

# Improvements of Synchronous Rectification on LLC-DCX

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Thesis submitted to the faculty of the  
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State  
University in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of

Master of Science

In

Electrical Engineering

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September 10, 2018

Blacksburg, Virginia

Keywords: llc dc transformer, synchronous rectification, duty cycle rate limiting,  
sequential parallel switching, multilevel gate driving

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(ABSTRACT)

LLC-based DC transformers (DCX) provide an efficient means of DC-to-DC energy conversion due to its soft-switching capabilities. Traditionally, these LLC-DCXs use passive diodes on the secondary side to provide a DC output. These diodes are a large source of loss in DCXs due to the diodes' forward drop. Synchronous rectification (SR), provides a method of removing this diode forward drop by replacing said diode with a diode-synchronous switch to bypass current. However, direct implementation of SR on LLC-DCXs will experience issues such as light load resonance, and early SR switch turn-off.

LLC-DCXs are based off of unidirectional LLC-resonant converters, which are able to achieve very high levels of efficiency by eliminating switching losses typically incurred during hard-switched power conversion. This is achieved through either zero voltage switching (ZVS) or zero current switching (ZCS), through a combination of passive components to form a resonant tank. The resulting waveform however, needs to be rectified to obtain a DC output. In traditional topologies, passive diodes are used for rectification on the secondary side. Passive diodes, while reliable, are a source of loss in the overall system due to its forward drop. Circuits designed to remove this diode drop, by synchronously turning on and off a diode-parallel switch, are coined synchronous rectifiers. Drain-source voltage sensing synchronous rectification is a method commonly used in SR systems. However, directly implementing this SR method on LLC-DCXs will introduce light load resonance, and an early turn-off issue that can be detrimental to overall rectifier stability and efficiency.

This thesis will explore two issues: current resonance and early SR turn-off. The problems will be root-caused, solutions proposed, and the solutions verified. Finally, current and future research work on these topics will be discussed.

# **Improvements of Synchronous Rectification on LLC-DCX**

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## **GENERAL AUDIENCE ABSTRACT**

This thesis focuses on developments and improvements on synchronous rectifiers for resonant based power converter circuits. Traditionally, synchronous rectifiers are implemented on high current circuits. New problems can arise when utilizing synchronous rectification on low current circuits. This research details an internal resonance issue that arises during implementation. The issue is root caused, simulated, and a novel solution is presented in the form of a digital bandwidth limiter. A second issue, an early turn-off issue, is discussed, simulated, and two new solutions are proposed depending on the rectifier architecture. These solutions are tested, and the efficiency improvements with these proposed methods quantified with simulations.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to express my deepest thanks to my advisor, Dr. Jih-Sheng Lai.

I would also like to profusely thank Chih-Shen Yeh, Xiaonan Zhao and Hsin-Che Hsieh for motivation, critique, and allowing me bounce ideas off of them throughout the course of this thesis.

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# CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

High voltage power electronics are in an ever increasing demand for utility, datacenter and other high power applications. One possible use for high voltage power electronics is in solid-state transformers (SST). Solid-state transformers are built with multiple solid state power converters, and serve to replace traditional transformers. Solid-state transformers feature voltage regulation, constant unity power factor, overload protection, and many other benefits traditional wire wound transformers are unable to provide [2].

Due to the high voltages present in the system, isolation becomes a large concern during the topology selection for circuit design. Traditionally, isolation is provided at the input through an isolation transformer, as shown in Figure 1.1. Regulation is typically provided downstream, by the AC-DC converter.

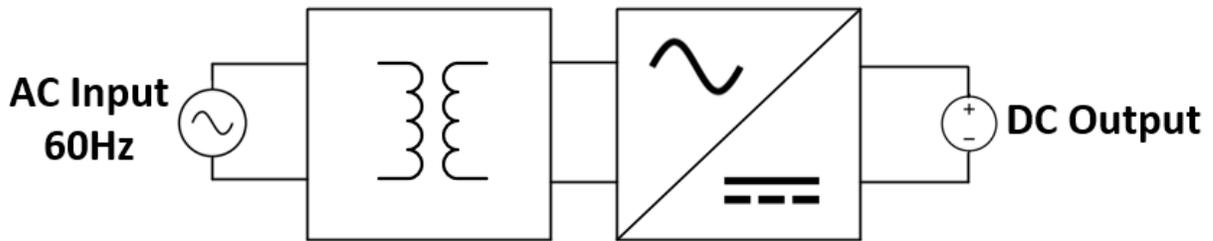


Figure 1.1. Isolation transformer before AC/DC stage

Unfortunately, placing the isolation transformer at the input, which typically operates at a low frequency, results in a physically large and heavy transformer. This is undesirable for high power density, and numerous topologies have been introduced to replace this isolation architecture. One such topology is the LLC-based DC-transformer

circuit. The LLC DC-transformer, henceforth called the LLC-DCX, is an isolated, soft switched DC-DC converter optimized around a single conversion ratio. Isolation is provided by a transformer in the circuit. Since the switching frequency, and thus excitation frequency of the transformer can be controlled, the physical size of the transformer can be drastically reduced. The isolation provided by this LLC-DCX topology is depicted in Figure 1.2. In this case, regulation is provided by the AC-DC stage, such as a boost-converter based active front end.

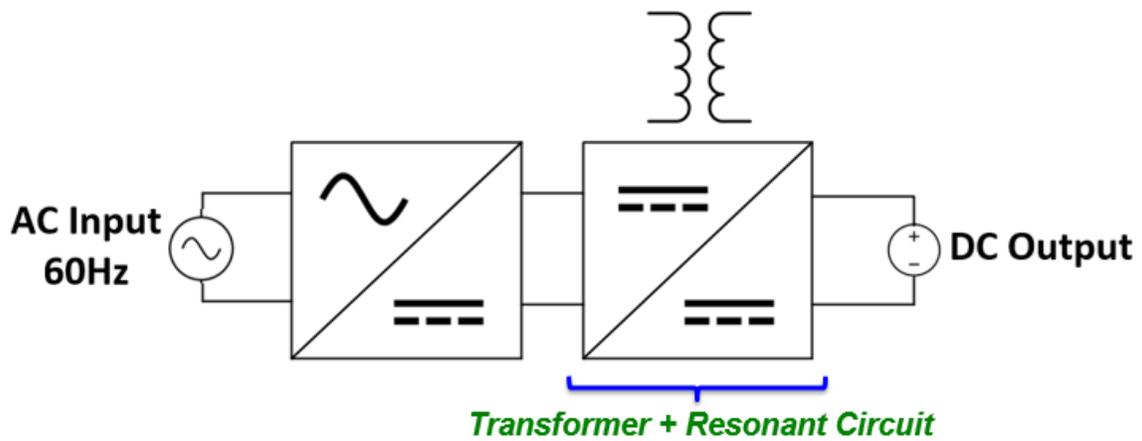


Figure 1.2. Isolation provided by LLC-DCX

The LLC-DCX circuit conveniently and efficiently packages a fixed conversion ratio and voltage isolation in one package. Due to its complexity and part count, its efficiency across load is of great concern in these systems. For example, LLC-DCX's traditionally employ rectifier diodes, which can be a large source of conduction loss. Traditionally, synchronous rectification (SR) is easily achievable in LLC-DCX's with open loop control, by reusing the primary side gating signal. However, traditional methods of synchronous rectification cannot be used due to the high voltage isolation necessary between the primary and secondary side. Furthermore, voltage-sensed synchronous

rectification, a common type of SR, can suffer from an early turn-off issue that progressively deteriorates the synchronous rectifier's efficiency at lighter loads. It can also suffer from a stability issue when low channel resistance power MOSFETs are used without duty cycle rate limiting at light loads. This thesis intends to root cause and review these issues and propose more practical, novel solutions that can be implemented in LLC-based DC transformer circuits.

Currently, only the early turn-off issue has been identified in previous research [14-15]. Two related solutions were proposed: 1) a zero crossing filter and 2) an auxiliary SR compensation circuit. Both circuits base their working principle on developing a drain-source signal for the SR FET controller that is not affected by the parasitics present in the circuit. These methods rely on an auxiliary circuit that is tuned exactly to the parasitic inductance in the SR rectifier current path and  $R_{DS,on}$  of the SR switch. As a result, tuning the circuit can be troublesome, time consuming, and inaccurate under condition change (such as temperature). The novel methods proposed, sequential parallel switching and multilevel gate driving, do not rely on tuning the compensating circuit to the parasitics. Thus, the methods proposed in this thesis for alleviating the early turn-off issue are much more practical to implement in real world systems.

## CHAPTER 2: LLC-DCX AND SR INTRODUCTION

### 2.1 LLC-DCX Introduction

The LLC-DCX (DC transformer) is a resonant-based DC to DC converter popularly used due to its ease of implementation and efficiency. Due to its soft switching capabilities, its power conversion efficiency can far exceed traditional hard-switched converters. This makes it very attractive for high power applications such as solid-state transformers [1-2].

The heart of the LLC converter lies in the resonant tank, a passive tank consisting of three reactive components: two inductors and a capacitor. This resonant tank has two frequencies associated with it – one higher, and one lower. The higher frequency is generally referred to as the resonant frequency of the tank,  $f_o$ . A half bridge LLC converter and a voltage doubler rectifier is used for the DCX shown below in Figure 2.1.

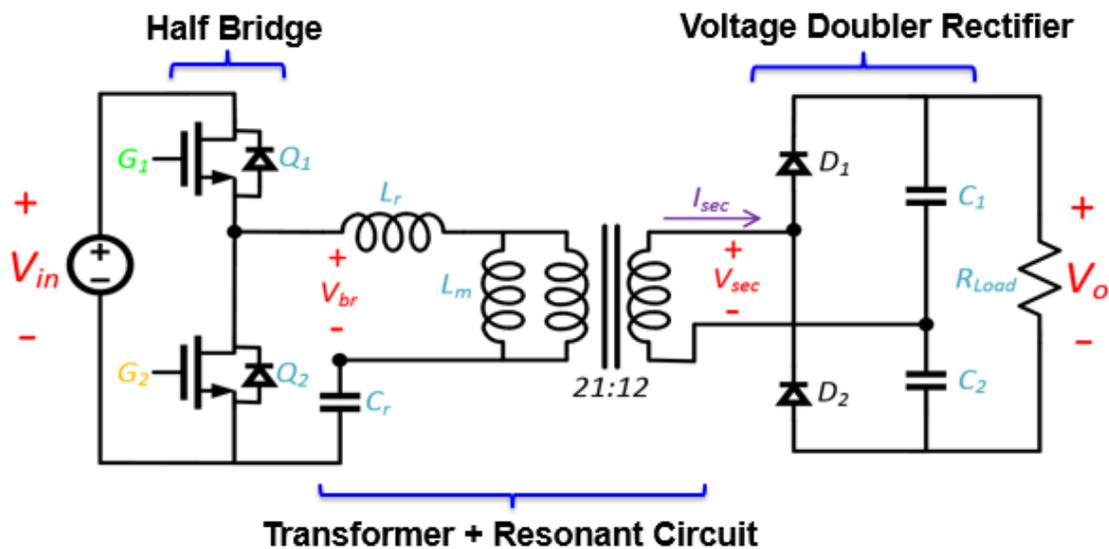


Figure 2.1. LLC-DCX converter circuit schematic

$L_r$  and  $C_r$ , the resonant inductor and resonant capacitor respectively, represent the higher main resonant frequency. This frequency can be calculated by:

$$f_r = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{L_r C_r}}$$

This only represents one of the two resonant tank frequencies, however. If the transformer secondaries in the circuit are left open, the tank turns into a two element tank, summing  $L_m$ , the magnetizing inductance, and  $L_r$ . This results in the second resonant tank frequency:

$$f_{r2} = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{(L_r + L_m)C_r}}$$

This second resonant frequency is much lower than the primary resonant frequency, and is typically not used often during the design process. The main resonant tank is excited at a certain frequency, which then determines the amount of power flow from input to output. For maximum efficiency the converter must be operated around the normalized frequency of 1, the higher resonant tank frequency of the LLC converter. This is the frequency the LLC-DCX is excited at, in order to operate at maximum efficiency. This operating point allows for zero voltage switching (ZVS) with the primary switches with properly designed  $L_m$  values, and zero current switching (ZCS) on the secondary with ideal synchronous rectification.  $L_m$ , the magnetizing inductor of the transformer, and  $L_r$  are typically designed a part of the transformer, representing the leakage and magnetizing inductance respectively. The magnetizing inductance is sized appropriately to discharge the primary MOSFET's junction capacitors, resulting in soft switching. The MOSFET's

junction capacitance, switching frequency, and switch dead time must all be taken into account for proper design of  $L_m$  [3].

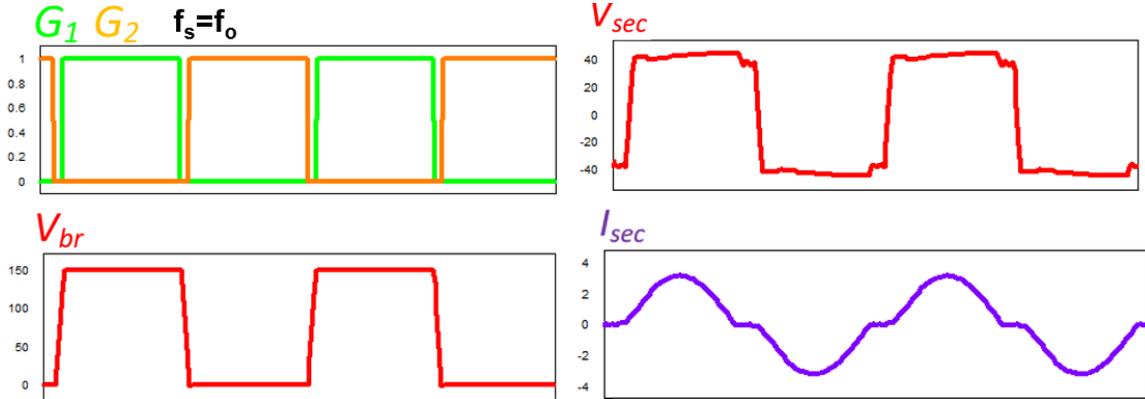


Figure 2.2. LLC-DCX converter waveforms

In an LLC-DCX, the converter is run in open loop with fixed switch dead time and 50% duty cycle. The switching and resulting waveforms can be seen in Figure 2.2, which results in a secondary square voltage wave, and a pseudo-sinusoidal current waveform. To achieve a DC output, the waveform must be rectified. A voltage doubler rectifier is used as shown in Figure 2.1. Voltage-doubler-specific waveforms are shown in Figure 2.3.

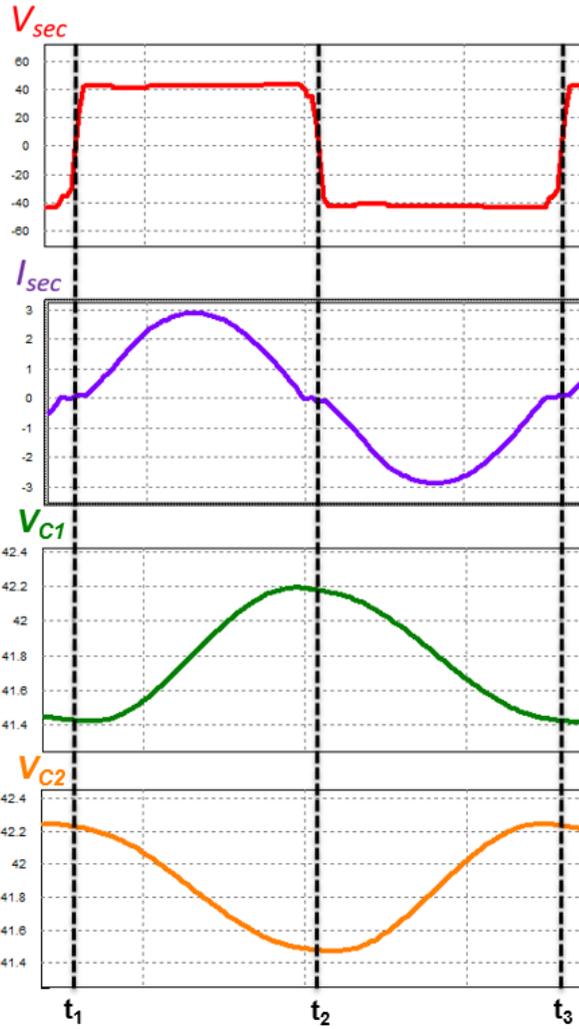


Figure 2.3. Voltage doubler rectifier waveforms

During the positive half cycle, from  $t_1$  to  $t_2$  in Figure 2.3, doubler capacitor  $C_1$  is charged to the peak of  $V_{sec}$ , shown in Figure 2.4. In the negative half cycle, from  $t_2$  to  $t_3$  in Figure 2.3, the doubler capacitor  $C_2$  is charged to the peak of  $V_{sec}$  as well, shown in Figure 2.5.

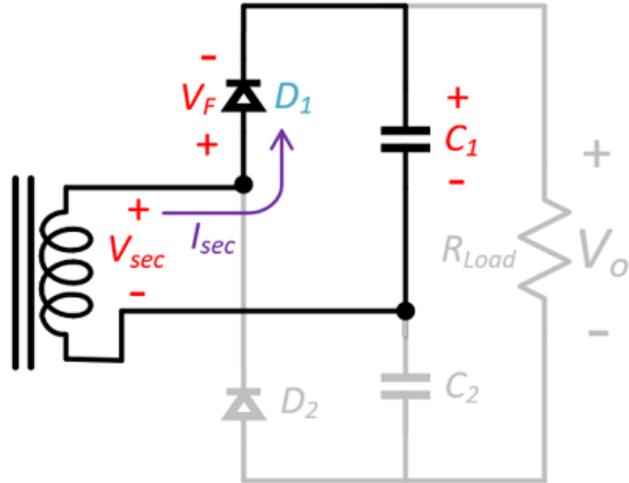


Figure 2.4. Voltage doubler rectifier current flow during positive half cycle:  $[t_1, t_2]$

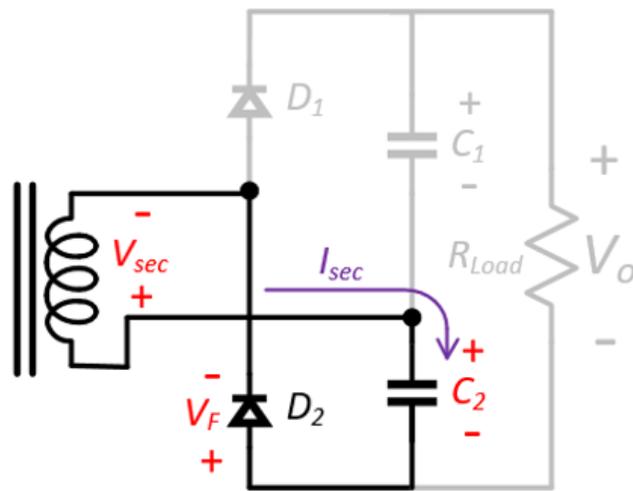


Figure 2.5. Voltage doubler rectifier current flow during negative half cycle:  $[t_2, t_3]$

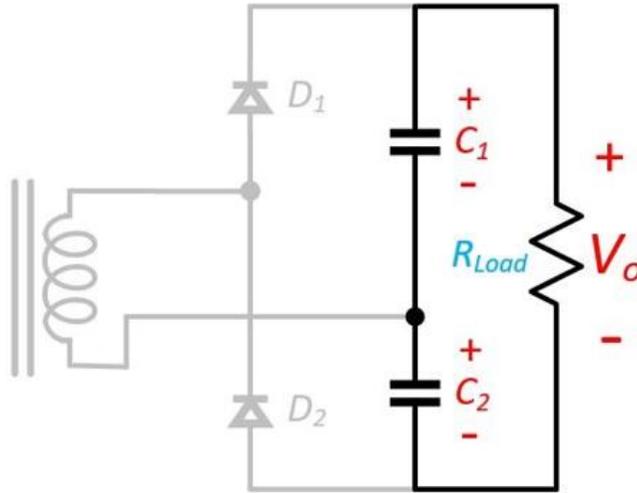


Figure 2.6. Voltage doubler rectifier net output voltage

Thus, the output voltage is the sum of  $V_{C1}$  and  $V_{C2}$ , or twice of what a normal rectifier would give. The voltage doubler rectifier cancels out the halved swing from using a half-bridge over a full-bridge primary inverter. This means the output voltage is simply the product of the transformer turns ratio and the input voltage. Thus, for this LLC-DCX, the output voltage  $V_o$  is simply:

$$V_o = \left( \frac{n_{pri}}{n_{sec}} \right) V_{in}$$

Where  $n_{pri}$  and  $n_{sec}$  represents the number of primary and secondary transformer windings, respectively. As we can see, the output voltage is a fixed ratio of the input. Hence, the coinage of this LLC-converter variant as a DC-transformer.

## **2.2 Drain-Source Voltage Sensing Synchronous Rectification for LLC-DCX Converters**

Synchronous rectification is the process of synchronously turning on a diode-parallel switch to remove the parasitic diode drop incurred during rectification, increasing the LLC converter efficiency [4-6]. The switch is turned on as current begins to flow, and turned off right as the current drops to zero – like an ideal diode. However, drain-source voltage sensing synchronous rectification uses the diode conduction as a signal to initially turn on the SR switch. As a result, a parallel diode is necessary for proper SR function. These types of SR controllers cannot properly operate without a diode of some form [3,4]. The diode also serves to catch any current not conducted by the SR switch, such as in late SR switch turn on or early switch turn off.

Figure 2.7 shows the circuit schematic for implementing drain-source voltage sensed SR on a voltage doubler rectifier. The passive diodes are replaced with power MOSFET switches, and the SR controllers directly sense the drain and source terminals of the switch to determine the gate signal. In this case, the parallel diode used to trigger SR function is the body diode of the MOSFET switch.

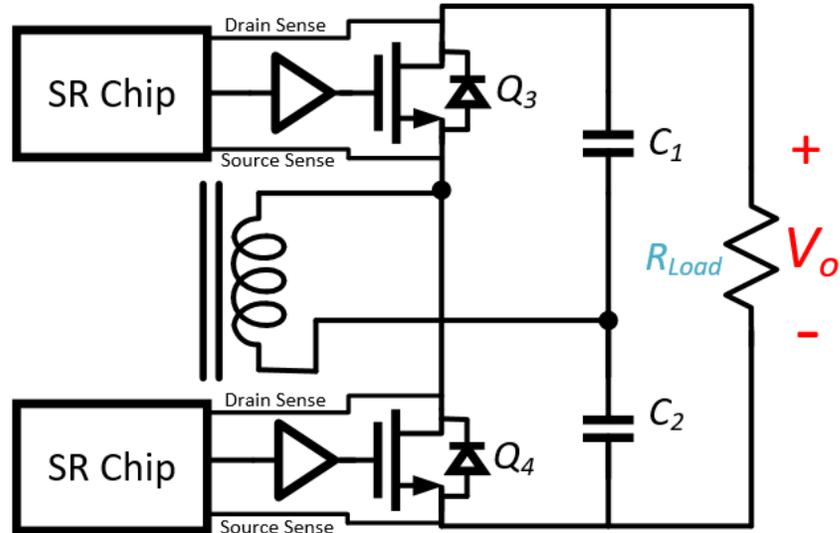


Figure 2.7. SR implementation on voltage doubler rectifier

Drain-source SR operation begins with the SR switch off, and the current flowing through the body diode of the switch as shown in Figure 2.9, during the period  $t_1$  to  $t_2$  in Figure 2.8. The diode conduction induces a negative reading across the drain-source sense terminals of the SR controller, equal to the negative forward drop of the body diode. This triggers the SR controller to turn the SR switch on, in order to redirect the current through the switch channel and remove the diode drop. This is shown in Figure 2.10, from  $t_2$  to  $t_3$  in Figure 2.8.

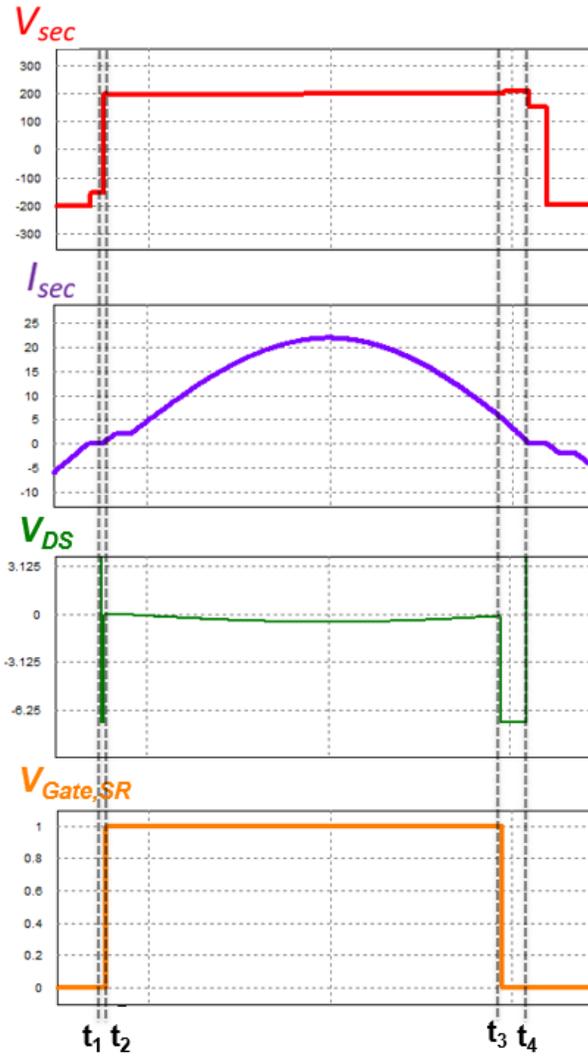


Figure 2.8. Drain-source SR operation waveforms

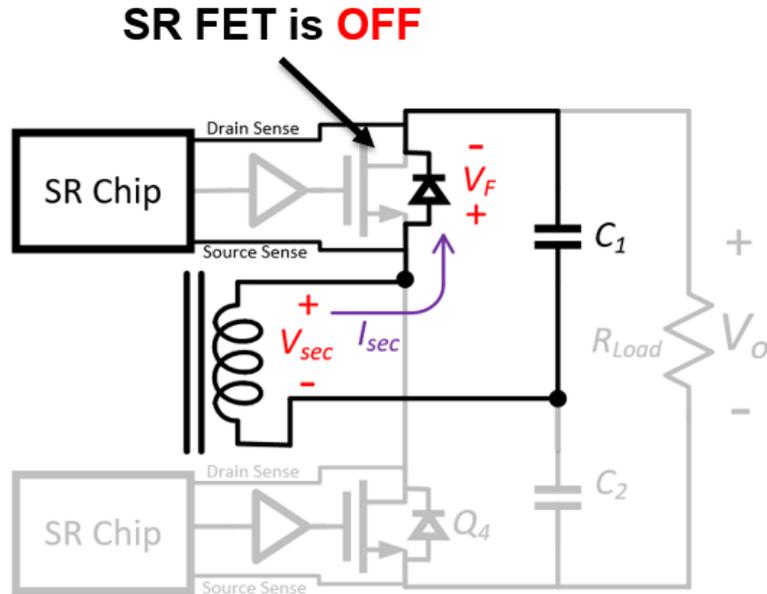


Figure 2.9. Secondary current flow from  $t_1$  to  $t_2$

While the current is being directed through the channel, the drain-source senses a voltage equal to the following:

$$V_{DS,sensed} = I_{DS} * R_{DS,on}$$

As the current drops, as depicted in the secondary side waveforms in Figure 2.8, the sensed drain-source voltage will approach zero. At some point around zero, this trips an internal comparator in the SR controller, which turns the SR switch off. Any remaining current is conducted by the parallel diode, shown in Figure 2.11 [7-8].

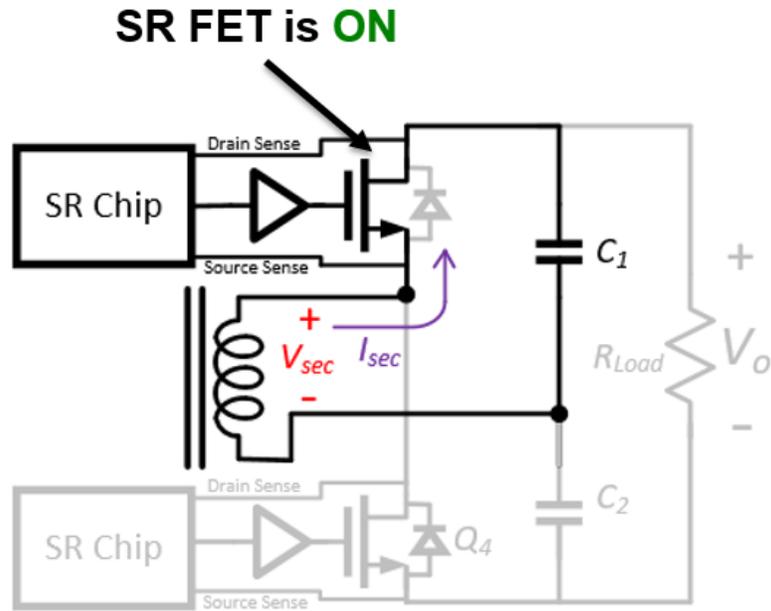


Figure 2.10. Secondary current flow from  $t_2$  to  $t_3$

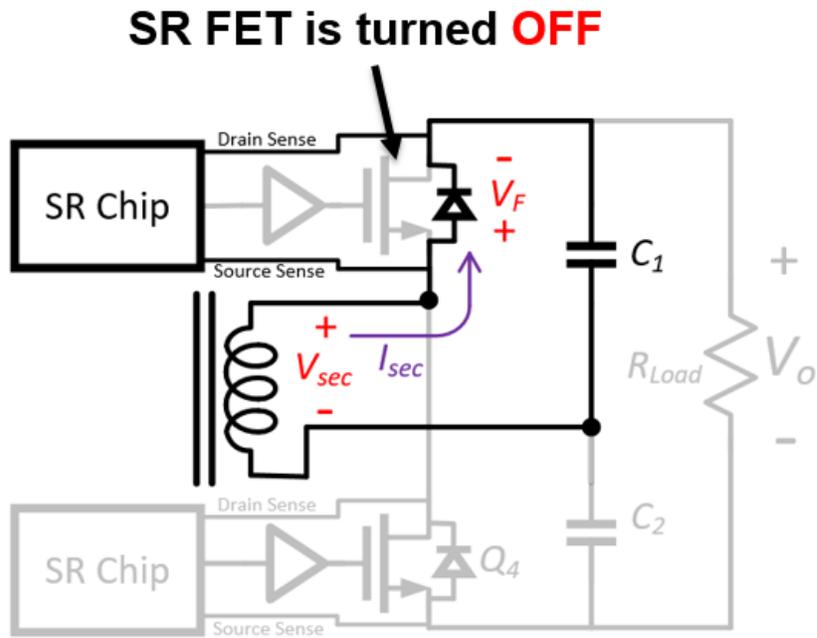


Figure 2.11. Secondary current flow from  $t_3$  to  $t_4$

### 2.3 LLC-DCX Module Specifications

The LLC-DCX module specifications used for testing is specified in Table 2.1.

*Table 2.1. LLC-DCX module specifications*

<b>Specification</b>	<b>Rating</b>
Input	700 V <sub>DC</sub>
Output	400 V <sub>DC</sub>
Max Power Rating	2.5 kW
XFMR Ratio	21:12
f <sub>s</sub>	84 kHz
L <sub>r</sub>	~11.2 μH
C <sub>r</sub>	.30 μF
L <sub>m</sub>	810 μH
T <sub>D</sub>	375nS

The module is pictured in Figure 2.12, pictured with (from left to right): passive rectifier module, transformers, and the power stage module comprised of an active front end (AFE) and LLC-DCX.

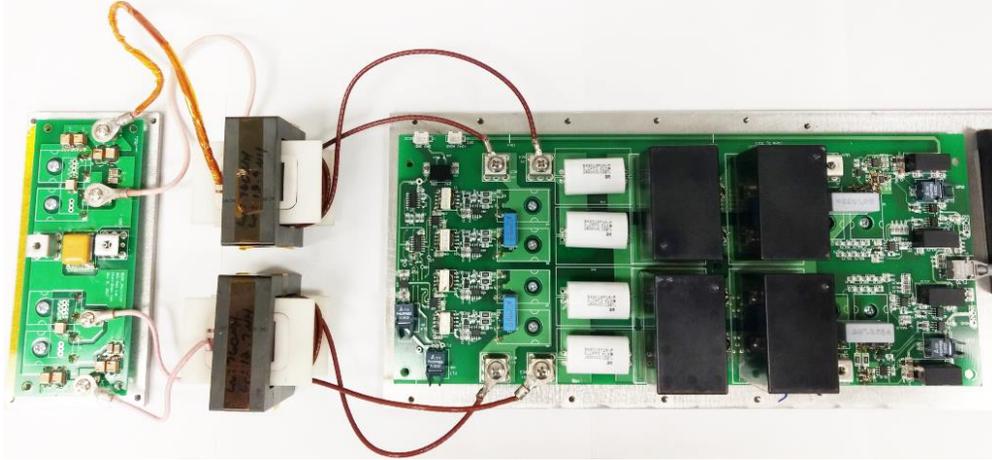


Figure 2.12. LLC-DCX module

## 2.4 Thesis Objective and Overview

The objective of this thesis is to explore two issues: a current resonance issue, and an early turn off issue. Novel methods of solving these issues are presented, simulated, and tested. The thesis will thoroughly explain the source of these issues, the proposed solution and test results.

The thesis is organized as follows:

**Chapter III** describes a stability issue observed at light load conditions when cycle-by-cycle drain-source voltage sensed SR control is implemented on the rectifier of an LLC-DCX converter. Low current conditions cause a weak drain-source voltage signal, leading to noise susceptibility. This can cause a large jump in SR duty cycle from one cycle to the next, leading to an internal current resonance. Simulations are built to replicate the issue, a simplified simulation model is proposed, and an FPGA-based duty cycle rate limiter is built and tested with the TI-based SR board.

**Chapter IV** describes an early SR turn-off issue that occurs due to parasitics present in the SR drain-source voltage sensing loop. Two solutions are proposed, sequential parallel switching (SPS) for rectifiers with paralleled SR switches, and multilevel turn-off gate driving for single SR switch rectifiers. By increasing the SR switch  $R_{DS,on}$  near SR turn-off, the sensed drain-source voltage can be increased, minimizing the effects of the parasitics. This leads to longer SR conduction times, and a more efficient rectifier. Calculations are made to compare the effects of parasitic inductance across switch  $R_{DS,on}$ . Simulations are run to plot rectifier efficiency gains when utilizing sequential parallel switching.

**Chapter V** describes future work-in-progress for the multilevel gate driver, and summarizes the contributions within the course of this thesis.

## CHAPTER 3: CURRENT RESONANCE ISSUE

### 3.1 TI Drain-Source SR Rectifier Board

A drain-source voltage sensed synchronous rectifier board was built based off of the Texas Instruments UCC24610 SR controller. Figure 3.1 shows the assembled board and the major subsystems of the board.

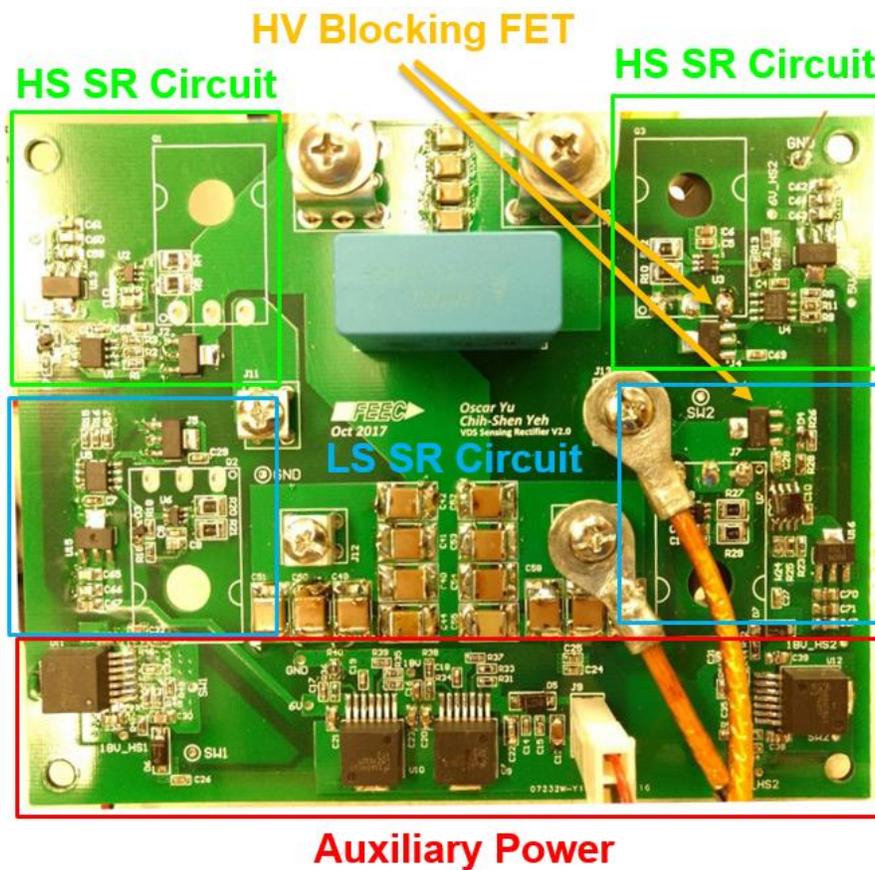


Figure 3.1. Synchronous rectifier board with UCC24610 controller

The major component specifications for this synchronous rectifier board is listed in Table 3.1. A high voltage (HV) blocking FET is used to protect and operate the SR controller at higher voltages than the SR controller is able to withstand per the datasheet.

*Table 3.1. UCC24610 Synchronous Rectifier Board Specifications*

<b>Component</b>	<b>Value/Part</b>
SR FET	Rohm SCT3017
SR Controller	Texas Instruments UCC24610
Gate Driver	Texas Instruments UCC27531
Gate Driver Voltage	18 V
$R_{g(on,off)}$	4.7 $\Omega$
Blocking FET	XR46000 (600 V Rating)
$C_{doubler}$	6.6 $\mu\text{F}$
$C_{bus}$	6.12 $\mu\text{F}$

The SR controller was tuned to eliminate the possibility of shoot-through between the low and high side SR switches. This was achieved with the minimum-on and off time feature of the SR controller. These features blank the controller from responding to erroneously sensed triggers, such as due to current ringing. Figure 3.2 shows a shoot-through case from an incorrectly tuned SR controller. This is undesirable and a dangerous condition, and must be avoided at all costs.

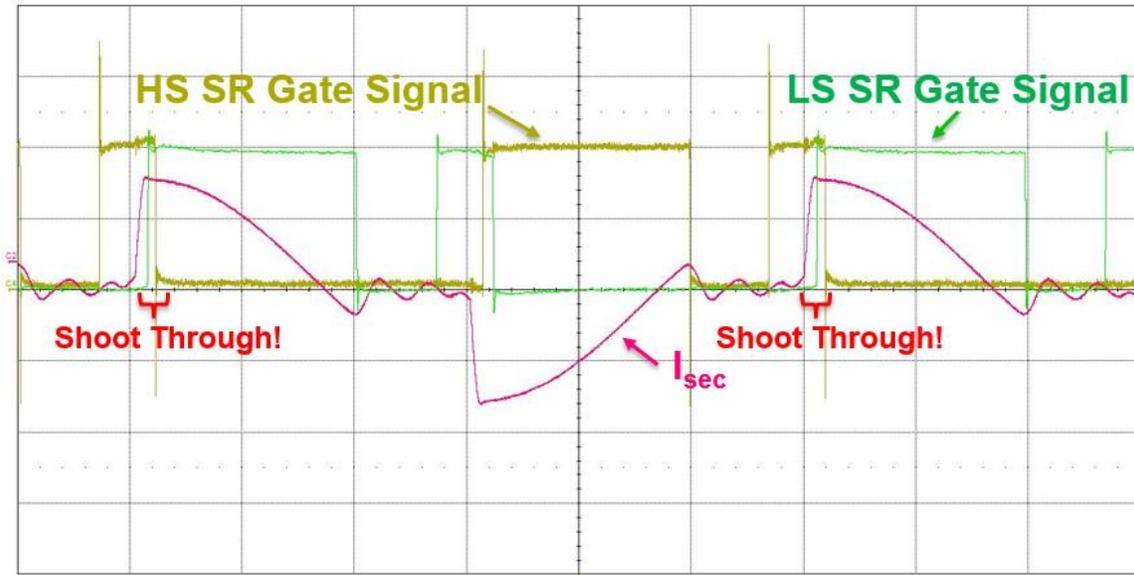


Figure 3.2. SR shoot through from current ringing

An efficiency test was run to compare baseline performance figures between the passive diode doubler rectifier and the TI-based SR board. Figure 3.3 and 3.4 show the efficiency curves tested to maximum rated power. As we can see, above  $\sim 300\text{W}$ , the SR rectifier becomes more efficient. This crossover point can be attributed to light load issues and parasitics which cause early turn-off, both issues which will be explained later.

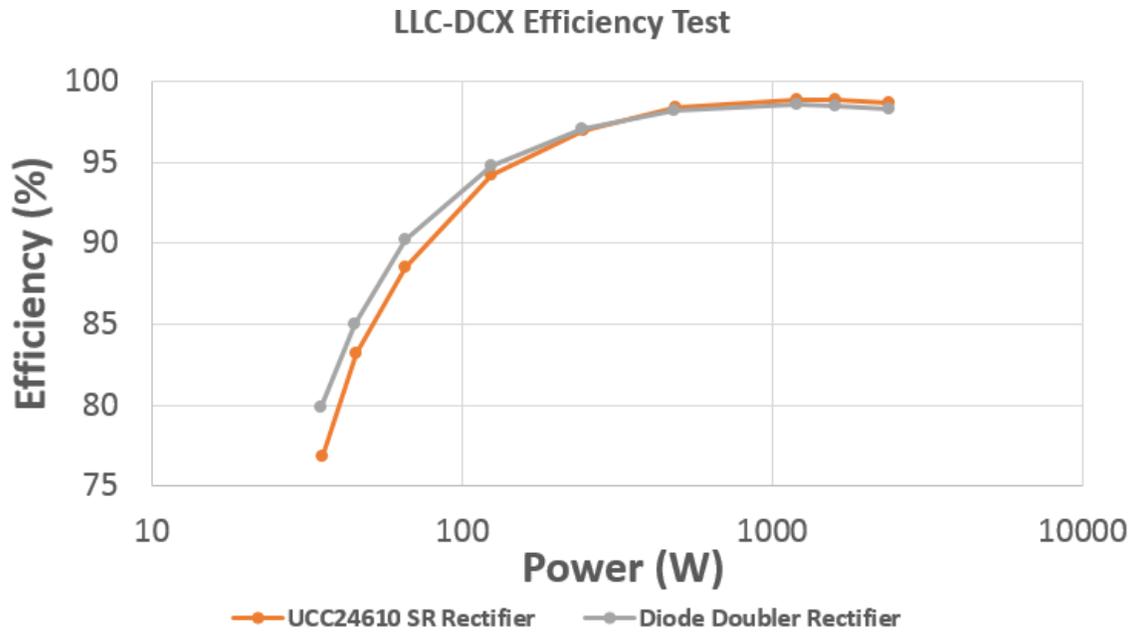


Figure 3.3. LLC-DCX efficiency comparison

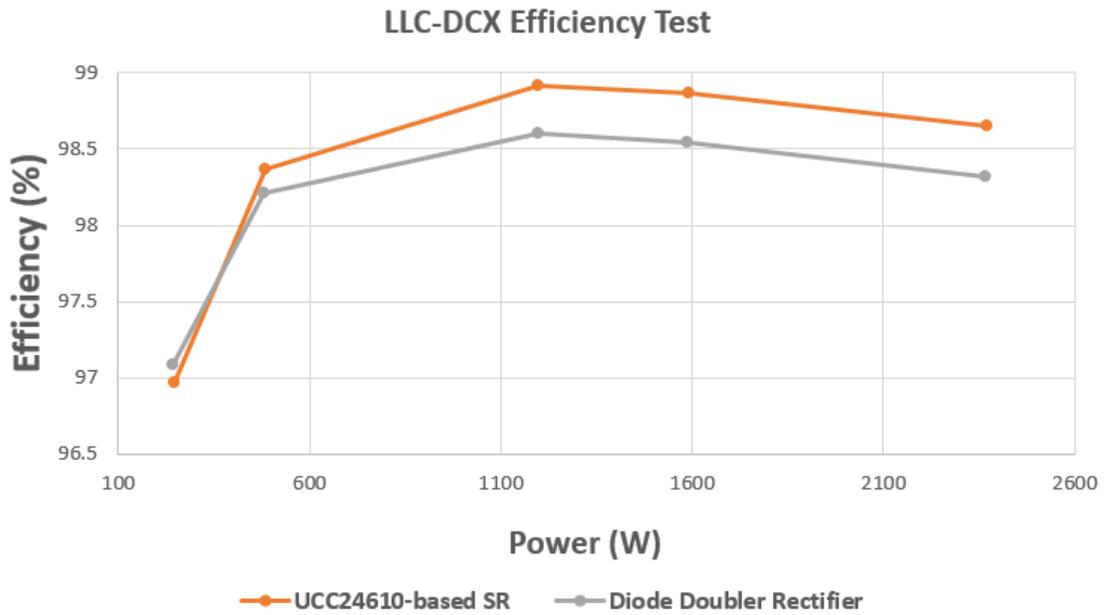


Figure 3.4. LLC-DCX efficiency comparison close up

### 3.2 Current Resonance Issue Overview

During testing, an internal current resonance issue was noted at light load test conditions. The secondary side current rapidly increased and decreased continuously with a consistently repetitive envelope. At higher power levels, the current became stable and the resonance issue disappeared altogether. Figure 3.5 depicts the resonance observed during initial testing of the TI SR board. This instability caused unnecessary current flow throughout the converter, and undesirable output ripple. This section details the issue, diagnosis, and root cause of this issue.

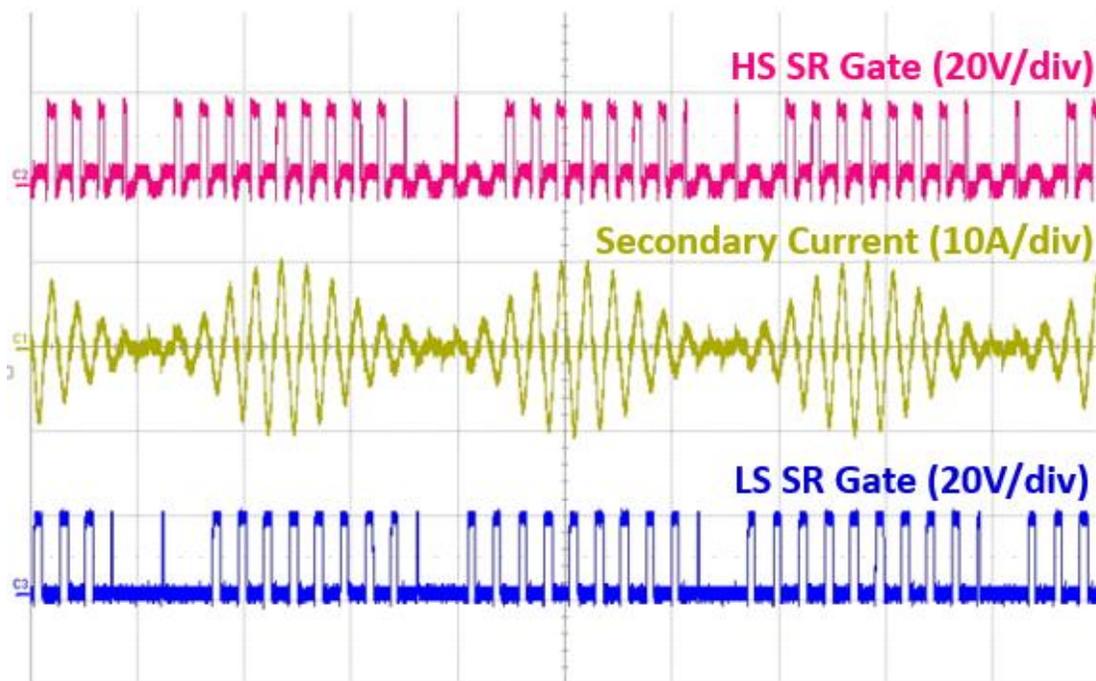


Figure 3.5. SR current resonance at low current conditions

The oscillation can be produced with both an electronic load and passive power resistors. Large output capacitance was added to provide stiffness to the DC bus, which

only slowed the oscillation repetition period, shown in Figure 3.6. This hinted that the oscillation was triggered internally, and was not contributed to by any load-side factors.

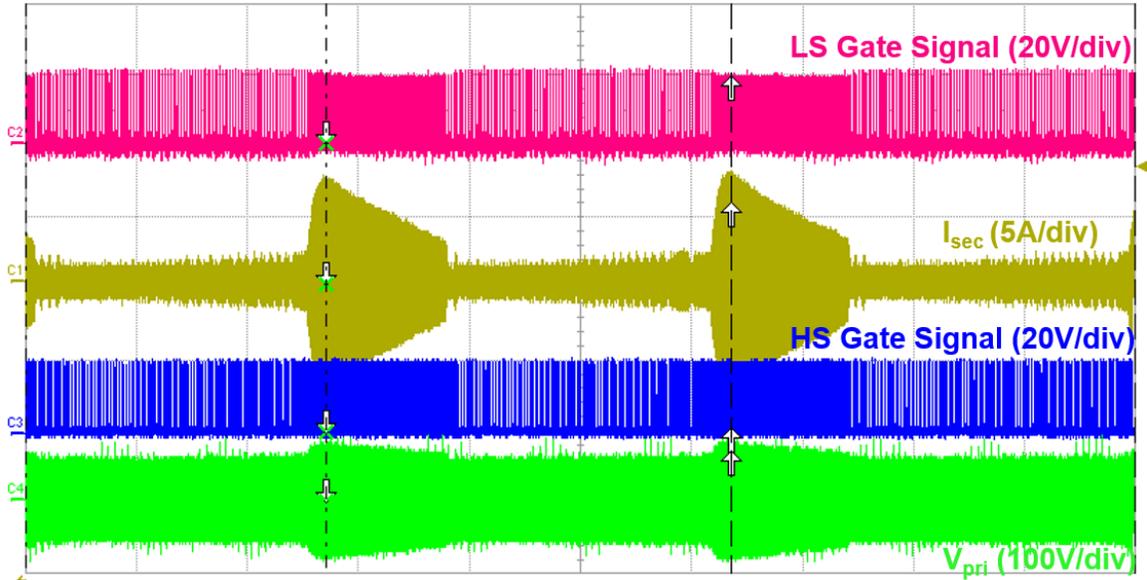


Figure 3.6. SR current resonance with large bus capacitor

From Figure 3.7 and Figure 3.8, we can see that the gate signal density increases at higher currents. This was the first clue – the SR gate signals may be linked to the stability issue. Upon zooming in, we can see what appears to be inconsistent, varying and skipping gate signals, shown in Figure 3.7.

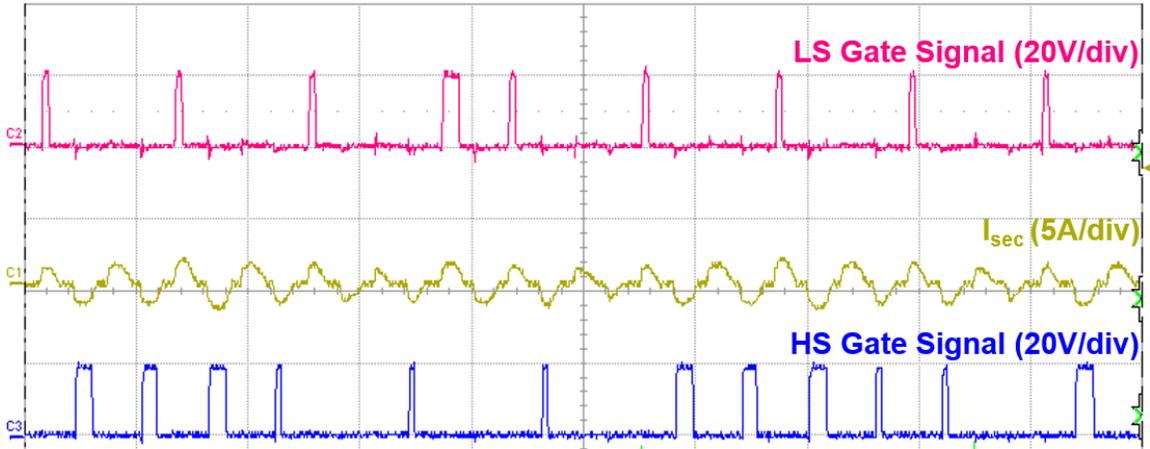


Figure 3.7. Inconsistent SR waveforms

The inconsistent SR issue is prevalent at light load, low current conditions. There was inconsistent turn on of the gate signal, as well as unequal SR gate pulse widths between the high and low side switches. The first attempt at alleviating the resonance was to balance the pulse widths between the low and high side by tuning the minimum on-time for both controllers. Figure 3.8 depicts the waveforms after matching the minimum on-times between low and high side in an effort to balance the rectifier system. However, the resonance issue still remained.

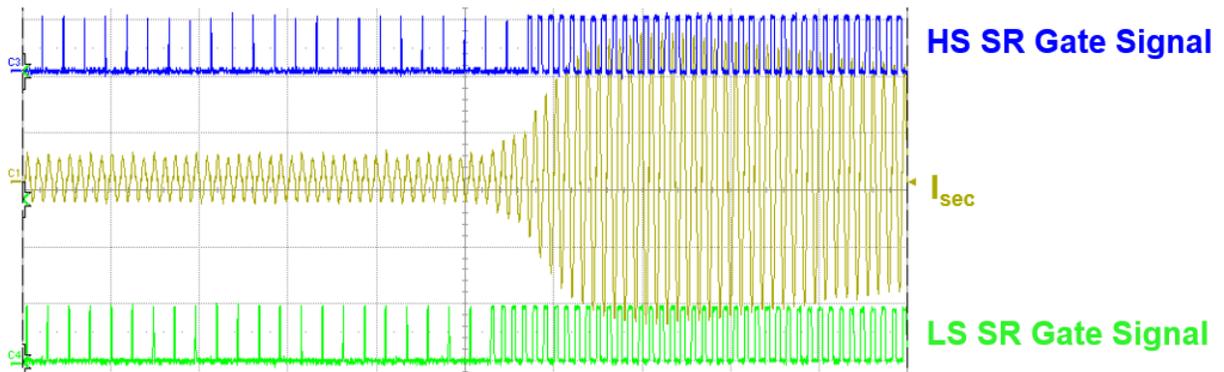


Figure 3.8. SR current resonance triggered by low side gate signals

It was noted that both the low and high side SR controller could start the resonance phenomena. Figure 3.9 shows the resonance initiated by the high side SR gate signal, the opposite of Figure 3.8. Figure 3.9 shows the most balanced case that was observed during bench testing, but the resonance issue still appeared at light loads.

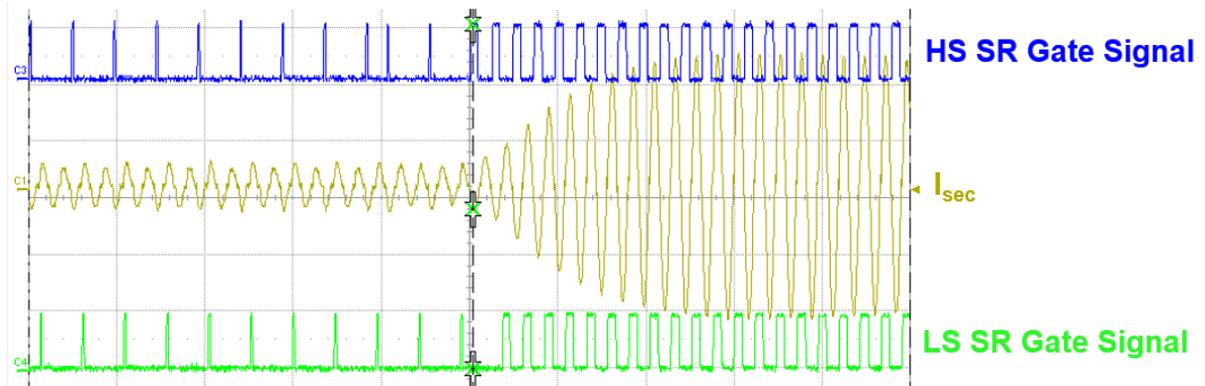


Figure 3.9. SR current resonance with relatively balanced gate signals

Even in this condition, where both gate signals are relatively balanced, resonance remained. The LLC primaries were verified to be hard switching, even during resonance when resonance occurred at low LLC input voltages. This ruled out soft switching in contributing to the source of the resonance. At high input voltages, even with soft switching on the primaries, resonance would appear at light loads.

Closer inspection shows how the resonance begins with a burst of duty cycle, when compared to the previously stable state. The burst in duty cycle causes a cycle-by-cycle increase in current to the load, which increases the duty cycle in the opposite side SR and propagates the current increase. Since duty cycle is a function of current, this would feed the resonance as the SR continues to increase duty cycle each cycle. Measurements were

performed on the duty cycle of the high and low side switches during one of the resonance conditions, shown in Table 3.2.

*Table 3.2. Resonance pulse width measurements*

<b>Resonance Timeframe</b>	<b>Low Side Pulse Width (uS)</b>	<b>High Side Pulse Width (uS)</b>
Pre-resonance (initial, steady state)	3.309	3.260
Middle (current rising)	3.995	4.150
Peak	4.205	4.350
Middle (current falling)	3.795	3.830

As shown, the pulse width steadily increases during the rapid current increase. This is expected, as the SR chip's duty cycle is a function of the SR FET drain current and  $R_{DS,on}$ . This hints that even an erroneous burst of duty cycle due to noise in the drain-source voltage sensing circuit could trigger a cycle-by-cycle increase in current, causing the phenomena shown.

### **3.3 Current Resonance Issue Root Cause**

The cycle-by-cycle current increase was root caused to abrupt increases in SR duty cycle from one cycle to the next. These abrupt jumps cause the LLC-DCX to cyclically increase its current output, which then propagates a current resonance. Figure 3.10 shows a visual depiction of the current resonance root cause. As previously described in Section 3.2, this abrupt jump in SR duty cycle can happen on both the low and high side of the rectifier.

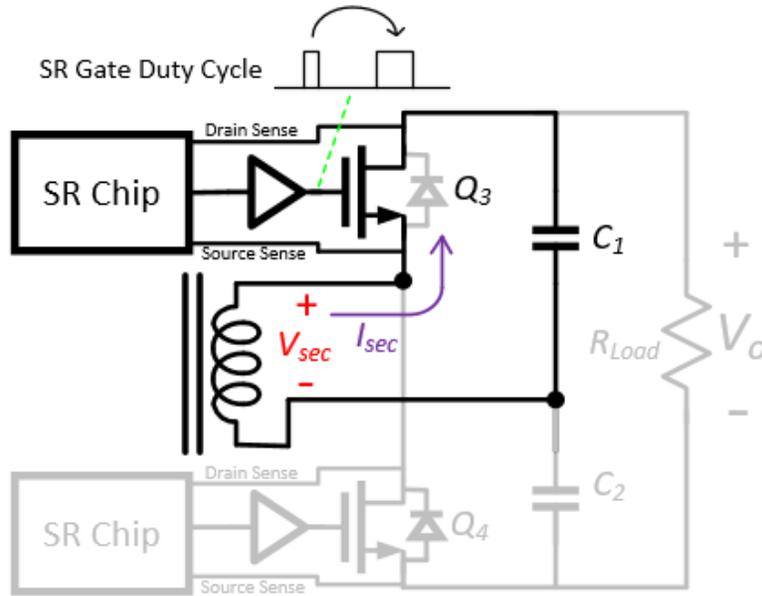


Figure 3.10. SR current resonance root cause

The reason for the abrupt increases in SR duty cycle was traced down to a weak drain-source voltage signal, which is especially susceptible to noise. Light load conditions result in very low secondary side current, which the drain-source voltage sensing SR controller attempts to measure through a shunt resistor, the SR switch's channel resistance. Unfortunately, with low  $R_{DS,on}$  SR switches, the drain-source voltage magnitude near turn-off is reduced since the magnitude is the product of the drain-source current and channel resistance. The effects of this can be seen in Figure 3.11, which plots the ideal SR duty cycle across load at a turn-off voltage level of -5 millivolts across three different SR switches of differing  $R_{DS,on}$ .

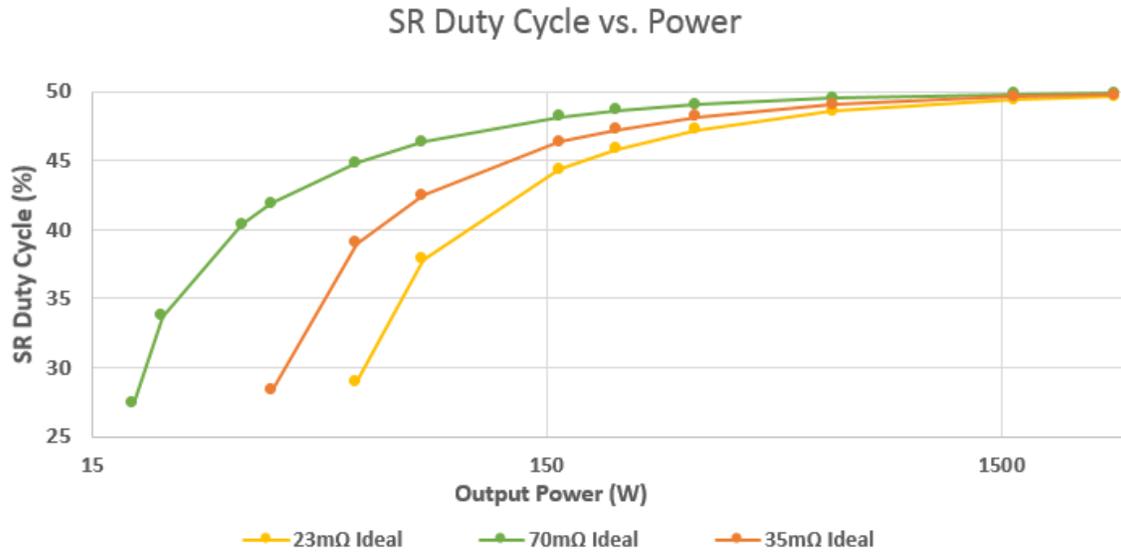


Figure 3.11. Ideal SR duty cycle vs. Load vs. Switch  $R_{DS,on}$

The drain-source voltage of the SR FET can be expressed in the time domain as sinusoid, valid for half of the switching period as shown below [9,13].

$$V_{ds}(t) = -\frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \frac{V_o}{R_L} \right] \sin \left( 2\pi f_s t + \arctan \left( \frac{2\pi f_s L_p}{R_{DS,on}} \right) \right) * |R_{DS,on} + j2\pi f_s L_p|$$

The SR duty cycle would just be the amount of time it takes for equation  $V_{DS}(t)$  to equal the turn-off threshold voltage, divided by the switching period. Ideally, the SR would conduct at nearly 50%, the entire half cycle, across all load levels. If this were the case, the current resonance issue would not appear as there would be no duty cycle fluctuations. However as we can see, higher  $R_{DS,on}$  SR switches have the advantage of longer conduction times across load than the lower  $R_{DS,on}$  switches do. More importantly however, higher  $R_{DS,on}$  switches have less susceptibility to noise since they have less of a change in duty cycle over change in power at light load. This can be seen in Figure 3.12, when the turn-off threshold is perturbed by +/- 2 millivolts.

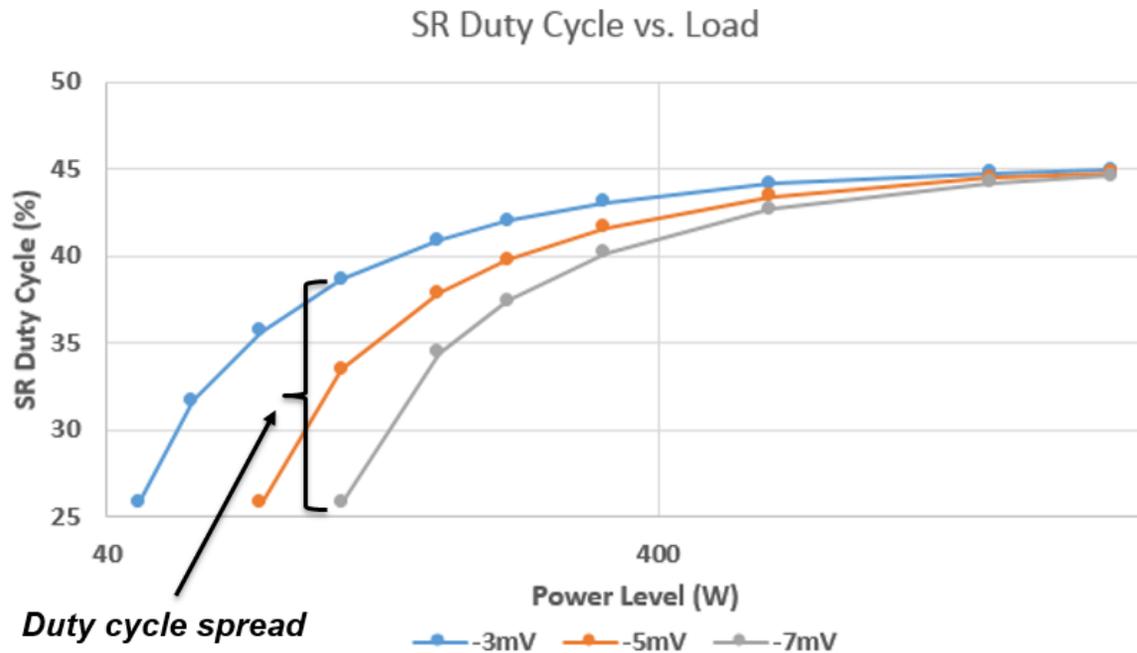


Figure 3.12. SR duty cycle vs. Load vs. Turn-Off Threshold (17mΩ switch)

As we can see, a +/- 2 millivolt turn-off threshold variance can cause a nearly 15% duty cycle spread from one cycle to the next. This is very similar to the abrupt cycle-to-cycle jump in duty cycle we saw in earlier waveforms. Based on the above results, it was concluded that noise and other external factors that can cause a small deviation in the drain-source voltage sensing loop of the SR controller can cause the current resonance issue to occur.

### 3.4 Current Resonance Simulations

With the issue root caused, the next step was to identify which part of the circuit was responsible for the current resonance. This was traced to a change in the resonant tank voltage when the diode drop suddenly disappears, which is a function of the SR duty cycle. The simplest case is to illustrate the issue is with initial SR turn on, where a jump in SR duty is expected. In Figure 3.13, a constant forward drop is expected during rectification

due to the forward drop of the diode. However, with SR is suddenly turned on, as shown in Figure 3.14, the diode voltage drop disappears. This voltage drop is reflected across to the primaries to the resonant tank, which acts like a load transient – causing a large increase in current from the resonant tank to the output. The SR controller feeds this issue, by continuing to increase the SR duty cycle with the increase in current. Once at higher current, where the rate of change in SR duty cycle across power changes less, the converter returns to steady state.

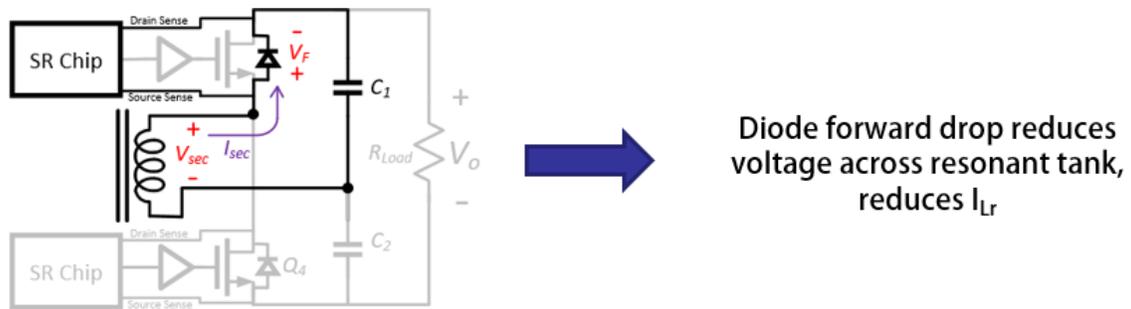


Figure 3.13. Diode drop during diode rectification

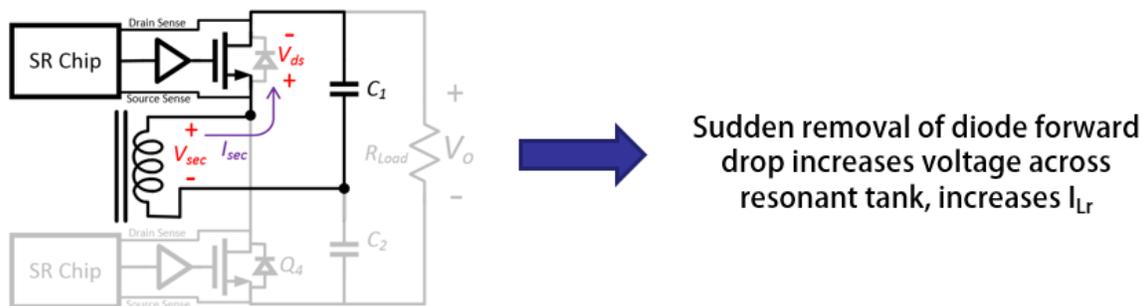


Figure 3.14. Diode drop disappearance during SR

This concept was then proved in simulation. When a large diode drop was used in simulation for the SR switch's parallel diode, it was more prone to developing severe resonance under a large SR duty cycle increase. Removing the diode drop removed the

resonance issue altogether, as there would be no voltage drop change when switching from an ideal SR FET to diode conduction.. This proves that an abrupt change in the secondary side voltages can initiate a current resonance effect in the converter. The LLC-DCX and SR circuit was built in PSIM 11. The circuit simulation schematic is shown in Figure 3.15. The purpose of the saw tooth comparators is to give both low and high side SR rectifier switches different rates of increase, similar to that seen during testing.

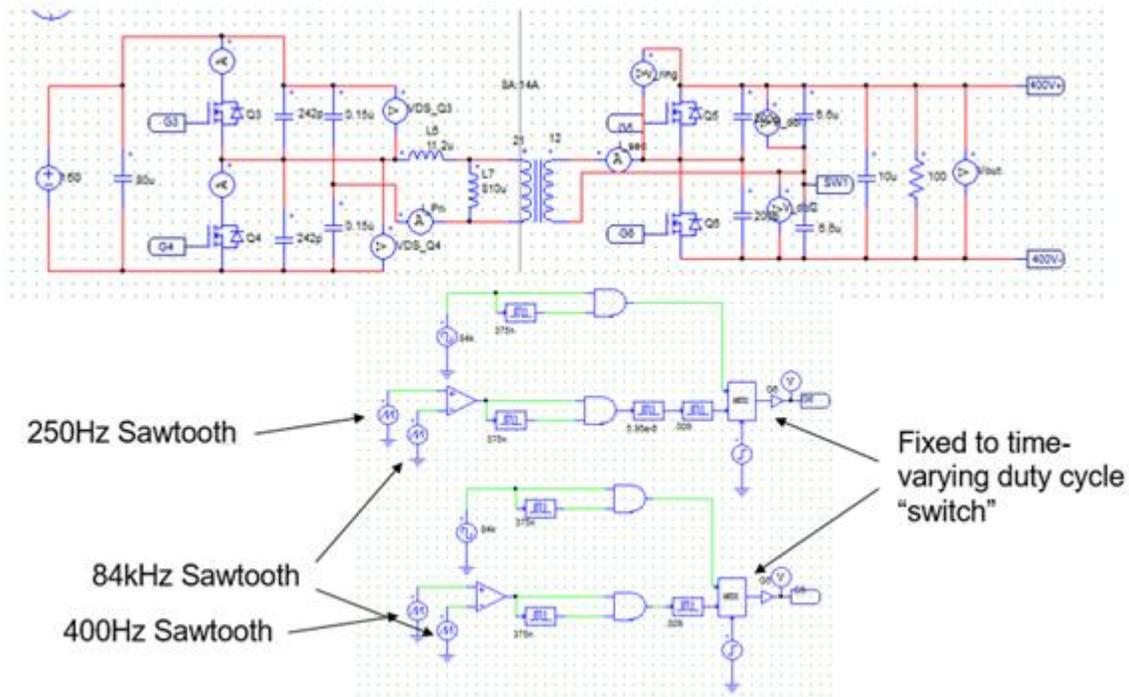


Figure 3.15. Time varying pulse width burst simulation schematic

The SR is run in open loop by the LLC primary switch gating signals at around 10% until 0.01 seconds, where it then switches to a burst of increasing, time varying duty cycle beginning around ~30%. This is similar to the sudden erroneously long pulse width which premeditates the start of resonance in the waveforms we've seen. The time varying portion of the duty cycle is created using a comparator between an 84 kHz saw tooth signal

generator and a slower, 400 Hz and 250 Hz saw tooth signal. The high and low side SR signals are both arbitrarily increasing at different rates to emulate real world differences, though the issue still occurs when both gate signals are increasing at the same rate over time, or even remain at a fixed duty cycle after the mux switches over. The resulting current waveform is shown below in Figures 3.16 and 3.17.

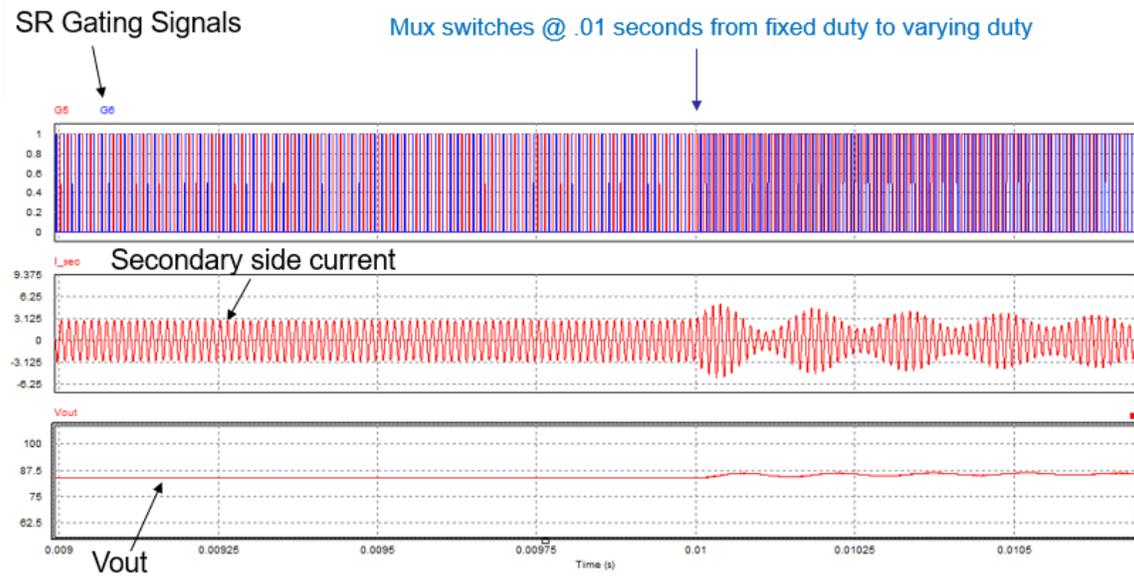


Figure 3.16. Simulated current resonance waveforms with increasing time varying pulse width

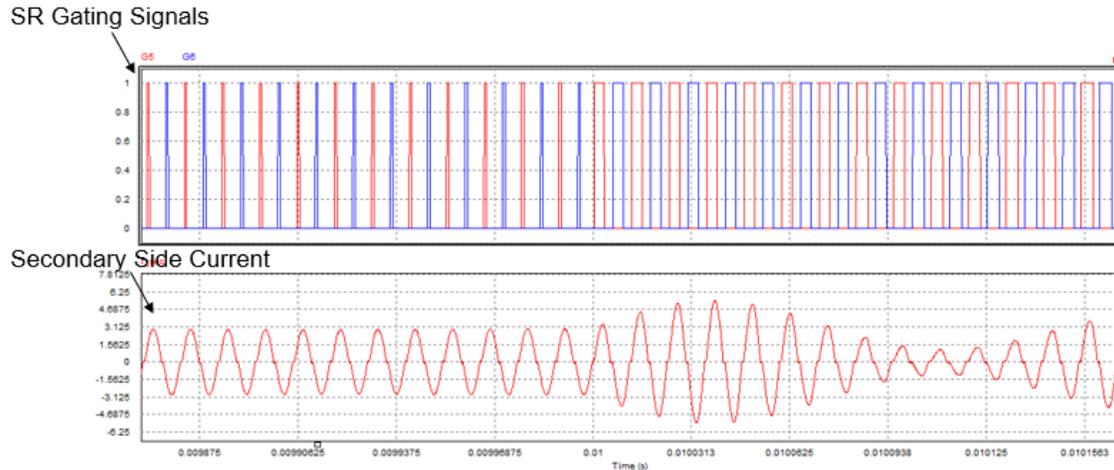


Figure 3.17. Close up of current resonance waveforms with increasing time varying pulse width

As shown above, current oscillations can be produced from steady state operation by a sudden increase in SR duty cycle at  $t=0.1$  seconds. In our rectifier circuit, this would be attributed to noise causing a falsely long SR turn on period during noisy, light load conditions. The increase in duty cycle causes cycle-by-cycle increase in current due to the false load-transient effect. This causes a further increase in SR duty cycle due to the SR pulse width being a function of the current. The increase in resonant tank energy is a cycle-by-cycle phenomena. The cycle-by-cycle increase can be seen in the state trajectory plot in Figure 3.18, which plots the normalized resonant capacitor voltage ( $V_{CrN}$ ) against the normalized resonant inductor current ( $I_{CrN}$ ). The overall diameter of the plot denotes the amount of energy in the resonant tank, which increases and decreases steadily under the resonance phenomena. The smaller circles in the center denote lower energy levels in the tank, and the larger circles the higher peak energy levels. Thus, in order to retain stable and accurate SR function, cycle-by-cycle drain-source voltage sensing of the SR controller must be limited to sampling after the current settles.

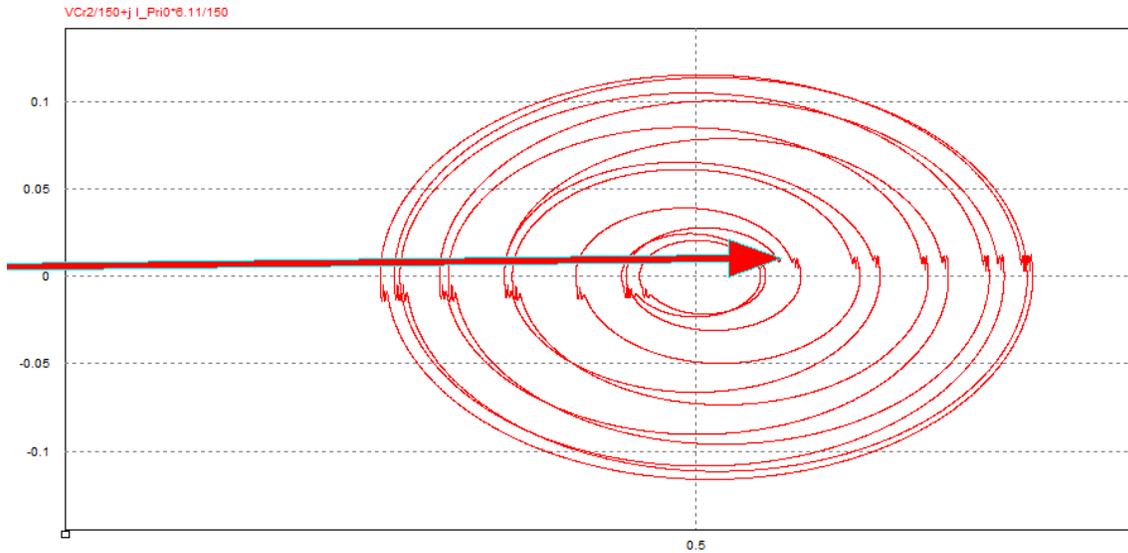


Figure 3.18. State trajectory plot of LLC tank during current resonance

### 3.5 FPGA Duty Cycle Rate Limiting

In this section, methods of achieving stable SR operation is discussed. The root cause of the current resonance can be attributed to inaccurate drain-source voltage readings by the SR controller. Because both chips simply output a duty cycle as a function of current, the SR chips cannot control nor limit the resonance issue. Limiting the resonance can be achieved by reducing pulse widths which “increases” the output rectifier resistance due to longer diode conduction times, turning off SR completely, or limiting the pulse width rate of increase. Turning off the SR completely would effectively achieve the same results as limiting pulse widths, forcing the current through diodes and increasing resistance, preventing the current from increasing. Both methods were simulated in PSIM successfully. This method however, does not solve the initial issue – an abrupt pulse width increase due to noise. The simplest method to achieve stability is to filter this out before it reaches the switch, and thus limit the rate of SR pulse width increase at light loads.

Since filtering the actual drain-source voltage signal was not practical due the small magnitudes of the signals, post processing the SR gate signals output by the SR controller was done instead. An FPGA was selected for use in post processing, as it is the only device fast enough to keep up every cycle. In order to post process both the low and high side SR controller gate signals, an isolator board was designed in order to solve these issues. The signals must be isolated due to different logic levels and the floating ground on the high side. Analog Device’s AdUM226u bidirectional isolator chips were used for both the high and low side isolation. The board layout is shown below in Figure 3.19.

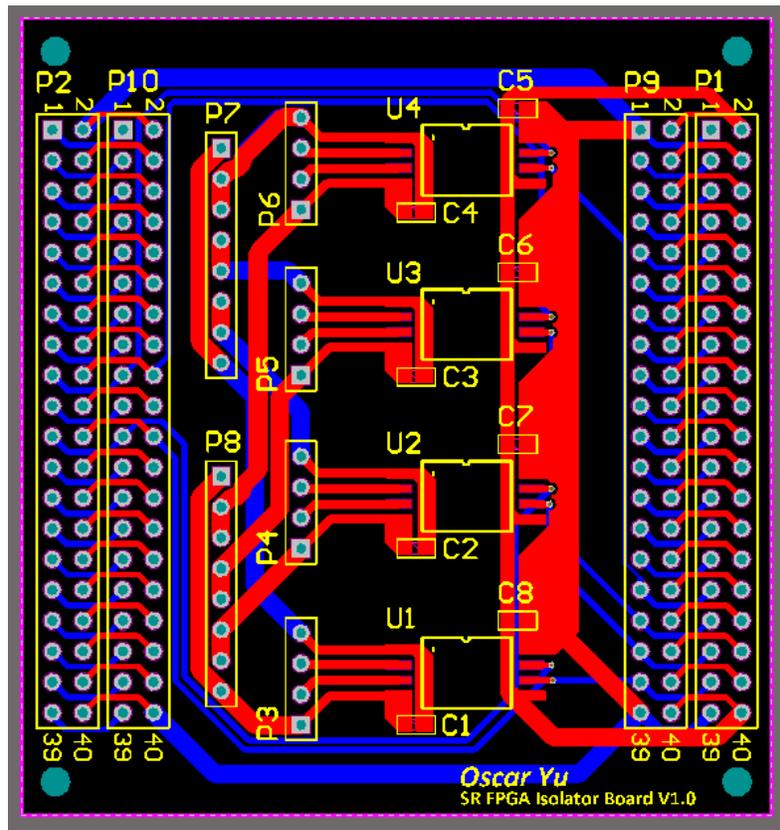


Figure 3.19. FPGA isolator board using AdUM226u isolator chips

The rate limiting was implemented by connecting the isolator board between the SR chip and gate driver to provide post processing for both the high and low side, as shown

in Figure 3.20. The board is physically connected between the SR chip and gate driver by way of cutting traces and jumper wires on the original SR rectifier board. The resulting test setup is shown in Figure 3.21.

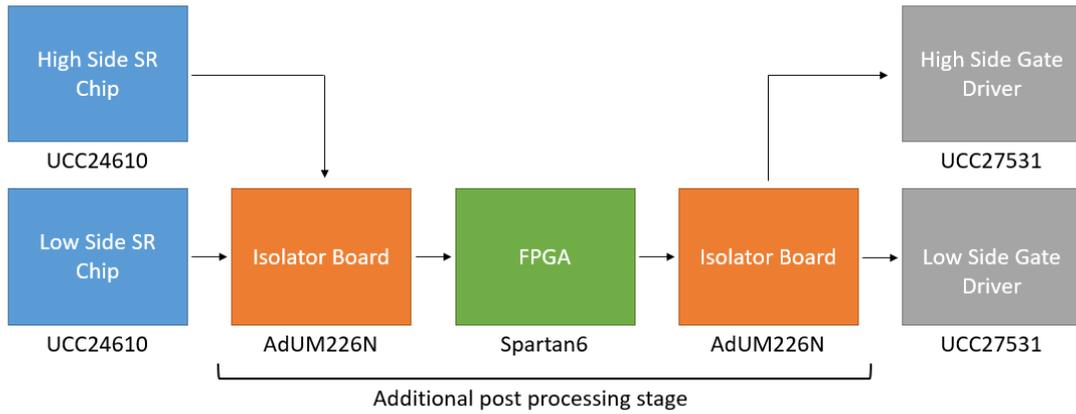


Figure 3.20. FPGA system for post processing

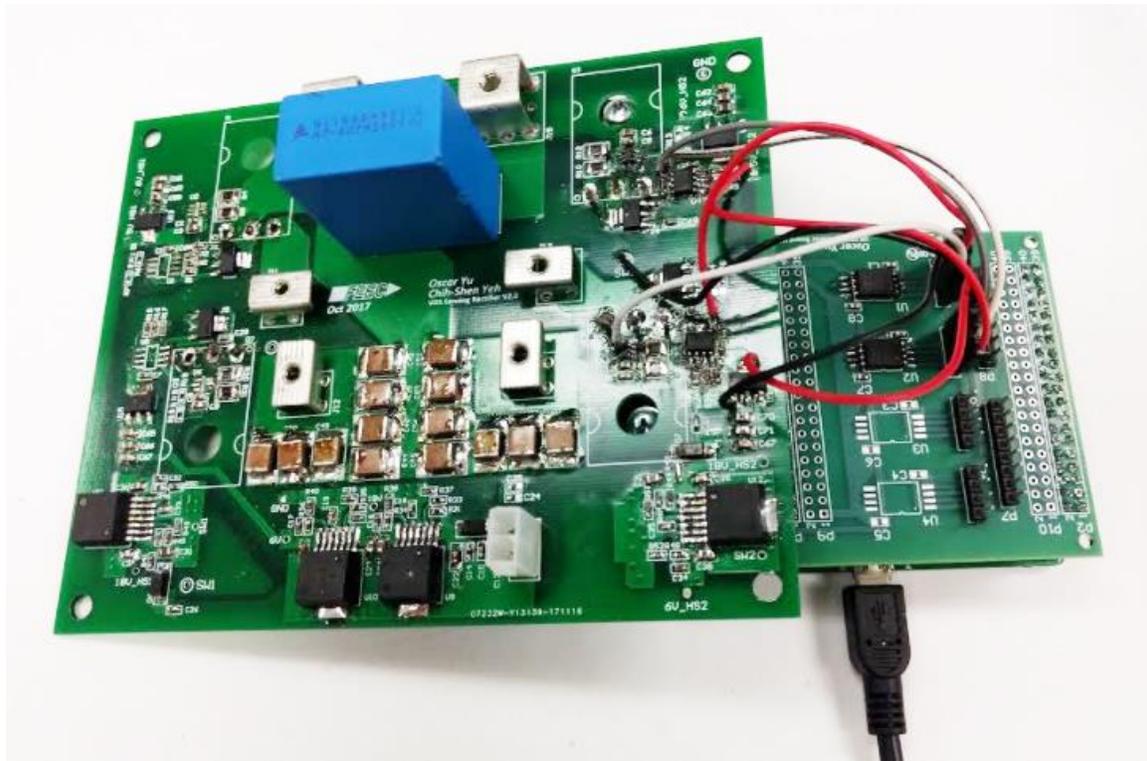


Figure 3.21. FPGA connected to SR board

The post processing stage is designed to reject pulse width jitter from the SR ship under noisy light load conditions. This is achieved by averaging hundreds of cycles of pulse widths output by the SR controller. The SR controller's gate signal rising edge is passed through the FPGA to the gate driver, and the falling edge limited in the FPGA over time. The duty cycle rate of increase is limited by the FPGA at around  $\sim 1\%$  per 10 milliseconds. Thus, the FPGA does two important tasks: first, it defeats cycle-by-cycle control by slowing down the SR  $d\tau/dt$ . Second, it rejects any steady state jitter from light load conditions. The code is not repeated in the thesis, but a simplified flowchart of the algorithm is shown in Figure 3.22.

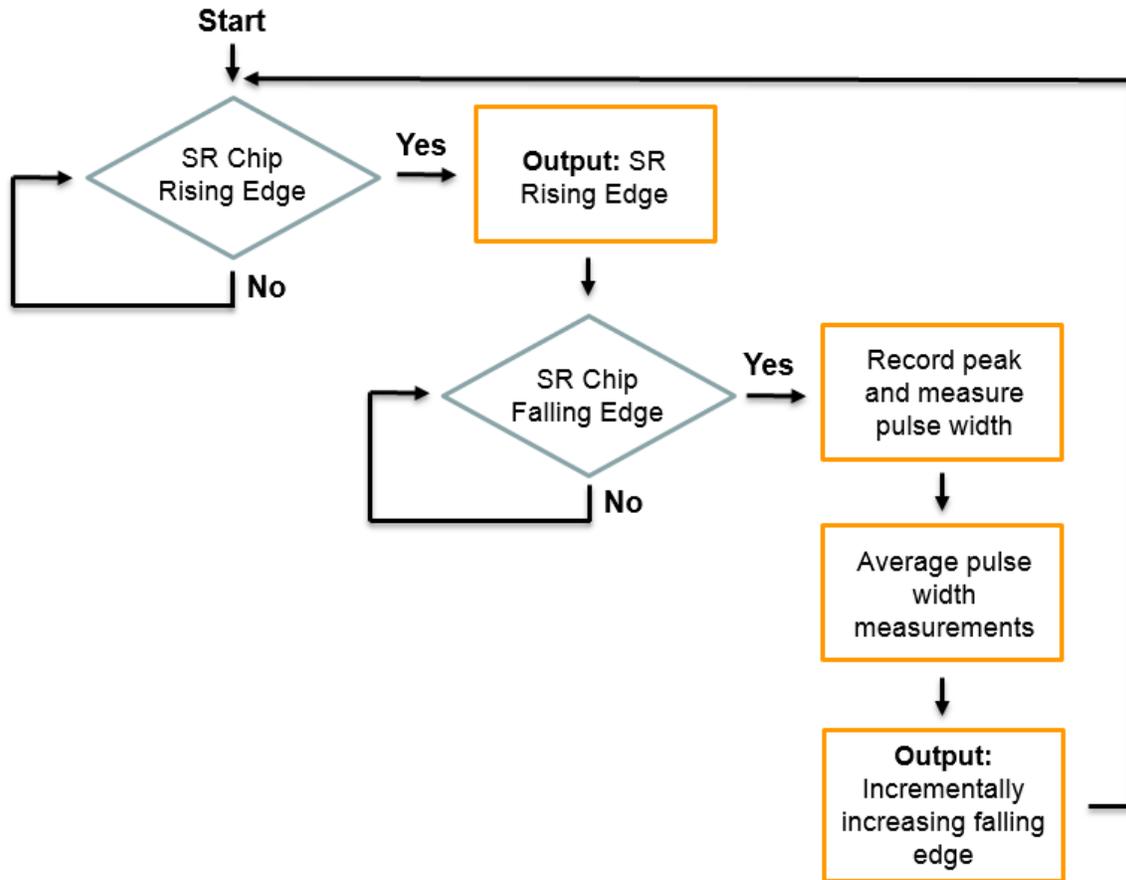


Figure 3.22. Simplified flow diagram for FPGA duty cycle rate limiter

The duty cycle rate limiting is achieved by means of clock dividing the main FPGA clock frequency (100 MHz) to a lower frequency to run a counter, which limits the falling edge rate. Jitter and noise immunity is achieved by measuring and outputting the maximum pulse width detected in the previous cycles. Unfortunately, it was found during testing that the FPGA interfered with the SR chip's ability to detect turn off and it resulted to a constant output to the minimum on-time set by the user, since the FPGA reprocessed the gate signal. However, the stability was still able to be verified since the rising edge is output by the SR controller.

### 3.6 Test Results

Test results show that duty cycle rate limiting massively improved both steady state and transient stability. Figure 3.23 shows the steady state resonant issue with no duty cycle rate limiting implemented, and Figure 3.24 with limiting implemented.

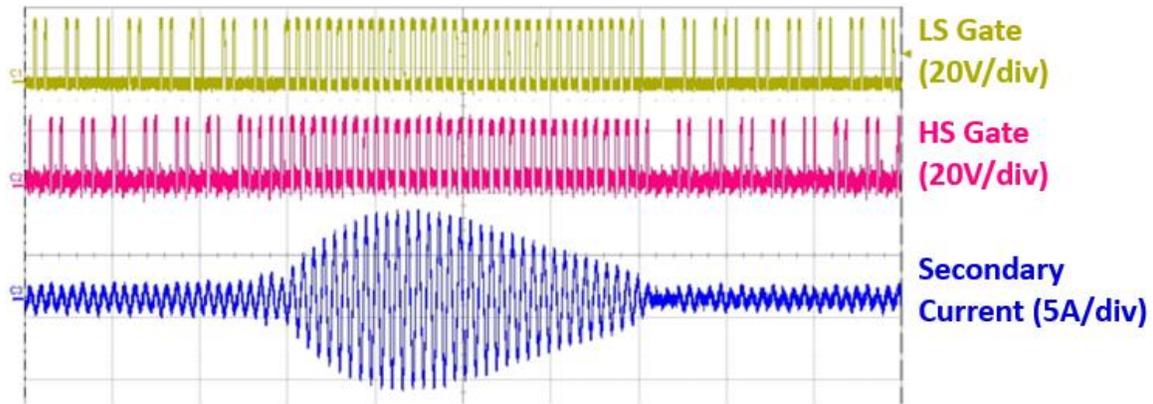


Figure 3.23. Resonance issue with no duty cycle rate limiting

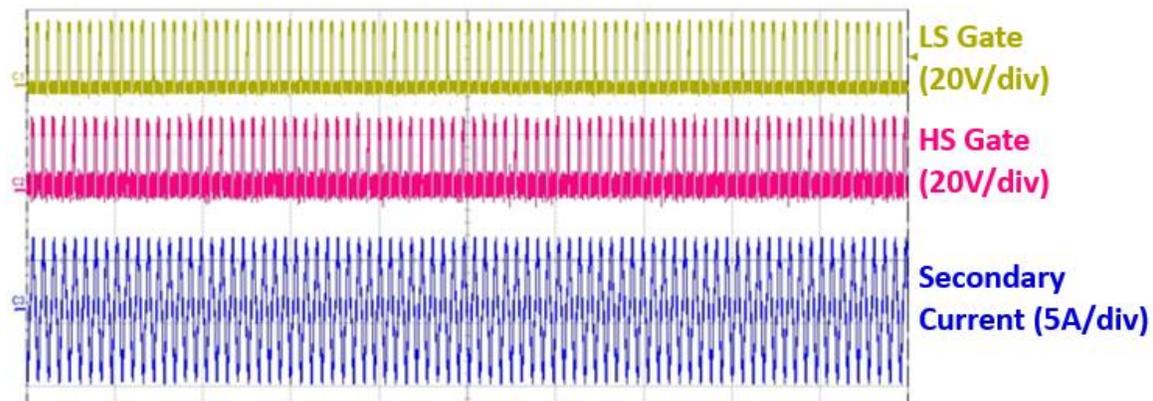


Figure 3.24. Stable current waveform with duty cycle rate limiting

As we can see, duty cycle rate limiting removes the current resonance issue altogether. Furthermore, SR turn-on detection is much more consistent with duty cycle rate

limiting implemented. The FPGA duty cycle rate limiter proved successful in proving that the current resonance was due to the abrupt changes in SR duty cycle from cycle to cycle.

## CHAPTER 4 EARLY TURN-OFF ISSUE

### 4.1 Early Turn-Off Issue Overview

This section details the design and analysis of two SR techniques to extend conduction time and reduce the effects of early SR turn off. Early SR turn-off happens predominantly from two reasons: 1) when using low  $R_{DS,on}$  FETs and 2) parasitic inductance in the drain-source SR sense path. The drain source signal is much weaker when low  $R_{DS,on}$  FETs are used, and reduces the duty cycle over load as shown previously in Figure 3.11 and 3.12. However, those figures assume ideal conditions with no parasitics. The predominant factor is the parasitic inductance present in the drain-source sensing path, as shown in Figure 4.1. This causes an error voltage to be induced during current flow, and causes an erroneous drain-source voltage reading, leading to earlier-than-desired SR turn off [9-12].

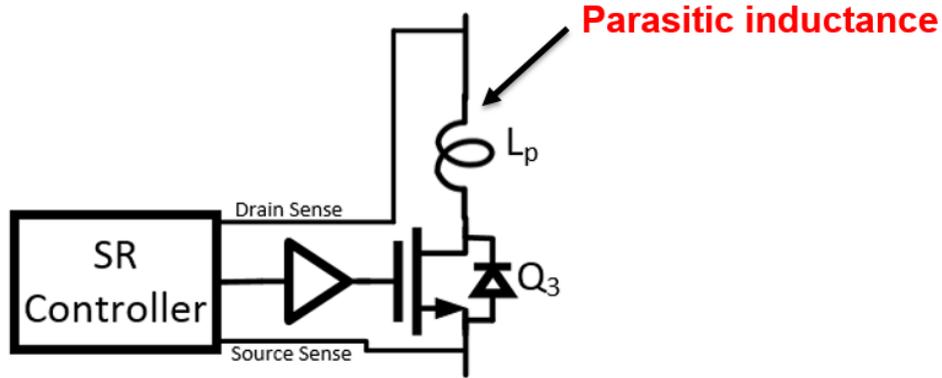


Figure 4.1. Parasitic inductance in drain-source SR sense path

The result of these turn-off issues is shown in Figure 3.2, where the SR FET used (Rohm SCT3017) turns off much earlier than desired. This results in increased switching and conduction loss, as current is redirected through the much lossier parallel diode. An SR FET switched ideally would experience no switching loss, as turn-on and turn-off conditions would both be near zero current.

Since the phase shift in the sensed drain-source voltage is a function of the parasitic inductance  $L_p$  and SR FET  $R_{DS,on}$ , the impact of the parasitic inductance can be minimized with greater SR FET  $R_{DS,on}$  as we can see from the equation below [9,13]. Thus, the sensed voltage can be varied if the channel resistance can be dynamically modulated.

$$V_{ds,sensed}(t) = -\frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \frac{V_o}{R_L} \right] \sin \left( 2\pi f_s t + \arctan \left( \frac{2\pi f_s L_p}{R_{DS,on}} \right) \right) * |R_{DS,on} + j2\pi f_s L_p|$$

## 4.2 Sequential Parallel Switching Introduction

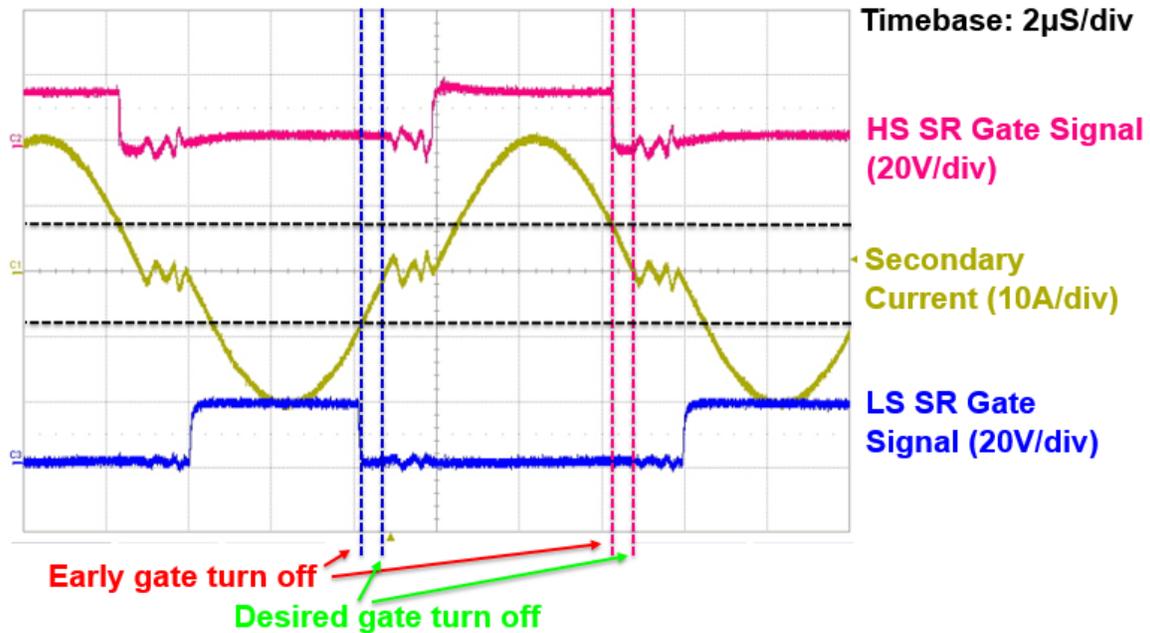


Figure 4.2. Early SR turn off waveforms with 17mΩ  $R_{DS,on}$  FETs

Higher  $R_{DS,on}$  FETs benefit from the increased conduction time at the expense of greater channel conduction loss, as shown previously in Figure 3.11 and 3.12. This can be seen in Figure 4.3, where the turn off almost perfectly coincides with the secondary current zero crossing. Cree CMF10120 silicon carbide MOSFETs were used in the test setup, which have a  $R_{DS,on}$  of 120mΩ, around seven times greater than the Rohm SCT3017 (17mΩ FETs).

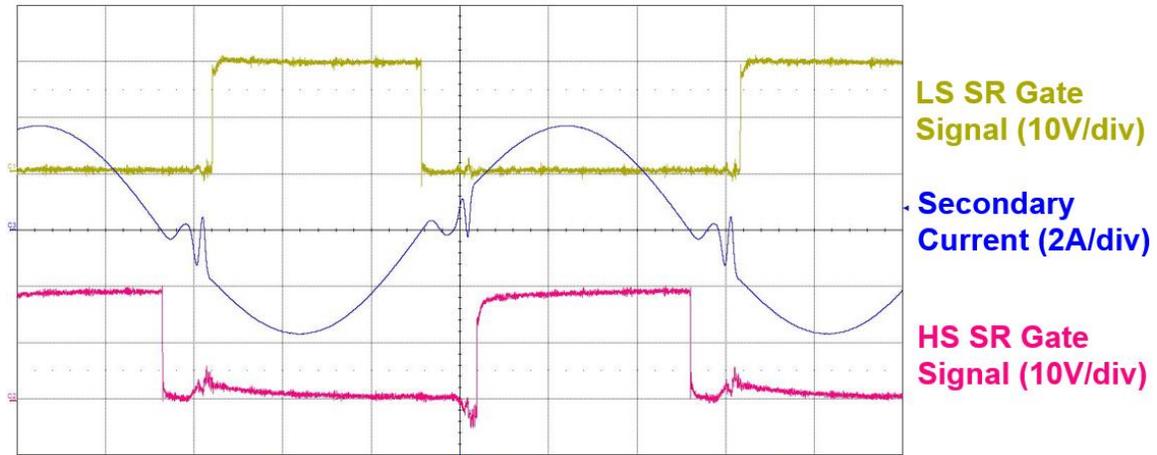


Figure 4.3. Near ideal SR turn off with higher  $R_{DS,on}$  FETs

Since the internal turn off reference of the SR chip is not adjustable, the only board level methods of alleviating this issue is to increase the drain-source signal strength going to the SR controller. One variable we can play with is the SR FET's  $R_{DS,on}$ . Ideally, we want low conduction loss (low  $R_{DS,on}$ ) for the majority of the conduction period, and higher  $R_{DS,on}$  near turn-off to increase SR conduction time and maximize SR efficiency. This led to the development of sequential parallel switching (SPS) for multiple parallel SR switches and multilevel gate driver turn-off for single SR switches (Section 4.7).

### 4.3 Sequential Parallel Switching Simulations and Analysis

The goal of sequential parallel switching is to minimize conduction loss from early SR turn-off and maximize total SR conduction time. When the SR FET turns off prematurely, losses are incurred as the current is redirected through the parallel diode. In SR rectifiers where multiple switches are used in parallel, the switches can be turned off sequentially to boost the drain-source voltage magnitude near turn-off. This heightened  $V_{DS}$  signal near turn-off will allow the SR controller to turn off closer to zero current. A

PSIM model is built and simulated to demonstrate the  $V_{DS}$  boost as well. A  $17\text{m}\Omega$  FET is used in parallel with a  $100\text{m}\Omega$  FET. A theoretical turn off threshold is shown, to demonstrate the point in which the primary SR FET turns off. Figure 4.4 shows the PSIM simulation schematic, and Figure 4.5 the resulting waveforms.

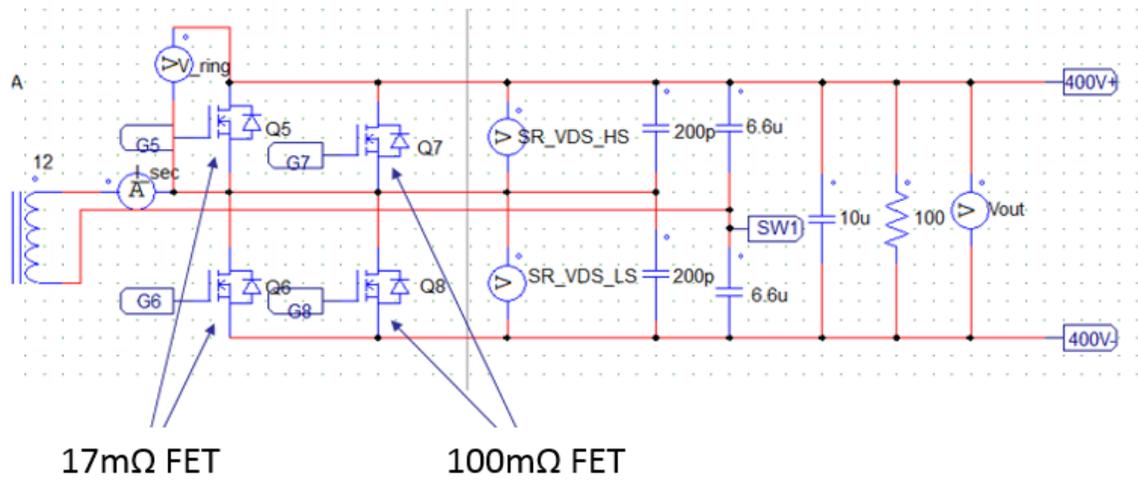


Figure 4.4. PSIM schematic of selective parallel switching simulation

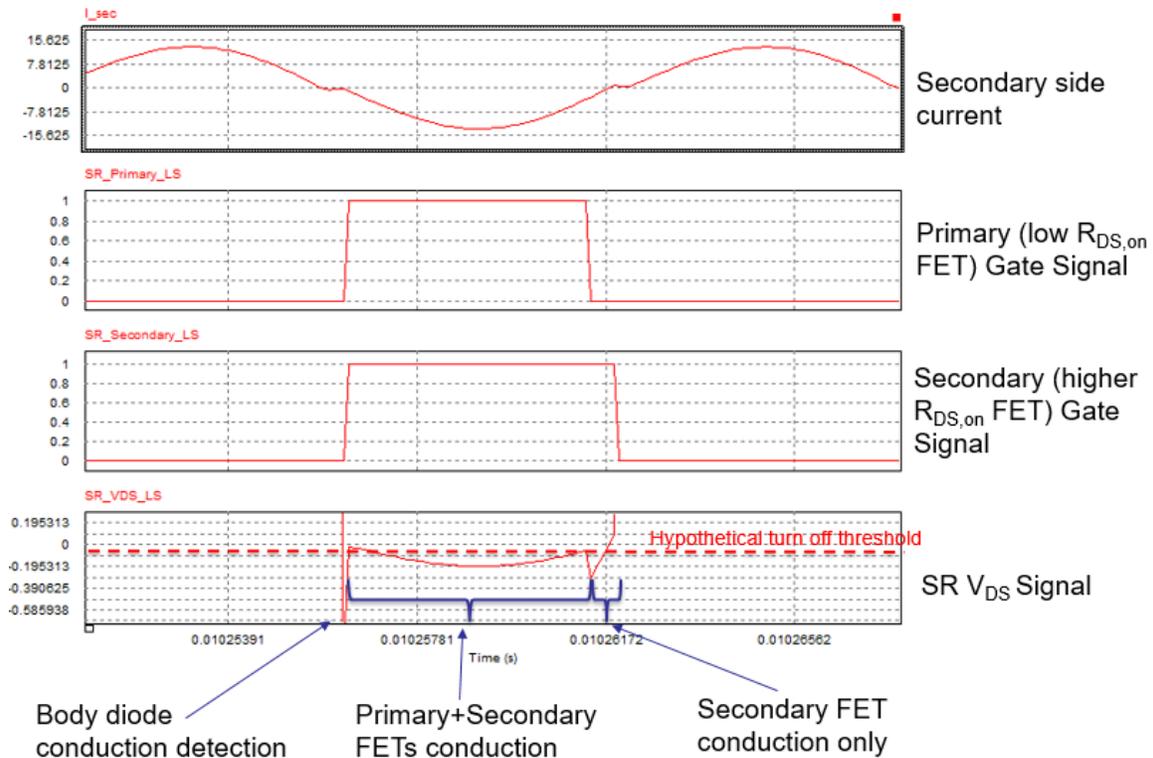


Figure 4.5. PSIM simulation waveforms of sequential parallel switching

As shown above in Figure 4.5, the “secondary” SR FET extends conduction time by boosting the drain-source SR voltage signal above the turn-off threshold. Unlike batch turn-off, shown by the schematic in Figure 4.6, sequential turn-off can effectively boost the SR switch  $R_{DS,on}$ , near the end of conduction which will minimize the effects of the parasitic inductance and extend conduction time.

The effects of parasitic inductance can be seen in Figure 4.7, where calculations were made to compare the effects of 10nH of parasitic inductance on SR duty cycle across load. The ideal condition assumed no parasitic inductance. As we can see, parasitic inductance has a greater effect on the SR duty cycle for lower- $R_{DS,on}$  SR switches, and gets progressively worse with power. Sequential parallel switching reaps the benefits of low SR

conduction loss while all switches are conducting, then selectively switches off one or more SR switches to reap the benefits of extended conduction time of higher  $R_{DS,on}$  switches.

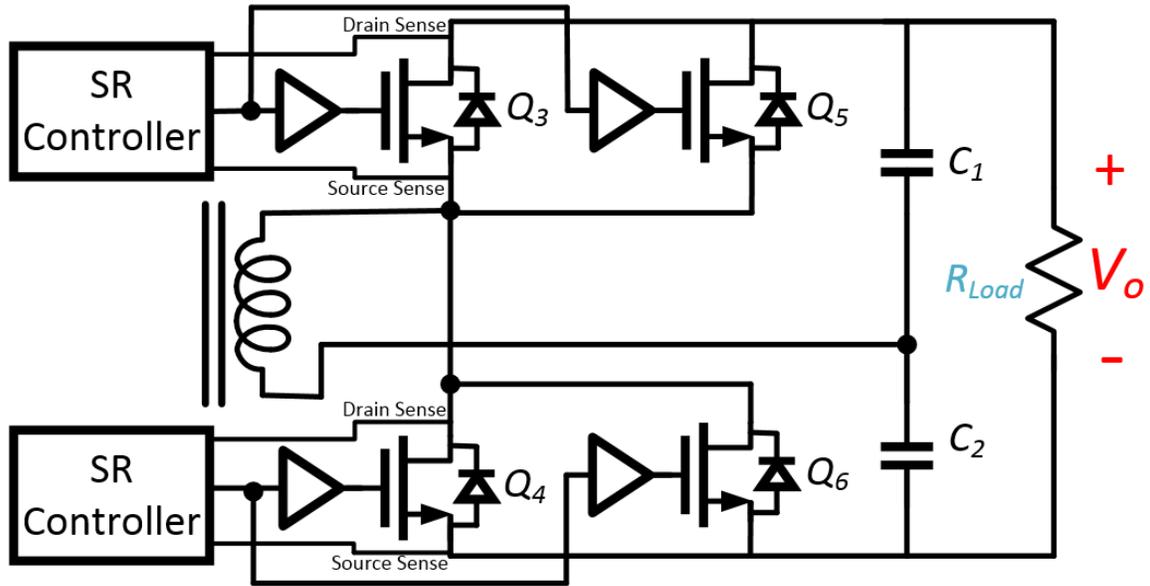


Figure 4.6. SR rectifier with paralleled SR switches for batch turn-off

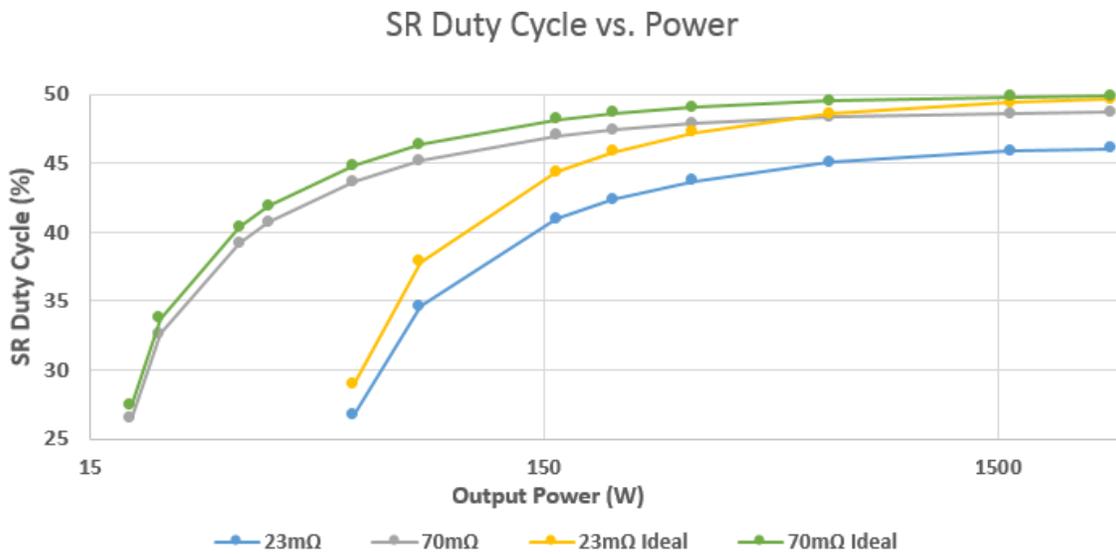


Figure 4.7. Parasitic inductance effect on SR duty cycle across load

## 4.4 Implementation Methods

This section details methods of implementation for the parallel-switch sequential parallel switching technique explained in prior sections. There are two main types of drain-source voltage sensed SR controllers: ones with adjustable turn-off voltage threshold, and ones without. For ones without, such as the Texas Instruments UCC24610 drain-source SR controller, the SPS effect can be achieved with minimum on-time control. Since there are two separate SR controllers, one controller can be “blanked” to ignore the other controllers’ turn-off by setting the minimum on time greater than that of the first controller’s total conduction period.

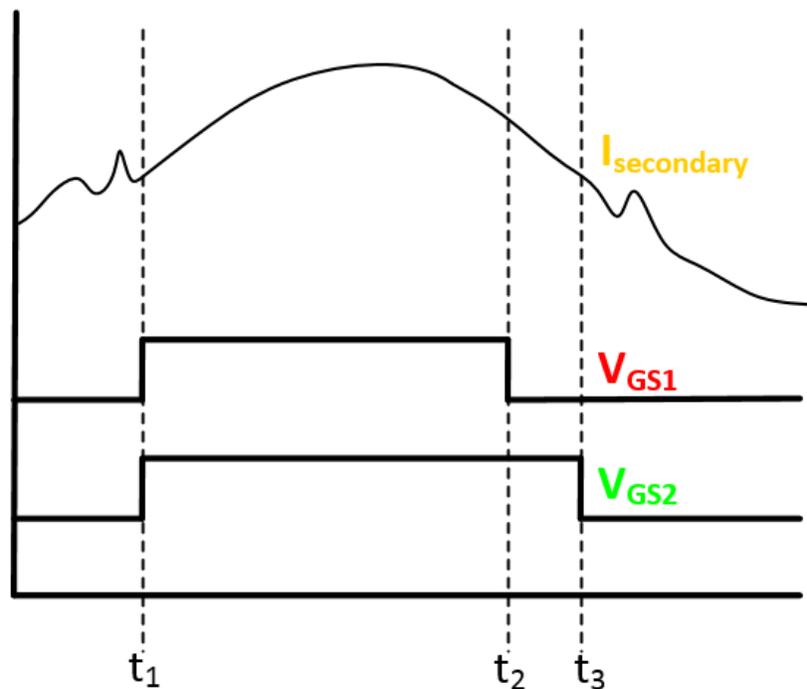


Figure 4.8. SPS functional waveforms

For example, in Figure 4.8, both SR controllers will detect and trigger SR turn-on on diode detection at  $t_1$ . The minimum on-time of one SR controller will be set to a

period less than that of drain-source voltage sensed batch turn off,  $t_2$ . The second SR controller will be set to a minimum-on time greater than that of the total conduction period of the first controller, a minimum-on time greater than  $t_2$  but less than  $t_3$ . A minimum-on time greater or equal to  $t_3$  would not allow for the SR controller to correctly sense turn-off. This method faces one main issue – the dynamics in current waveforms as the load changes. Thus, this method is only practical for implementation on systems with a relatively fixed load. SR controllers with adjustable turn-off voltage thresholds offer greater flexibility, as described below.

For controllers with adjustable turn-off voltage thresholds, like the ON Semiconductor NCP4303 SR controller, SPS is very simple to implement across load. The turn-off voltage for one controller is set lower than the other controller. The end result can be seen in Figure 4.9. Since the turn-off thresholds are adjustable, the resolution in which the first and second controller turn-off the gate signal can be finely adjusted. This allows for maximum conduction time with all switches on before shutting others off, maximizing SR efficiency.

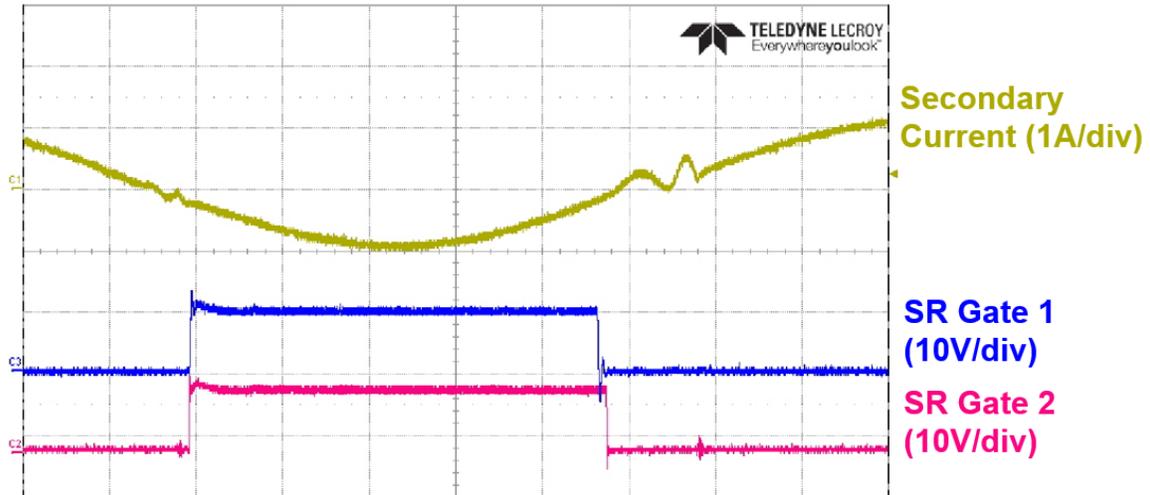


Figure 4.9. SPS waveforms with NCP4303

#### 4.5 Test Results

This section details the test results gathered when implementing sequential parallel switching with drain-source voltage sensed SR. By sequentially turning off the SR FETs, the drain-source voltage near the turn-off can be boosted. This will in turn extend conduction time, as we can see in Figure 4.10. Even with this slightly higher  $R_{DS,on}$ , there is a net increase in rectifier efficiency since the parallel-diode loss still greatly outweighs the slight increase in channel loss.

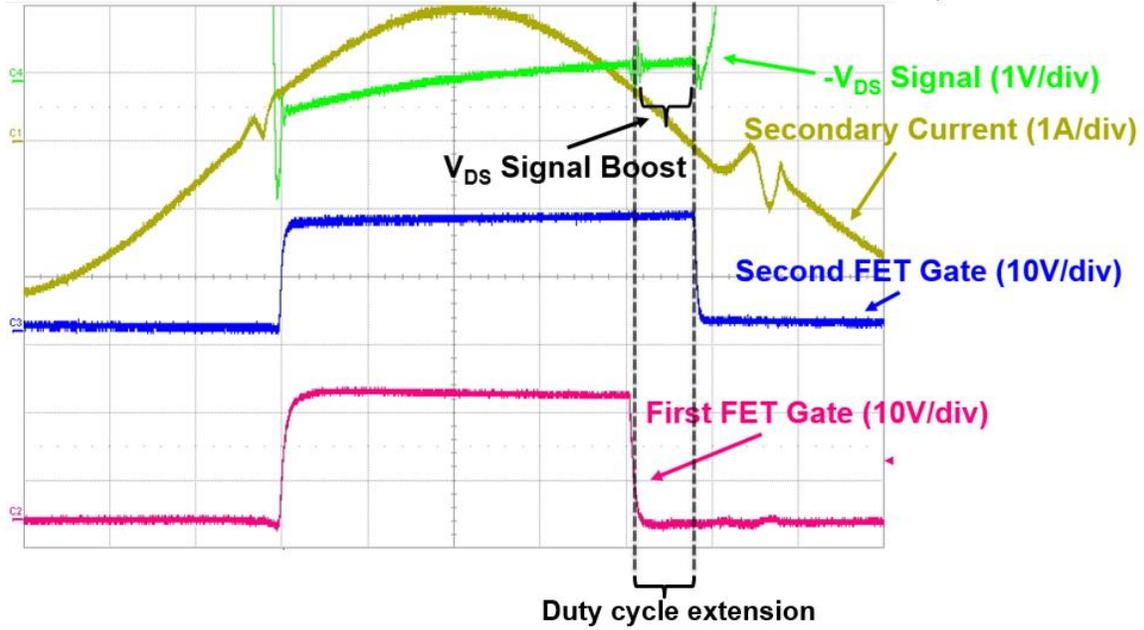


Figure 4.10. Sequential parallel switching with two paralleled SiC switches

The SPS prototype in Figure 4.6 was built with two parallel silicon carbide (SiC) switches, a Rohm SCT3017 ( $17\text{m}\Omega R_{DS,on}$ ) and a Cree CMF20120D ( $80\text{m}\Omega R_{DS,on}$ ) switch. Each switch has its own SR controller, allowing each switch to be independently turned off. The Rohm switch is turned off before the Cree switch, which greatly boosts the effective  $R_{DS,on}$ . As we can see, this brings the SR turn-off point much closer to the zero current crossing point, reducing the effects of the parasitic inductance  $L_p$ .

This concept can be extended to switches in greater number than two as well. A Gallium Nitride (GaN) prototype was built with three parallel switches as a proof of concept, as shown in Figure 4.11.

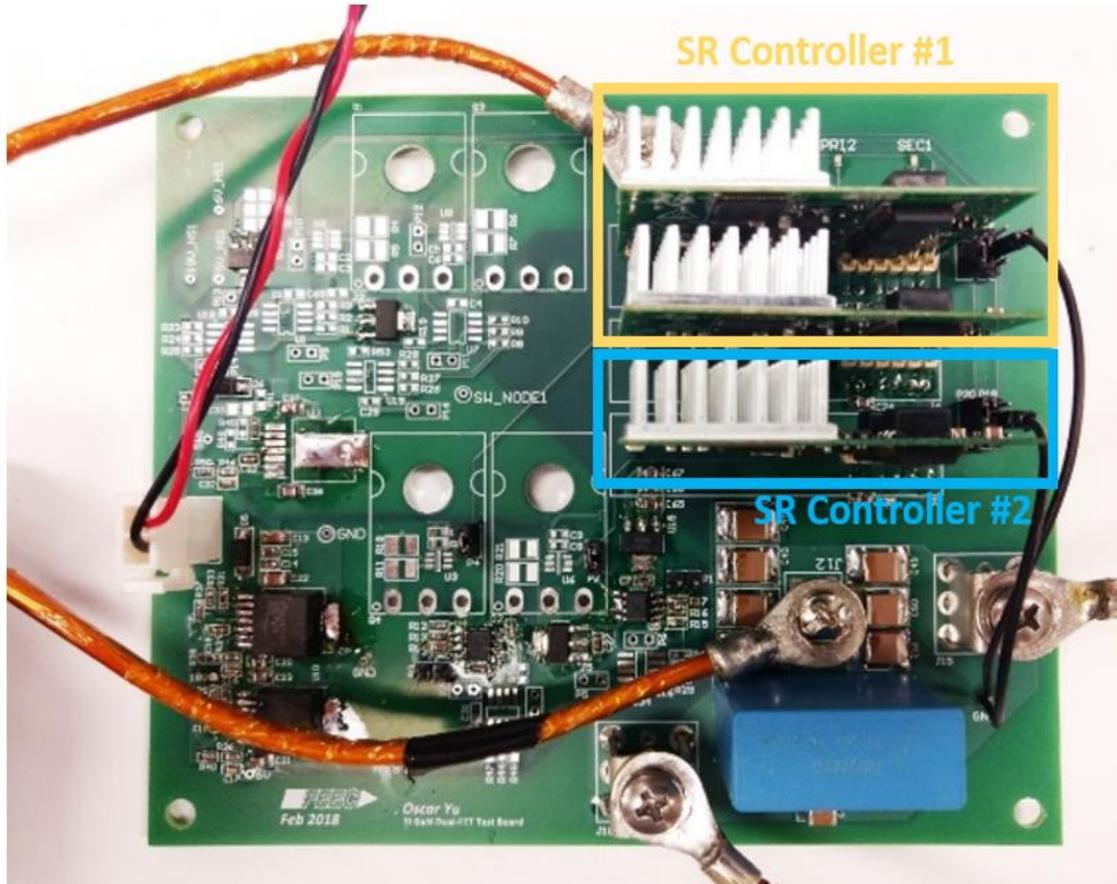


Figure 4.11. TI GaN SPS test board with three LMG3410-EVM modules

SPS is implemented only on the low side, for stability. Two TI UCC24610 drain-source SR controllers are used, one controlling two modules, and the other controlling a single module. With all three modules on, there was a combined  $R_{DS,on}$  of 23m $\Omega$ . With only one module conducting, there is an  $R_{DS,on}$  of 70m $\Omega$ . Testing showed successful implementation of SPS, as shown in Figure 4.12. At light load, the total SR conduction time is greatly extended with SPS rather than batch turn-off.

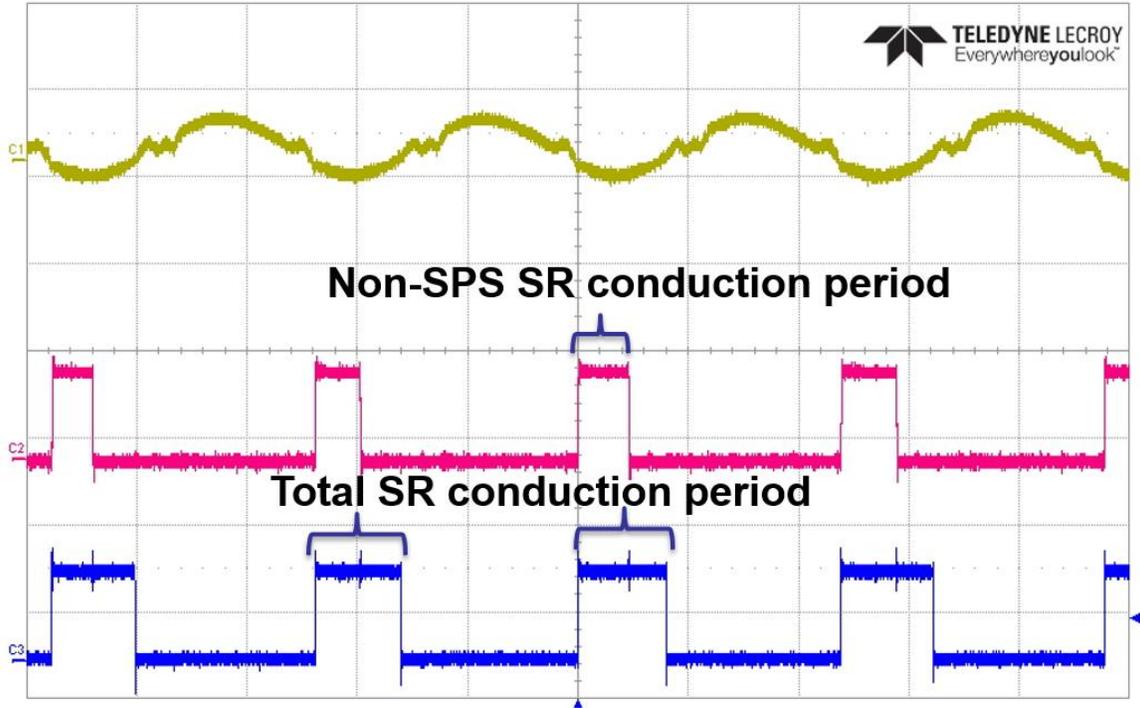


Figure 4.12. TI GaN board SPS waveforms

In Figure 4.12, the “Non-SPS SR conduction period” represents the period in which all three modules are conducting. Hence, this is what batch-turn off would normally produce in terms of conduction time. “Total SR conduction period” represents the batch conduction period, plus the additional single-module conduction period added on.

#### 4.6 Rectifier Efficiency Improvement

This section details efficiency calculations through simulation for SPS for the TI GaN SR board. Since the predominant factor in rectifier loss is conduction loss, a simplified simulation model focusing only on conduction loss was run in PSIM.

In Figure 4.10, at a 5W test condition ( $40V_{in}$ ,  $94\Omega$  load), simulations showed a 20.8% loss reduction when utilizing SPS over batch turn-off. A 51.5% loss reduction is

achieved over pure diode conduction. However, as shown below in Figure 4.13, batch turn-off is not possible due to instability with SPS disabled. Since SPS emulates a higher  $R_{DS,on}$  FET near the end of SR conduction, it has the added benefit of being more stable due to a stronger drain-source voltage signal. This makes the SR system more stable and avoids a possible resonance issue as detailed in Section 3.

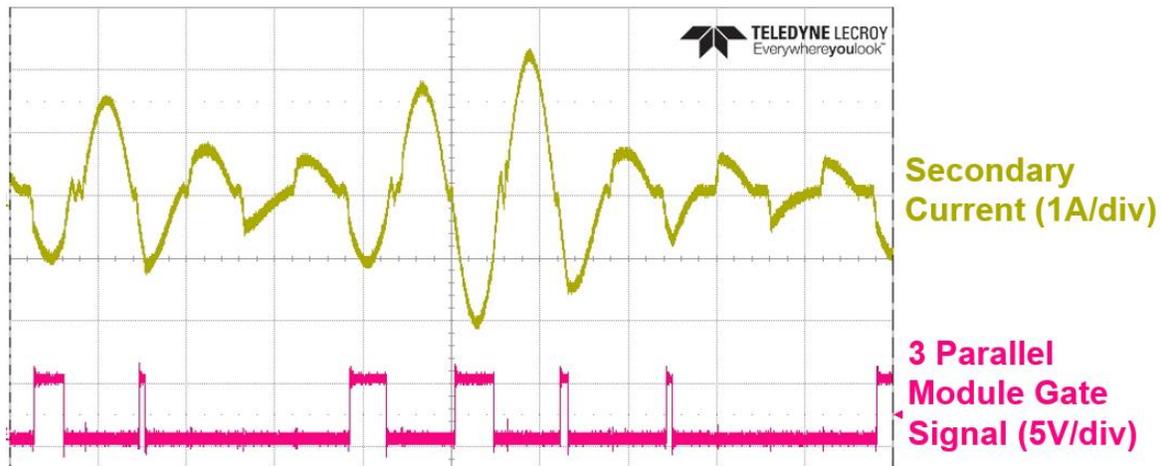


Figure 4.13. Unstable SR waveforms with SPS disabled

To accurately model drain-source voltage sensed SR controllers, a PSIM model was built of the two SR controllers, complete with minimum-on time and minimum-off time, as shown in Figure 4.14. The minimum-on and -off time controls were implemented with monostable multivibrators and logic.

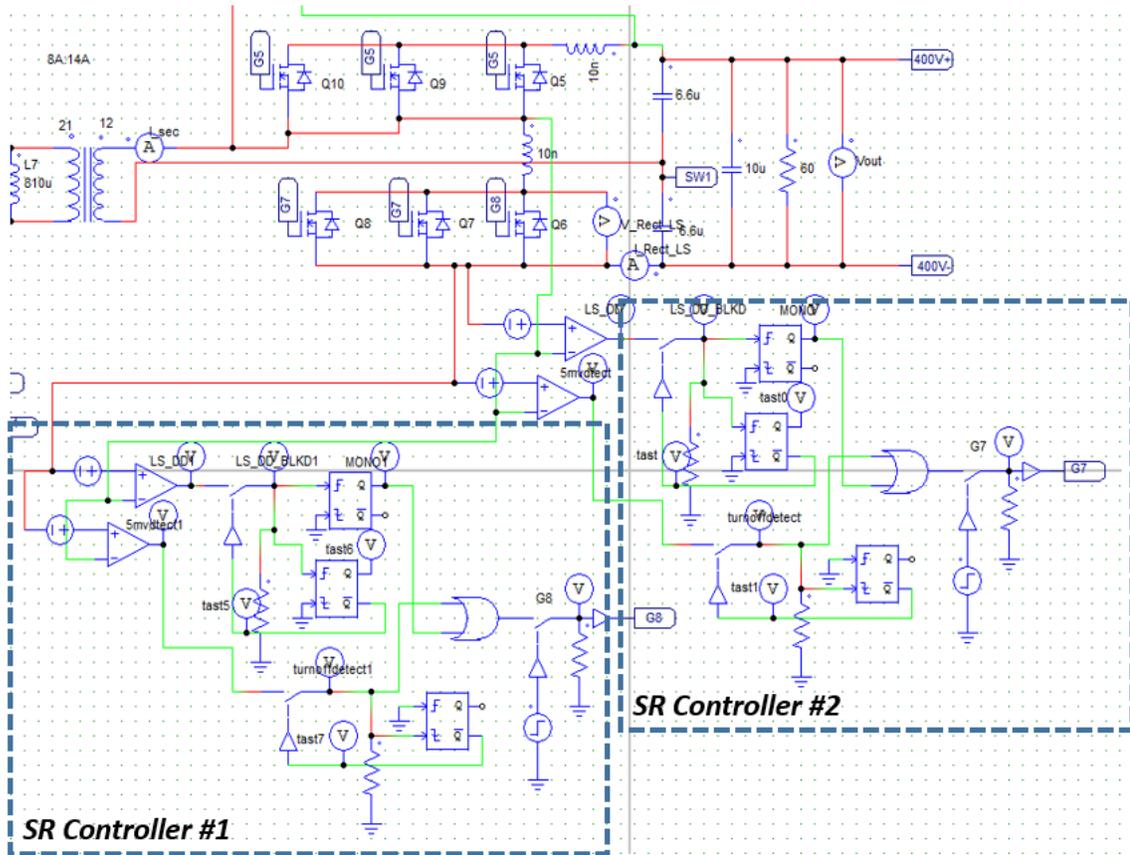


Figure 4.14. SR controller model in simulation

Figure 4.15 shows conduction loss simulations with a 0V and a 5mV turn-off across two  $L_p$  conditions. As we can see, there is a large amount of light load loss reduction possible when implementing SPS, especially when high parasitic inductance is present. At medium to high load, the benefits of SPS begin to decrease.

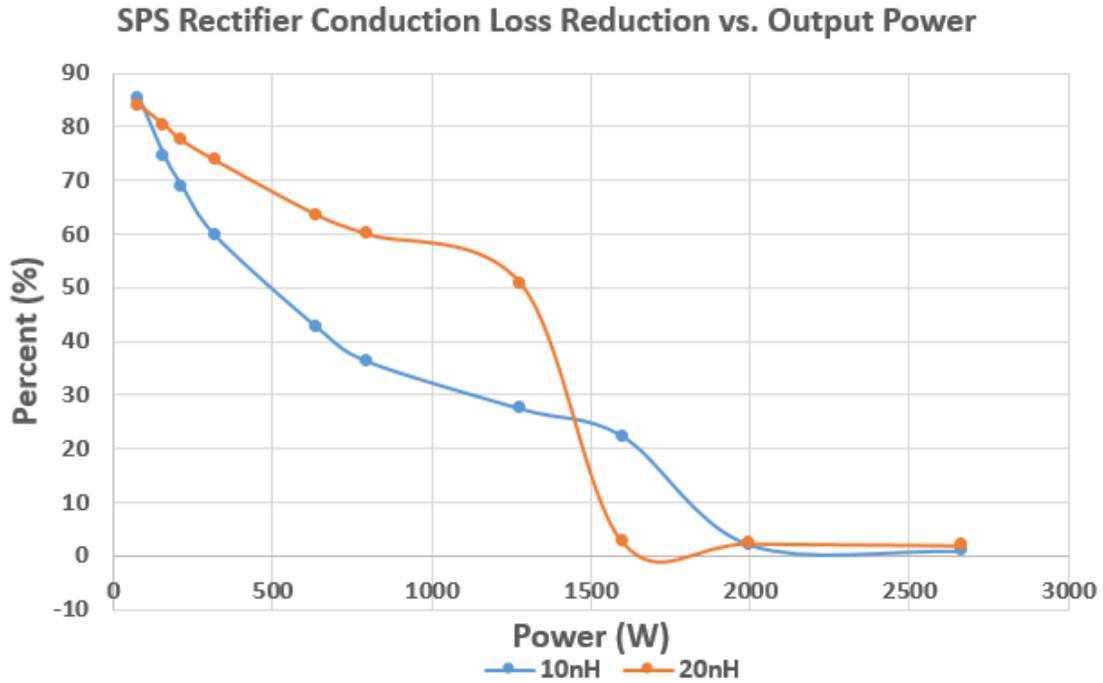


Figure 4.15. SPS rectifier conduction loss reduction

#### 4.7 Multilevel Gate Driver Turn-Off

So far, a solution has only been presented for paralleled SR modules – sequential parallel switching. A similar method can be implemented when only a single SR switch is used: multilevel gate drivers for turn-off. Sequential parallel switching aims to reduce the magnitude of the phase shift from parasitic inductance by dynamically increasing the net channel resistance of the SR switch. It achieves this by sequentially turning off paralleled switches one at a time near the end of SR conduction, thus extending the total conduction time. A similar effect can be achieved by reducing the gate voltage on systems with a single SR switch with a multilevel gate driver.

A multilevel gate driver board was designed to achieve this effect, dynamically reducing the gate driver input voltage to increase its  $R_{DS,on}$ . Figure 4.16 depicts a simplified schematic of what the circuit board aimed to achieve.

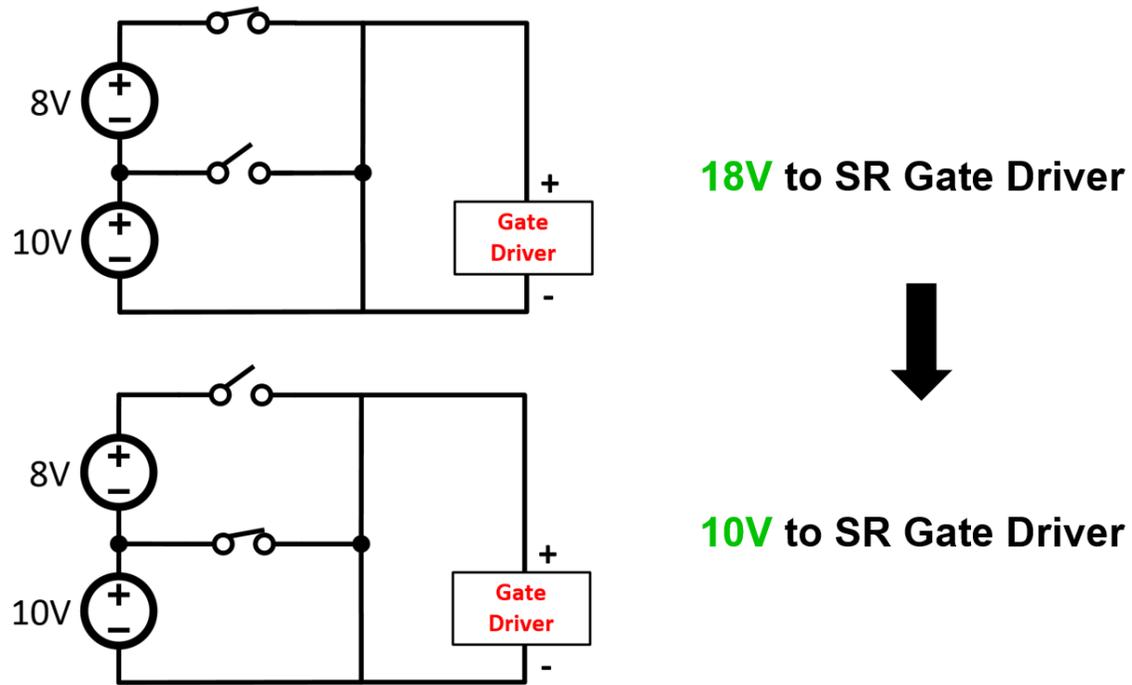


Figure 4.16. Multilevel power supply for gate driver

The board was built with two isolated power supplies in series with a switch network to switch between 18 volts (full driver voltage) to 10 volts (reduced driver voltage). The moment where the driver switched to the reduced driver voltage was controlled externally by an FPGA with programmable delay. Figure 4.17 shows the block diagram of the system, and Figure 4.18 shows the multilevel driver board, FPGA, and FPGA isolator board.

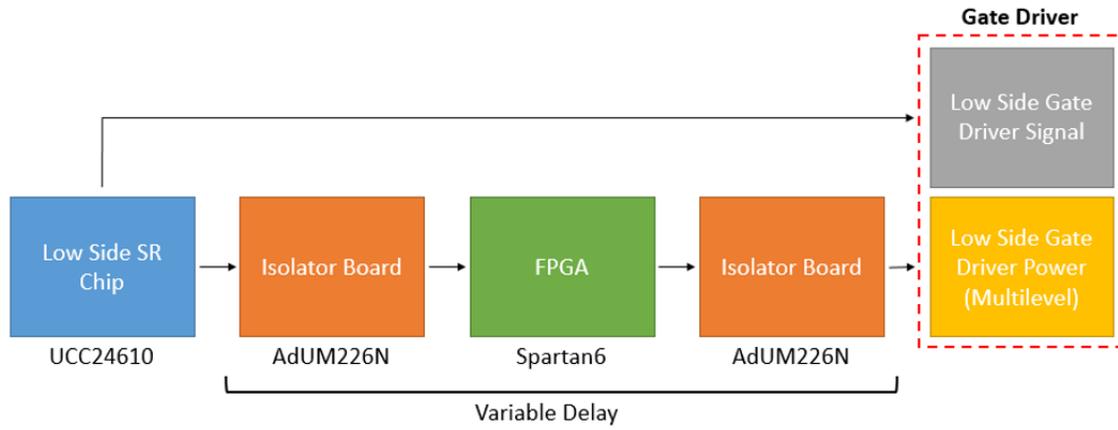


Figure 4.17. Multilevel gate driver with digital delay block diagram

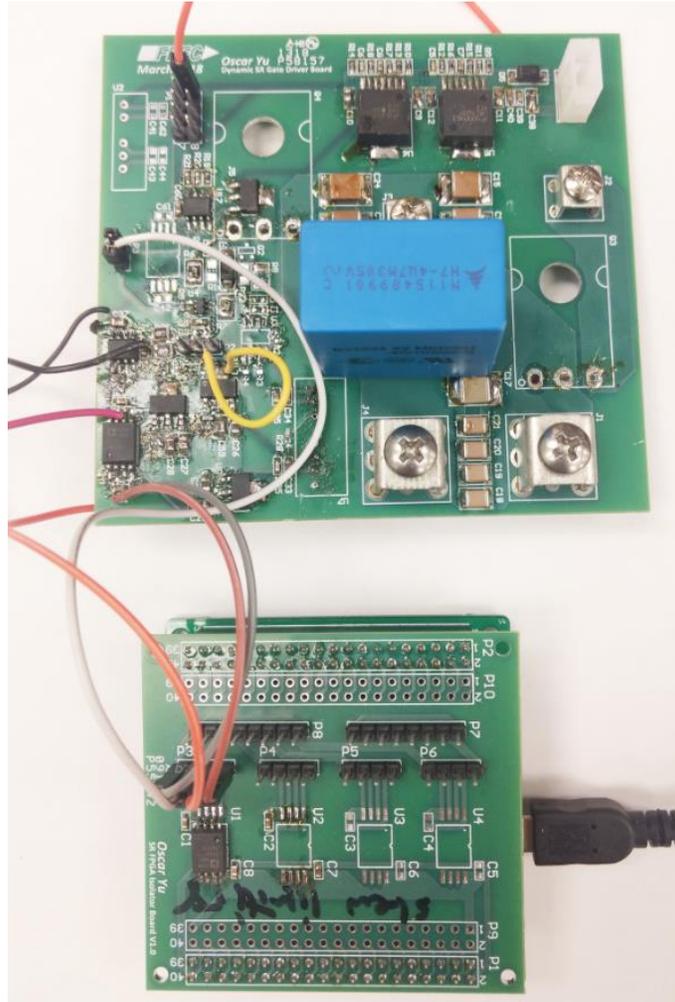


Figure 4.18. Multilevel power supply SR board (top), FPGA and isolator board (bottom)

The multilevel gate driver was only implemented on the low side for stability and proof-of-concept. Figure 4.19 shows the resulting SR gate waveforms, with and without multilevel gate driving.

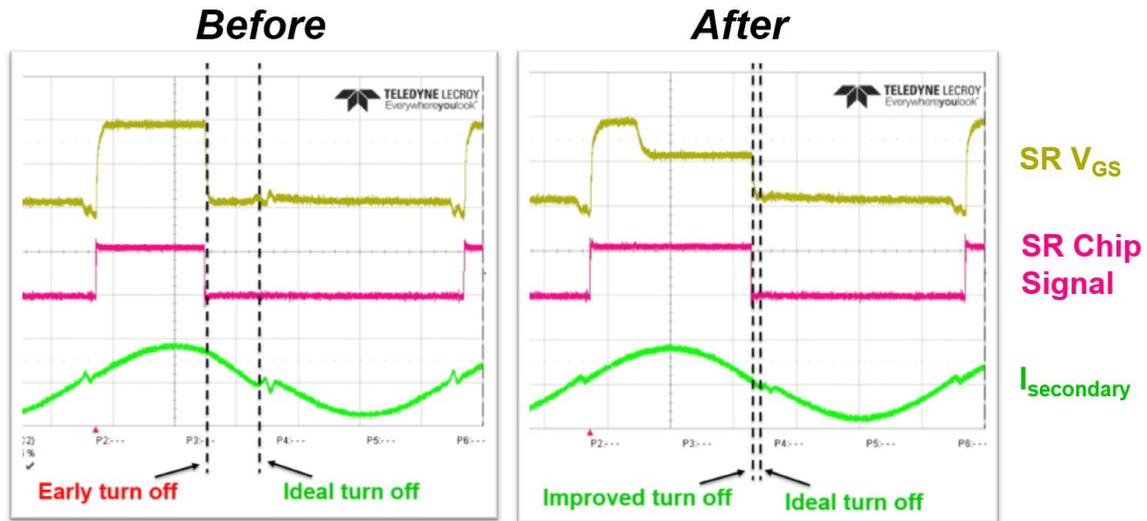


Figure 4.19. Multilevel gate driver board SR waveforms

As we can see, the multilevel gate driver works well and greatly extends total SR conduction time. At a light load test condition, testing showed the SR duty increased from an unsteady ~30% to a very stable 43%. The fluctuations without the multilevel gate driving would have easily triggered the resonance phenomena previously described. Thus, like SPS, multilevel gate driving also serves to stabilize the system at lighter loads. Ideally, the transition from 18 volts to 10 volts would happen as late as possible to maximize efficiency. This can be further tuned in the FPGA with feedback from load conditions and a look-up table.

## CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In the first half of this thesis, a current resonance issue is discovered, investigated, simulated, and a solution is proposed in the form of a FPGA duty cycle rate limiter. In the second half, an early SR turn off issue is reviewed, simulated, and two solutions proposed: sequential parallel switching, and multilevel gate driving. Methods of implementation were discussed, simulations run for efficiency, and both solutions were successfully validated at the board level. The major contributions of this thesis are the discovery of the light load resonance issue, and the techniques to extend conduction time.

Future work includes a deeper look into multilevel gate driving for high power applications, where SR is becoming more desirable, as well as a much more detailed loss analysis. Efforts into full implementation on both low and high sides will follow, as well as a deeper look into higher frequency operation.

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