

Power Integrity

July 20, 2016

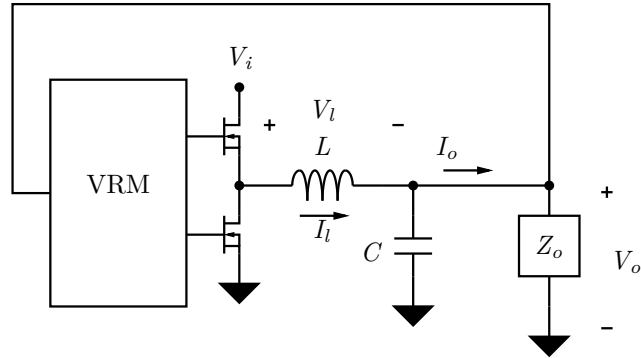


Figure 0.1: System Block Diagram

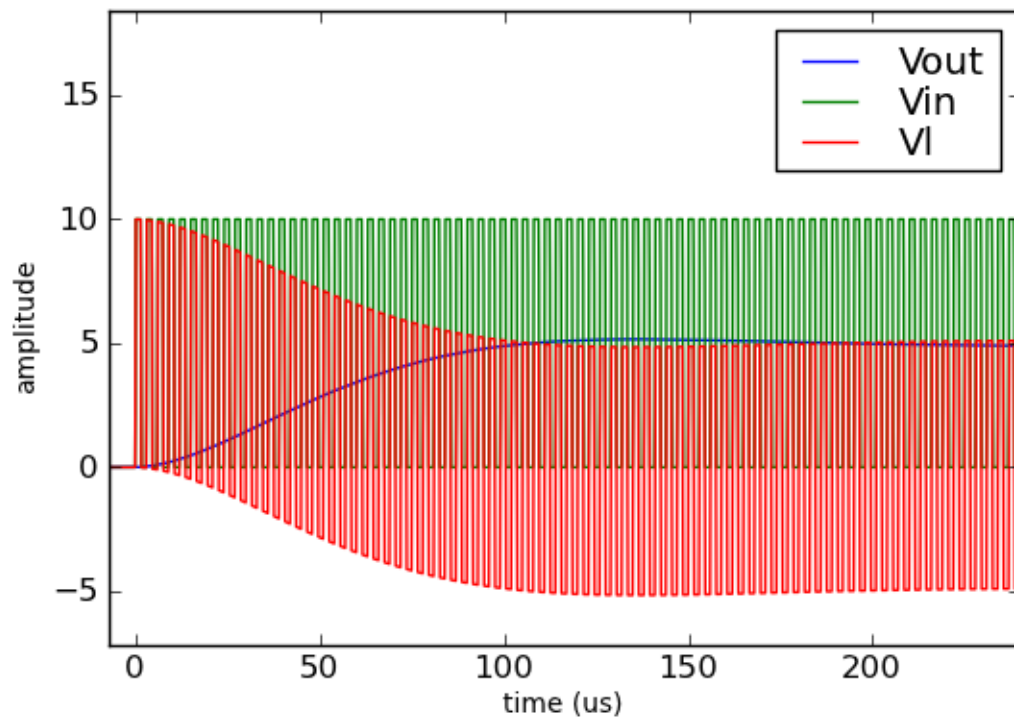


Figure 0.2: Startup Voltages

0.1 Introduction

A simplified block diagram of a switched-mode power supply is shown in Figure 0.1 on page 1. This block diagram is of a “buck” converter configuration, so called because the system produces a regulated voltage V_o which is lower than the input voltage V_i . Other configurations are possible including “boost” configurations where the output voltage is higher than the input voltage, along with combinations (“buck-boost”) and flyback configurations that provide isolated outputs. The

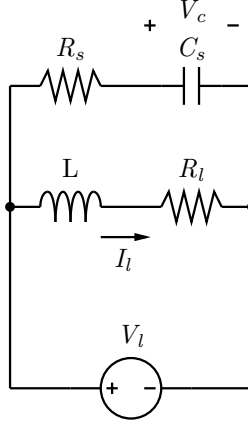


Figure 0.3: Inductor Current Sense Circuit

analysis of all configurations is similar as they are rearrangements of the inductor location and sometimes include a transformer.

In this simplified configuration, the input voltage is switched on and off with a given duty cycle. When the top FET switches on, the input voltage is connected directly to the inductor. Since the inductance is very large, current increases nearly linearly, building up a magnetic field in the inductor. When the top FET switches off, current wants to continue flowing and the bottom FET switches on allowing the current to continue through the inductor. At this point, the current decreases nearly linearly discharging into the bulk capacitance and the load. At startup, the voltage across the inductor during the top FET on time is approximately V_i , and the output voltage V_o is nearly zero, but as the system reaches steady state, V_o approaches a voltage that is proportional to V_i based on the switching duty cycle. In steady state, the voltage across the inductor alternates between the positive and negative difference between the steady state output voltage and the input voltage and the inductor current is nearly steady and is nearly equal to the load current.

Typically, the output voltage is fed back to the voltage regulation module (VRM) and the duty cycle is regulated based on observations of the output voltage. Thus, under dynamic conditions, the VRM modulates the duty cycle in order to supply more or less current to the load and to keep V_o as constant as possible.

In the analysis of switched-mode supplies, it is interesting to measure the input voltage, output voltage, inductor current, and load current in order to understand the dynamics of the supply.

0.2 Measurement of Inductor Current

A standard way of measuring the inductor current is shown in 0.3. Analyzing this circuit, we have:

$$I_l = \frac{V_l}{s \cdot L + R_l} = \frac{\frac{V_l}{L}}{s + \frac{R_l}{L}}$$

$$V_{cs} = \frac{V_l}{R_s + \frac{1}{C_s \cdot s}} \cdot \frac{1}{C_s \cdot s} = \frac{\frac{V_l}{R_s \cdot C_s}}{s + \frac{1}{R_s \cdot C_s}}$$

Therefore, the inductor current relative to the voltage across C_{cs} is:

$$\frac{I_l}{V_{cs}} = \frac{s + \frac{1}{R_s \cdot C_s}}{s + \frac{R_l}{L}} \cdot \frac{R_s \cdot C_s}{L}$$

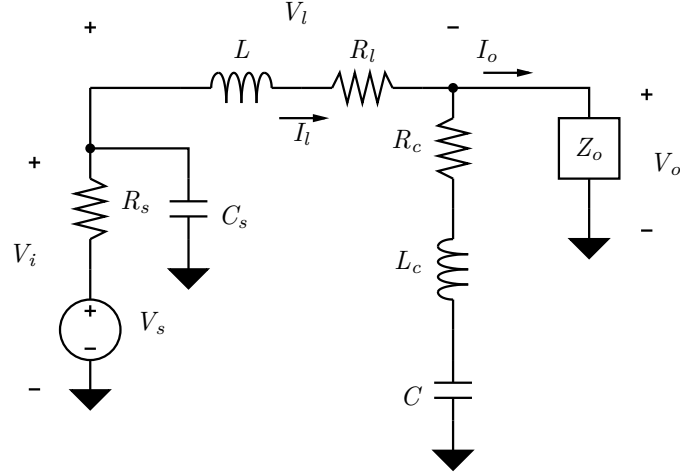


Figure 0.4: System Equivalent Circuit

Ideally, we have:

$$\frac{R_l}{L} = \frac{1}{R_s \cdot C_s}$$

or:

$$C_s = \frac{L}{R_l \cdot R_s}$$

The DC gain is:

$$G = \frac{R_s \cdot C_s}{L} = \frac{1}{R_l}$$

A reasonable set of values would be an inductance of $220 \mu H$ and the series inductor resistance of $R_l = 1 m\Omega$. The product of the sense resistor R_s and the sense capacitor C_s is therefore:

$$R_s \cdot C_s = \frac{L}{R_l} = 0.22$$

Thus, for a sense resistance of $R_s = 1 M\Omega$, we have a sense capacitor of $220 nF$. Unfortunately, the DC gain is:

$$G = \frac{1}{R_l} = 1000$$

Ideally, we can find another way of making this measurement.

0.3 Processing

In this section, we endeavor to try to calculate the important measurements V_l , I_l , and I_o from two single-ended measurements V_i and V_o . In order to do this, we consider the equivalent circuit in Figure 0.4 on page 3. Here we have included numerous parasitics including the on-resistance and capacitance of the drive circuit R_s and C_s ¹, the series resistance in the inductor R_l and the series

¹Note that these are not the same R_s and C_s from last section

resistance and inductance of the capacitor R_c and L_c . For now, we consider the load as an unknown quantity Z_o .

Computation of I_l

Considering the current across the inductor, we solve:

$$I_l(s) = \frac{V_i(s) - V_o(s)}{s \cdot L + R_l} = \frac{V_l(s)}{s \cdot L + R_l}$$

We note that V_l is simply the difference between V_i and V_o . In sampled systems, we use the approximation of the derivative that lets us convert from the Laplace transform to the z transform:

$$s \approx \frac{1}{T} \cdot (1 - z^{-1})$$

Making the substitution, we have:

$$I_l(z) = \frac{V_l(z)}{\frac{L}{T} \cdot (1 - z^{-1}) + R_l} = \frac{V_l(z)}{\left(\frac{L}{T} + R_l\right) - \frac{L}{T} \cdot z^{-1}} = \frac{V_l(z)}{\left(\frac{L+R_l \cdot T}{T}\right) - \frac{L}{T} \cdot z^{-1}}$$

$$I_l(z) = \frac{T}{L + R_l \cdot T} \left(V_l(z) + \frac{L}{T} \cdot z^{-1} \cdot I_l(z) \right) = \frac{T}{L + R_l \cdot T} \cdot V_l(z) + \frac{L}{L + R_l \cdot T} \cdot z^{-1} \cdot I_l(z)$$

Taking the inverse z transform, we obtain the difference equation of the inductor current with respect to the voltage across the inductor.

$$I_l[k] = \frac{T}{L + R_l \cdot T} \cdot V_l[k] + \frac{L}{L + R_l \cdot T} \cdot I_l[k-1]$$

The transfer function that produces the inductor current from the inductor voltage is:

$$H_l(z) = \frac{I_l(z)}{V_l(z)} = \frac{\frac{T}{L+R_l \cdot T}}{1 - \frac{L}{L+R_l \cdot T} \cdot z^{-1}} = \frac{T}{L + R_l \cdot T} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{L}{L+R_l \cdot T} \cdot z^{-1}} = \frac{T}{L + R_l \cdot T} \cdot \frac{z}{z - \frac{L}{L+R_l \cdot T}} \quad (1)$$

When $L \gg R_l \cdot T$:

$$H_l(z) \approx \frac{T}{L} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - z^{-1}}$$

which means that:

$$I_l(t) \approx \frac{1}{L} \int V_L(t) \cdot dt$$

Returning to the transfer function for $H_l(z)$ in (1), we have the DC gain of the function as:

$$G = \left. \frac{T}{L + R_l \cdot T} \cdot \frac{z}{z - \frac{L}{L+R_l \cdot T}} \right|_{z=1} = \frac{T}{L + R_l \cdot T} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{L}{L+R_l \cdot T}} = \frac{1}{R_l}$$

It turns out that the series R_l is very important, because without it, the computation will diverge.

For nonzero R_l , we prefer to take the gain outside of the filter computation, making the new transfer function:

$$H_l(z) = \frac{1}{R_l} \cdot \frac{R_l \cdot T}{L + R_l \cdot T} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{L}{L+R_l \cdot T} \cdot z^{-1}} \quad (2)$$

and the new difference equation:

$$R_l \cdot I_l[k] = \frac{R_l \cdot T}{L + R_l \cdot T} \cdot V_l[k] + \frac{L}{L + R_l \cdot T} \cdot I_l[k-1]$$

In practical applications, R_l is very small (on the order of $1 \text{ m}\Omega$). With an inductance of $L = 220 \mu\text{H}$, and a sample rate of 10 MS/s , ($T = 100 \text{ ns}$), we would have a pole location at:

$$\frac{L}{L + R_l \cdot T} = \frac{220 \mu}{220 \mu + .001 \mu \cdot .1 \mu} = \frac{220}{220 + .0001} = 0.9999995455$$

This pole so close to unity can be very problematic in filtering and will require very long filter startup times and will require processing techniques to guess the starting point of I_l similar to what we need to do in clock recovery in serial data processing.

Computation of I_o :

Given the inductor current I_l , we solve for the current away from the voltage node V_o

$$-I_l(s) + \frac{V_o(s)}{\frac{1}{C \cdot s}} + I_o(s) = 0$$

$$I_o(s) = I_l(s) - C \cdot s \cdot V_o(s)$$

Again, we use the approximation of the derivative that lets us convert from the Laplace transform to the z transform:

$$s \approx \frac{1}{T} \cdot (1 - z^{-1})$$

$$I_o(z) = I_l(z) - \frac{C}{T} \cdot (1 - z^{-1}) \cdot V_o(z)$$

$$I_o[k] = I_l[k] - \frac{C}{T} \cdot (V_o[k] - V_o[k-1])$$

Alternate computation with more parasitics

With the full set of parasitics inserted, we have:

$$-I_l(s) + \frac{V_o(s)}{\frac{1}{C \cdot s} + s \cdot L_c + R_c} + I_o(s) = 0$$

We define:

$$A = \frac{T^2}{T^2 + L_c \cdot C + R_c \cdot C \cdot T}$$

and have the difference equation:

$$\begin{aligned} I_o[k] = I_l[k] &+ -C \cdot A \cdot \frac{2 \cdot L_c + R_c \cdot T}{T^2} \cdot I_l[k-1] + \frac{L_c \cdot C}{T^2} \cdot A \cdot I_l[k-2] + \dots \\ &\dots + C \cdot A \cdot \frac{2 \cdot L_c + R_c \cdot T}{T^2} \cdot I_o[k-1] + -\frac{L_c \cdot C}{T^2} \cdot A \cdot I_o[k-2] + \dots \\ &\dots + -\frac{C}{T} \cdot A \cdot V_o[k] + \frac{C}{T} \cdot A \cdot V_o[k-1] \end{aligned}$$

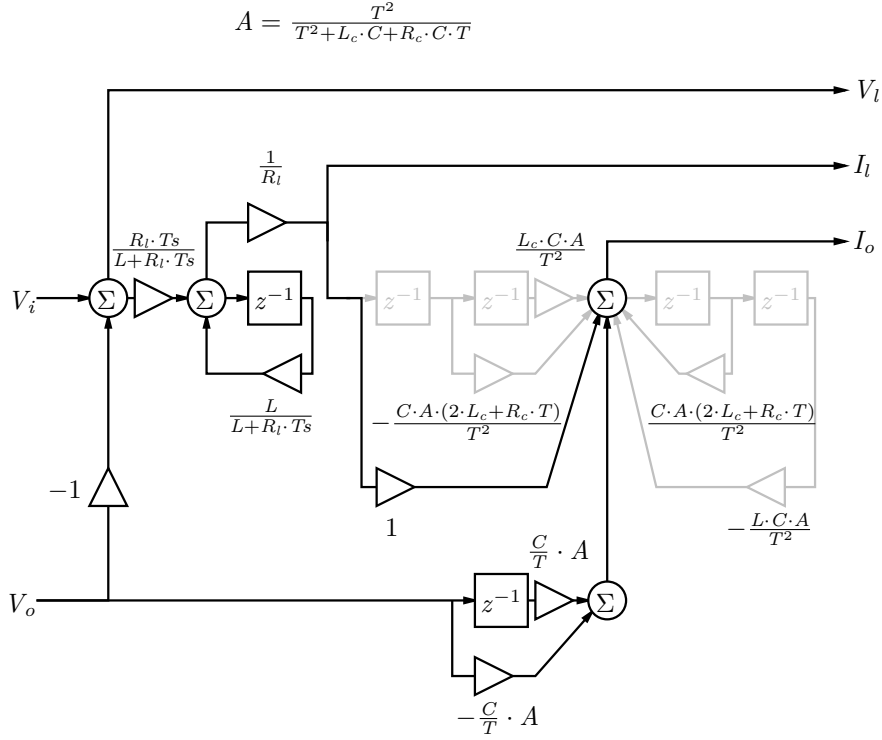


Figure 0.5: Processing Block Diagram

It is comforting to find that if $L_c = R_c = 0$, then $A = 1$, and we have:

$$I_o[k] = I_l[k] + -\frac{C}{T} \cdot V_o[k] + \frac{C}{T} \cdot V_o[k-1]$$

In any case, the full processing system that produces all of the desired output waveforms is provided in Figure 0.5 on page 6. Here we have grayed out the processing that is a function of the nonzero parasitics for the capacitor R_c and L_c to simplify the understanding.

0.4 Power Integrity Solutions

Given the processor in Figure 0.5 on page 6, one could imagine a simple signal integrity solution for the scope centered around this kind of processing:

- Given V_i and V_o , it should be possible to determine the closed loop transfer function and the transfer function of the control loop.
 - And if the control loop can be broken (i.e. connecting the voltage sense circuit to a constant voltage so the converter runs open loop), we can separate the slower control loop portion from the dynamic response of the regulation circuit alone.
- Given V_o and I_o we can find Z_o , or the ac impedance of the load.
- Given V_l and I_l we can find the ac source impedance.

- Given V_i and V_o , it is my hope to be able to perform some sort of system identification that can allow us to characterize the parasitic portion of the inductor portion of the circuit - in any case, we will probably need some form of calibration of the system to avoid divergence of the measurement waveforms.

Some things that I'm suspicious of is whether slight DC offsets and DC inaccuracies will cause measurement problems. I don't think noise and such will be such an issues. Also, the very long time-constants will be some sort of issue for sure and I'm wondering how mis-estimates or measurements of the parasitics will cause problems.

Many of the dynamic measurements would benefit from some sort of stimulus to the load to induce variations (ideally in load current). If the processing can be performed satisfactorily, we would not need to precisely control the stimulus as we would be measuring the effects, but might need some method of controlling the magnitude of the stimulus and certainly in attaching it to the circuit.

0.5 Errors in Measurements of I_l

This section calculates how noise in measurements of V_l translate into noise in the calculation of I_l as put forth in 0.3.

Given $N + 1$ discrete frequency bins in a frequency response, the noise in each bin is calculated as, for $n \in 0 \dots N$:

$$\mathcal{N}[n] = \frac{VDIV \cdot 2 \cdot 10^{-\frac{SNR}{20}}}{L \cdot \sqrt{N} \cdot \pi \cdot f[n]}$$

where $VDIV$ is the volt/division setting of the oscilloscope at which the voltages V_i and V_o are measured, SNR is the signal-to-noise ratio of the oscilloscope at that volt/division setting, L is the inductance, and $f[n]$ is the frequency of the bin according to:

$$f[n] = \frac{n}{N} \cdot \frac{Fs}{2}$$

where Fs is the sample rate.

Thus, to make a $K = 2 \cdot N$ element time-domain signal with these noise characteristics :

$$A[n] = \mathcal{N}[n] \cdot \begin{cases} \sqrt{2} & n > 0 \\ 1 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

$$X[n] = A[n] \cdot \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \cdot e^{j \cdot \text{rnd}(2 \cdot \pi)} & 0 < n < N \\ 1 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

for $n' \in 1 \dots N - 1$:

$$X[N + n'] = X[N - n']^*$$

for $k \in 0 \dots K - 1$:

$$x[k] = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{n=0}^{K-1} X[n] \cdot e^{j \cdot \frac{n \cdot k}{K}}$$