2C: photon current ( $I_{ph}$ ), charge pulses ( $Chg$ ), voltage stair of  $C_1$  ( $V_c$ ), current pulse flowing into  $C_1$  ( $I_c$ ), discharge pulse or transfer pulse ( $dis$ ), and the GCC-C2C result ( $V_{mpp}$ ). This figure shows 4 cycles of  $V_{mpp}$  tracking, indicated by stair1, stair2, stair3 and stair4.

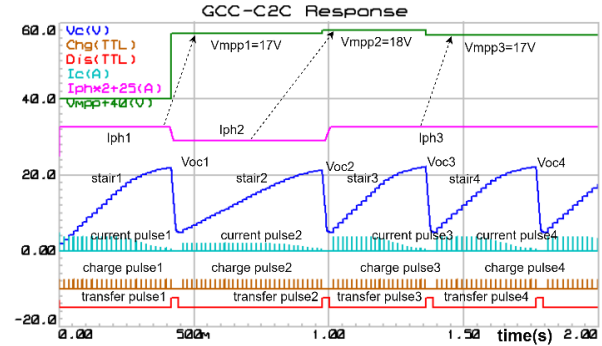


Fig. 7. GCC-C2C response

The first tracking was performed from the beginning until 410ms, which tracked  $V_{mpp}$  when the PV irradiance is  $1000W/m^2$  or  $I_{ph1}=3.8A$ . As depicted by the  $V_{mpp}$  curve, the first tracking results in  $V_{mpp1}=17V$  at the end of the first tracking period ( $t=410ms$ ). The second tracking started immediately after completing the discharging of  $C_1$ . As can be seen, the second tracking results in a higher  $V_{mpp}$  than the first, i.e.  $V_{mpp}=18V$ . At that moment, the PV irradiance produces  $I_{ph2}=2A$ , which is lower than  $I_{ph1}$ . The third tracking result was equal to the first tracking because the third  $I_{ph}$  was equal to the first  $I_{ph}$ . This result proves that GCC-C2C works as expected, where  $V_{mpp}$  can be obtained through the capacitor charging and discharging mechanism. Here, there is no need to test GCC-C2C against PV parameter changes, temperature variation, and partial shading phenomenon, as they will be reflected directly in the  $V_{mpp}$  value, and their effect is detected by GCC-C2C.

## B. PID-MRAC Result

PID code implementation for (32) is shown in Fig. 8. The function `pid()` is attached to the ISR timer overflow 1ms to realise an accurate and constant sampling time.

```

main.c
220 //overflow setip 1ms
221 void timerOvf_init()
222 {
223     TCNT0 = 255+1-TCNT0_PRELOAD //62 step to ovt
224     TCCR0A = 0;
225     TCCR0B = (TCNT0_CS|TCNT0_PRESCALE<<CS00); //
226     TIMSK0 = (1<<TOIE0);
227     sei();
228 }
229 ISR(TIMER0_OVF_vect)
230 {
231     TCNT0 = 255+1-TCNT0_PRELOAD //62 step to ovt
232     pid();
233 }
234
235 void pid()
236 {
237     const int N_Pi = 2;
238     static int i = N_Pi;
239
240     //exit if adc still used by other part
241     if(lock){
242         return;
243     }
244     if(++i<N_Pi)
245         return;
246     i = 0;
247     PORTD |= (1<<PD4);
248     const float T = (tick+0.0003)*N_Pi;
249
250     static float e_1 = 0.0;
251     static float y_1 = 0.0;
252     static float I = 0.0//PWM_MAX-1;
253     const float U = PWM_MAX-1;

```

Fig. 8. Snipped code for managing PID execution via timer interrupt

Fig. 6. Complete PV system for testing

If LOAD in Fig. 6(a) was set to  $10\ \Omega$  and IR or Iph to  $3.8\text{A}$  (equivalent to  $1000\text{W}/\text{m}^2$  irradiance), resulting response shown in Fig. 9. This graph consists of six signals: PID execution indicator (PID), capacitor stair (Vc), duty cycle produced by the PID (duty), power consumed by load (PL), GCC-C2C output (Vmpp), and PV voltage (Vpv). The PID indicator appears regularly and the Vc curve that is similar to Vc in Fig. 7, indicating that the PID algorithm has been successfully worked in parallel with GCC-C2C.

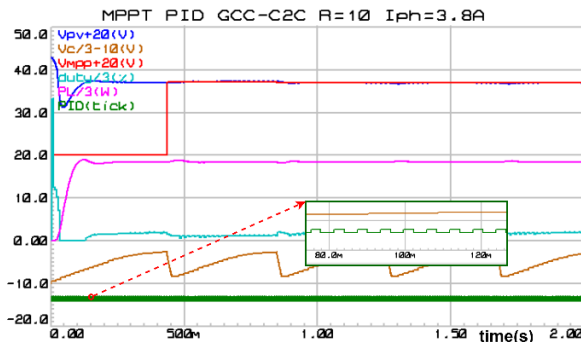
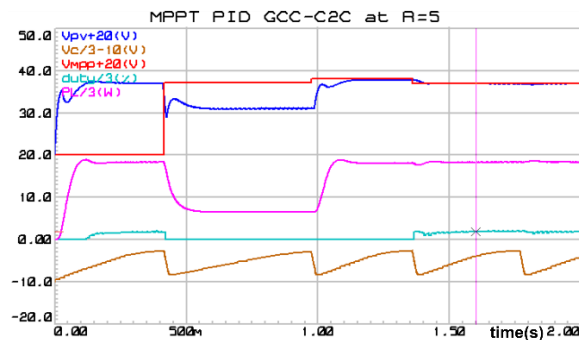


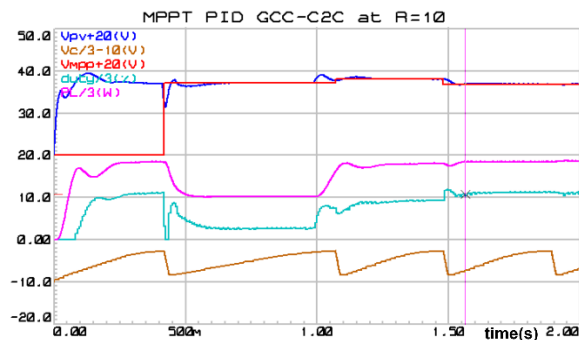
Fig. 9. The PID GCC-C2C response ( $R=10\Omega$  and  $I_{ph}=3.8\text{A}$ )

The PID can maintain  $V_{pv}$  equal to  $V_{mpp}$  with an initial settling time of  $200\text{ms}$  by driving the boost converter with particular duty-cycles; hence, the delivered power to load is maximum, i.e.  $55.8\text{ W}$ , whereas in this condition, the PV produces  $I_{ph}=3.8\text{A}$  or  $P=60\text{ W}$ . The PL curve without flicker indicates that GCC-C2C can address the power supply interruption.

To evaluate the PID effectiveness, two tests have been conducted using load  $R=5\Omega$  dan  $R=10\Omega$ . Irradiance is dropped from  $I_{ph}=3.8\text{A}$  to  $I_{ph}=2.0\text{A}$  at  $t=400\text{ms}$  and recovered at  $t=1\text{s}$ , with response as shown in Fig. 10.



(a) PID GCC-C2C with load  $R=5\text{ ohm}$



(b) PID GCC-C2C with load  $R=10\text{ ohm}$

Fig. 10. PID GCC-C2C response ( $R=5\Omega$  and  $R=10\Omega$ )

When  $R=5\Omega$  the  $V_{pv}$  deviates largely from  $V_{mpp}$  at  $t=400\text{ms}$  because at these moments  $I_{ph}$  drops deeply from  $I_{ph}=3.8\text{A}$  to  $I_{ph}=2.0\text{A}$ . The PID attempted to recover  $V_{pv}$  by setting the duty until it was stuck at  $0\%$ , but it still failed, as the load was too large or the resistance was too small and irradiance ( $I_{ph}$ ) was low enough. For comparison, if irradiance is increased, with  $I_{ph}=3.0\text{A}$ , then  $V_{pv}$  is better in approaching  $V_{mpp}$  as shown in Fig. 11.

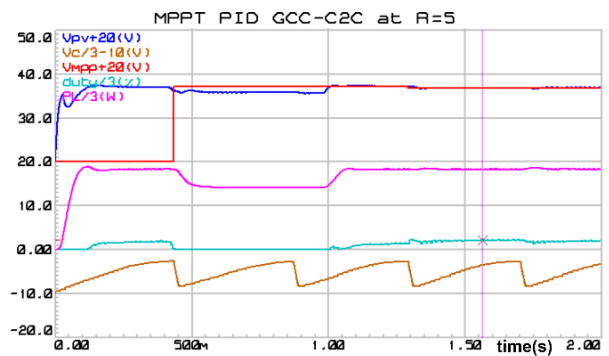


Fig. 11. PID GCC-C2C with load  $R=5\text{ ohm}$  and irradiance  $I_{ph2}=3.0\text{A}$

When  $I_{ph}$  returns to the normal condition (at  $t=1\text{s}$   $I_{ph}=3.8\text{A}$ ),  $V_{pv}$  can be recovered and coincides  $V_{mpp}$  within  $10\text{ms}$ . This signifies that the proposed MPPT can not regulate  $V_{pv}$  to  $V_{mpp}$  if generated power is less than required power by load. However this indicates that the PID worked as expected and PID is more successful in regulating  $V_{pv}$  if  $R=10\Omega$ , compared with  $R=5\Omega$ . The power consumed by load is shown by PL curve. Fig. 10(b) shows higher level of PL (at 10), not at 6 as in Fig. 10(a). Again, this indicates that the lighter the load, the easier the  $V_{pv}$  stabilisation; hence, higher energy is harvested. A comparison of the  $V_{pv}$  curves on these graphs shows that the load resistance influences the transient response, particularly the settling time and overshoot. This occurs as the load resistance is part of the plant to be controlled by the PID, which in this case includes a converter and the load. To reduce the negative effect on MPPT performance, the PID parameters are adjusted automatically using MRAC; hence, the time-response characteristics can be maintained. Fig. 12 shows the MRAC testing results when the PID parameters were adjusted.

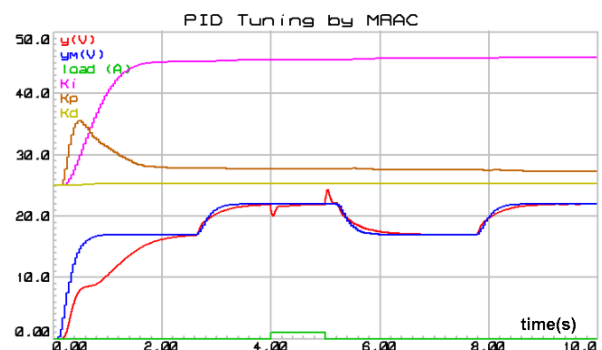


Fig. 12. MRAC response while auto-tuning PID parameters

This response shows that the PID parameters were successfully adjusted to the correct value during operation. This is proved by parameter graphs ( $K_p$ ,  $K_i$  and  $K_d$ ) that are settled at a particular value in  $2\text{s}$  even though their initial values are zero. The  $y$  curve that always follows the  $y_m$  curve

is also evidence that MRAC has successfully tuned the PID parameters. This mechanism will maintain the PID time response and hence the MPPT performance.

### C. Comparison of the Proposed Method to the P&O MPPT

To evaluate the contribution of the proposed MPPT, response comparisons are performed with the response of the P&O MPPT. Fig. 13 shows a response comparison between P&O and the proposed MPPT using static load  $R=5\Omega$  and  $R=10\Omega$ . Fig. 13(a) and Fig. 13(c) is for P&O and Fig. 13(b) and Fig. 13(d) is for the proposed MPPT.

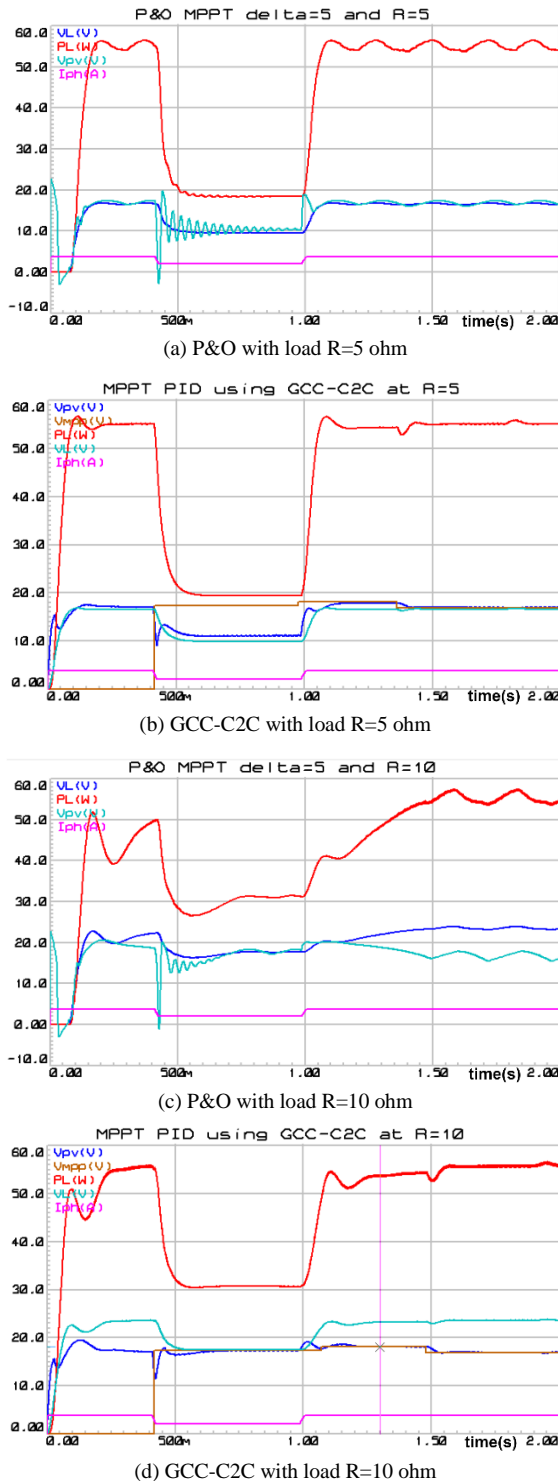


Fig. 13. Response comparison between P&O and proposed MPPT for a load  $R=5\Omega$  and  $R=10\Omega$

When irradiance drops deeply from  $I_{ph}=3.8A$  to  $I_{ph}=2.0A$  at  $t=400ms$ , Fig. 13(a) shows that the power level PL of P&O is less than 20W, but the power level PL of the proposed method of Fig. 13(b) is closer to 20W. This indicates that the proposed method can harvest more power than the P&O method. In the steady-state condition, P&O of Fig. 13(a) contains persistent fluctuation, while GCC-C2C of Fig. 13(b) does not. This is one of the superiorities of the proposed method regarding the quality of harvested energy. Tracking speed of MPPT can be evaluated through the settling time of PL against irradiance changes. When PV irradiance or  $I_{ph}$  is changed from  $I_{ph}=2.0$  to  $3.8A$  at  $t=1s$ , the P&O response in Fig. 13(c) is settled to 55 W in 0.6s, while the proposed method in Fig. 13(d) is settled in 0.2ms (3 times faster). This evidence shows that the tracking speed of the proposed method is better than P&O. A worse condition for the P&O MPPT occurred when load  $R=500\Omega$ , as shown in Fig. 14.

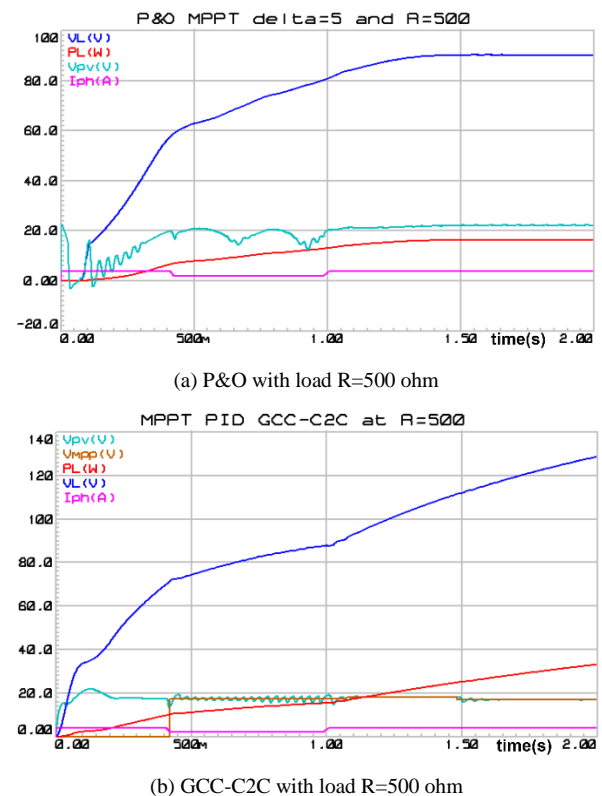


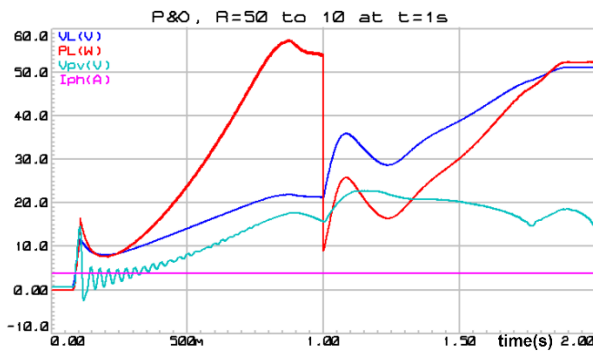
Fig. 14. Response comparison P&O vs proposed for  $R=500\Omega$

In this case, the P&O of Fig. 14(a) is failed to harvest the maximum power, as the PL curve settles only at 15 W, whereas the proposed method of Fig. 14(b) can reach 32 W at  $t=2s$  and it will grow up until the maximum power. This response indicates one of the most significant contributions of the proposed MPPT. It is more successfully in delivering power both under low or high resistance loads. This is possible as  $V_{pv}$  in the proposed method is maintained to equal  $V_{mpp}$ .

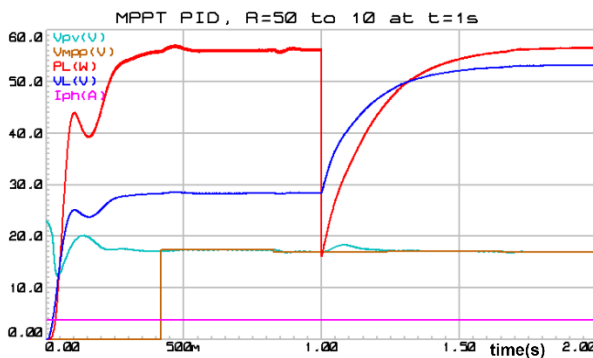
Fig. 15 shows a response comparison between P&O and the proposed MPPT when load  $R$  changes from  $50\Omega$  to  $10\Omega$  at  $t=1s$ . Testing was done with PV irradiance  $1000W/m^2$  or  $I_{ph}=3.8A$ . As depicted in Fig. 15(b), the proposed MPPT can recover power harvesting to 56.2W in 0.7s. Meanwhile, in Fig. 15(a), P&O requires a longer duration, 0.9s, and lower



harvested power, 52.5 W. This confirms the superiority of the proposed MPPT against dynamic load.



(a) P&O with load change  $R=50$  ohm to  $10$  ohm at  $t=1$ s



(b) GCC-C2C with load change  $R=50$  ohm to  $10$  ohm at  $t=1$ s

Fig. 15. Response comparison P&O vs proposed when load changed

Regarding the power loss of capacitor discharge, in the conventional capacitor-based MPPT can be calculated using the formula  $W = CV_{oc}^2/2$ . Using PV PANEL in this paper ( $V_{oc} = 23.2V$ ,  $I_{sc} = 3.8A$ ), and the sweeping capacitor is  $16000\mu F$ , which is calculated based on Fig. 6 in [54], thus  $W=4.31J$  per sweep. If this formula is applied to the proposed MPPT, but using  $C = C_1$  of Fig. 6(a). i.e.  $680\mu F$ , then power loss  $W=0.183J$  per sweep or 4,25% of the conventional capacitor-based MPPT. This is not the actual power loss in the proposed method, as the proposed method does not discharge the capacitor to ground, but it transfers the capacitor charge to the power supply capacitor; then the actual loss will be a small portion of the power dissipated in Q2 and D3 of Fig. 6(a). If it is assumed that the dissipated power is 10% of the transferred power to C4 of Fig. 6(a), then the power loss is 0,425% of the conventional capacitor-based MPPT. So, the power loss of the proposed method is negligible.

The last but most important thing to be investigated is the amount of harvested energy and its efficiency. To do this, the harvested powers during simulation (2s) are integrated and compared to know which method will produce higher total energy, as presented in Table I. Harvesting efficiency (Eff.) is calculated by comparing  $W$  to the ideal total energy for 2s (during simulation), i.e.  $103.92J$  (from  $t=0.4s$  to  $1s$  is  $0.6s \times 33.2W = 19.92J$ , and for the remaining duration is  $1.4s \times 60W = 84J$ ). These data show that P&O power production is worse at highly resistive loads. However, the proposed method is superior at various loads. At a 50 ohm load, P&O harvested energy is only 22.16J or 21%, while the proposed

method is higher, 84.83J or 82%. At a 5 ohm load, P&O harvested energy is only 87.37J or 84%, while the proposed method is higher, 99.89J or 96%.

TABLE I. COMPARISON OF HARVESTED ENERGY BETWEEN P&O AND THE PROPOSED MPPT FOR 2S AT VARIOUS LOAD

No	Load (ohm)	P&O		Proposed		Improvement	
		W(J)	Eff.(%)	W(J)	Eff.(%)	(J)	(%)
1	5	87.37	84	99.89	96	12.52	12.5
2	10	78.70	76	92.24	89	13.54	14.6
3	20	44.13	42	90.57	87	46.44	51.2
4	50	22.16	21	84.83	82	62.67	73.8

This is possible because the proposed method repeatedly tracks  $V_{mpp}$  and regulates  $V_{pv}$  to be equal to  $V_{mpp}$ . Since the location of  $V_{mpp}$  does not depend on the load value, the harvesting performance of the proposed method depends solely on the controller performance used to regulate  $V_{pv}$ . The smaller the error between  $V_{pv}$  and  $V_{mpp}$ , the greater the harvested energy.

Even though the computational aspect of the proposed method is more complex (340 lines of code) than P&O (212 lines of code), the energy consumed by the microcontroller running the algorithm is almost similar, as both are operated at the same operational voltage and clock frequency. When it is applied in large-scale PV systems, sensors and power switches capacity needs to scale up as in other MPPT, including P&O. Furthermore, this method does not need to care about PV condition influenced by irradiance changes, temperature variations, or partial shading phenomenon because GCC-C2C will easily detect their effect on  $V_{mpp}$  value.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

This article proposes PID-MRAC MPPT for photovoltaic systems using a novel maximum power point tracker called GCC-C2C. GCC is assigned to locate  $V_{mpp}$  without interrupting the power transfer from PV to load, and C2C is for reducing the power losses that appear in the classical parallel capacitor method. The Poteus simulation was conducted to verify the effectiveness of the MPPT. The results show that GCC-C2C has been successfully implemented on an AVR microcontroller and is capable of tracing the  $V_{mpp}$ . A PID code integrated into the same microcontroller can work together with the GCC-C2C algorithm to maintain  $V_{pv}$  equals to  $V_{mpp}$ . The MRAC code, which was also implemented in the same microcontroller, successfully tuned the PID parameters.

The proposed MPPT offers significant contributions to the domain of renewable energy and control engineering, especially on the harvesting of photovoltaic energy. The MPPT optimizes harvesting by regulating  $V_{pv}$  to follow  $V_{mpp}$ . This method ensures that the PV system will deliver more power at various load. This method differs from optimization-based MPPT, especially P&O, where the load affects the harvested power; the lower the load (large resistance), the lower the harvested power. The main contributions of this method is capability to deterministically find  $V_{mpp}$  without interrupting power delivery to load using parallel capacitor I-V sweeping and preventing power loss due to capacitor discharging. The implementation of this

method is more complicated than P&O. It requires timing accuracy for both PID and MRAC. The timing needs to be managed using a timer interrupt. Meanwhile, GCC-C2C can work based on a regular process, but it is better if its execution is triggered by an external interrupt event.

Suggested further work may include replacing PID-MRAC with other adaptive control, replacing (1) with a higher-order model, and finding a more efficient method for estimating the model parameters. The practical aspects of its application are also challenging. Real hardware testing will be an interesting topic. Improvements are needed to enhance its performance, such as increasing the sampling frequency and upgrading the microcontroller from AVR (16MHz) to ESP32 (270MHz) or STM32 (250MHz) to reduce latency. Scalability, or applying the proposed MPPT to a larger PV system, is also a challenge since it is related to power switch selection, sensors, and the effort of accuracy improvement.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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