

POWER MANAGEMENT

SAM DAVIS

POWER

SUPPLIES

SYSTEMS

APPLICATIONS

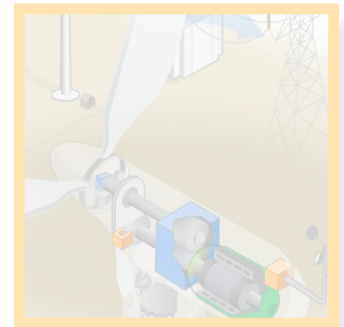
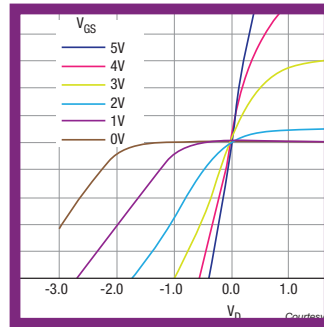
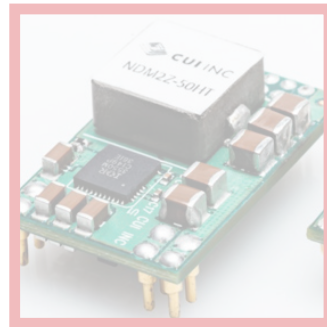
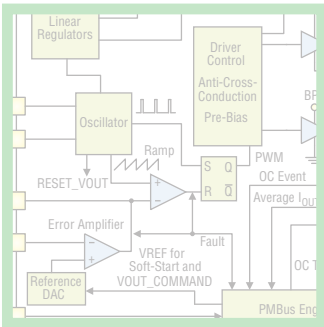
COMPONENTS

SEMICONDUCTORS



POWER MANAGEMENT

BY SAM DAVIS



INTRODUCTION 2

PART 1: THE POWER SUPPLY

CHAPTER 1: POWER SUPPLY FUNDAMENTALS 3

CHAPTER 2: POWER SUPPLY CHARACTERISTICS 6

CHAPTER 3: POWER SUPPLIES – MAKE OR BUY? 14

CHAPTER 4: POWER SUPPLY PACKAGES 17

CHAPTER 5: POWER MANAGEMENT REGULATORY STANDARDS 24

CHAPTER 6: POWER SUPPLY SYSTEM CONSIDERATIONS 27

PART 2: SEMICONDUCTORS

CHAPTER 7: VOLTAGE REGULATOR ICS 31

CHAPTER 8: POWER MANAGEMENT ICS 51

CHAPTER 9: BATTERY POWER MANAGEMENT ICS ... 68

PART 3: SEMICONDUCTOR SWITCHES

CHAPTER 10: SILICON POWER MANAGEMENT POWER SEMICONDUCTORS 77

CHAPTER 11: WIDE BANDGAP SEMICONDUCTORS .. 91

PART 4: POWER APPLICATIONS

CHAPTER 12: WIRELESS POWER TRANSFER 98

CHAPTER 13: ENERGY HARVESTING 104

CHAPTER 14: CIRCUIT PROTECTION DEVICES 108

CHAPTER 15: PHOTOVOLTAIC SYSTEMS 115

CHAPTER 16: WIND POWER SYSTEMS 124

CHAPTER 17: ENERGY STORAGE 129

CHAPTER 18: ELECTRONIC LIGHTING SYSTEMS 134

CHAPTER 19: MOTION SYSTEM POWER MANAGEMENT 141

CHAPTER 20: COMPONENTS AND METHODS FOR CURRENT MEASUREMENT 146

CHAPTER 21: THERMOELECTRIC GENERATORS 151

CHAPTER 22: FUEL CELLS 156

CHAPTER 23: POWER MANAGEMENT OF TRANSPORTATION SYSTEMS 162

CHAPTER 24: POWER MANAGEMENT TEST AND MEASUREMENT 172

CHAPTER 25: DATACENTER POWER 184



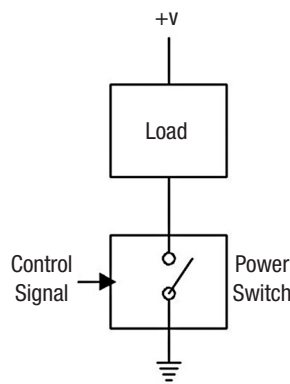
CHAPTER 10:

SILICON POWER-MANAGEMENT POWER SEMICONDUCTORS

Silicon power semiconductors are employed in power management systems. They are found in two different forms:

- Discrete Power Semiconductors (single type housed in a package.)
- Integrated Power Semiconductors
MOSFETs and BJTs (bipolar junction transistors) can be integrated with other circuits in a single package. In addition, various types of power semiconductors may housed in a hybrid (multi-chip module, or MCM) package, that is, interconnected with other monolithic discrete devices in the same package.

Power switches are actually the electronic equivalent of a mechanical switch, except for much faster switching speed. Fig. 10-1 is the representation of a mechanical switch. The individual power semiconductor switch applies power to a load when a control signal tells it to do so. The control signal also tells it to turn off. Ideally, the power semiconductor switch should turn on and off in zero time. It should have an infinite impedance when



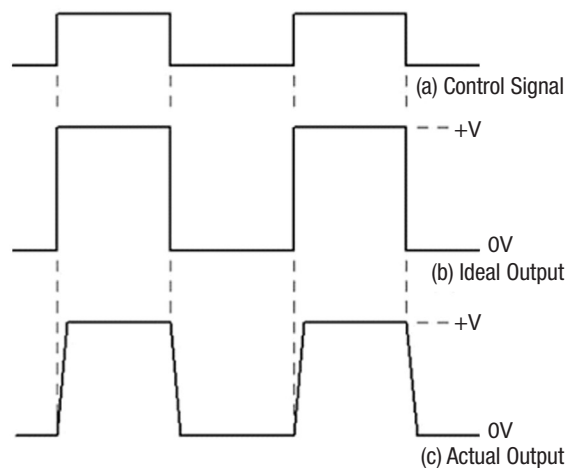
10-1. Power management power semiconductors duplicate the action of a mechanical switch in which a control operation turns the power semiconductor switch on and off to control power applied to a load.

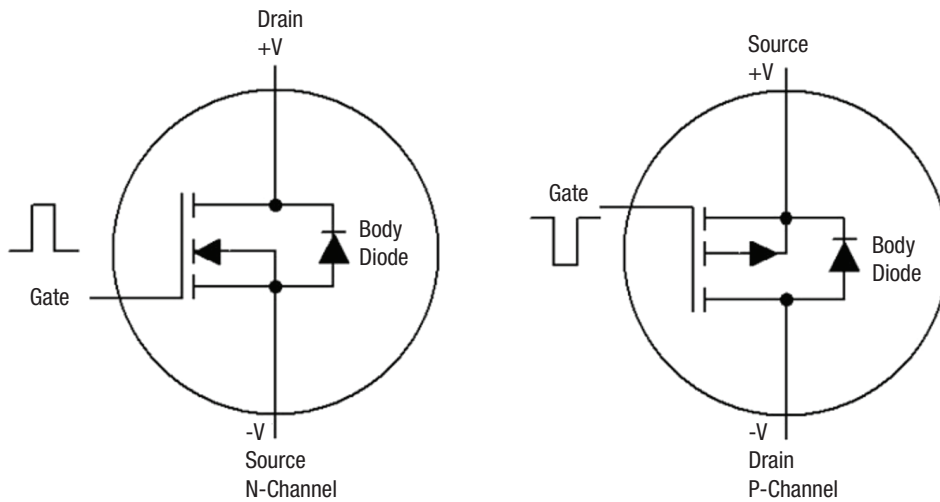
turned off so zero current flows to the load. It should also have zero impedance when turned on so that the on-state voltage drop is zero. Another idealistic characteristic would be that the switch input consumes zero power when the control signal is applied. However, these idealistic characteristics are unachievable with the present state of the art.

In the real world, actual power semiconductor switches do not meet the ideal switching characteristics. For

10-2. Actual power semiconductors do not meet the ideal switching characteristics.

- (a) Control signal applied to an ideal power semiconductor switch whose
- (b) Ideal output exhibits zero transition time when turning on and off.
- (c) Actual power switch exhibits some delay when turning on and off.





10-3. N-Channel and P-Channel Power MOSFETs showing the voltage polarity of the Drain and the gate pulse polarity to turn the device on.

example, Fig. 10-2(a) shows a control signal applied to an ideal power semiconductor switch whose output exhibits zero transition time when turning on and off (Fig. 10-2(b)). When the transistor is off (not conducting current) power dissipation is very low because current is very low. When the transistor is on (conducting maximum current) power dissipation is low because the conducting resistance is low. In contrast, an actual power switch exhibits some delay when turning on and off, as shown in Fig. 10-2(c). Therefore, some power dissipation occurs when the switch goes through the linear region between on and off. This means that the most power dissipation depends on the time spent going from the off to on and vice versa, that is, going through the linear region. Thus, the faster the device goes through the linear region, the lower the power dissipation and losses.

Power MOSFETs

Power MOSFETs (Metal-Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistors) are among the most widely used power switch semiconductors. Power MOSFETs are three-terminal silicon devices that function by applying a signal to the gate that controls current conduction between source and drain (Fig. 10-3). They are available in n-channel versions that require a positive gate turn-on

voltage and also p-channel devices that require a negative gate voltage to turn on. Their current conduction capabilities are up to several tens of amperes, with breakdown voltage ratings (BVDSS) of 10V to 1000V.

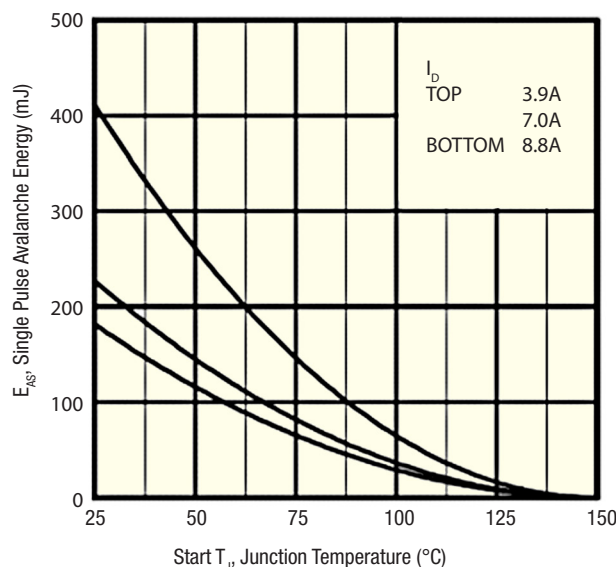
MOSFETs used in integrated circuits are lateral devices with gate, source and drain all on the top of the device, with current flow taking place in a path parallel to the surface. The Vertical Double diffused MOSFET (VDMOS) uses the device substrate as the drain terminal. MOSFETs used in integrated circuits exhibit a higher on-resistance than those of discrete MOSFETs.

The fabrication processes used to manufacture power MOSFETs are the same as those used in today’s VLSI circuits, although the device geometry, voltage and current levels are significantly different. Discrete monolithic MOSFETs have tens or hundreds of thousands of individual cells paralleled together in order to reduce their on-resistance.

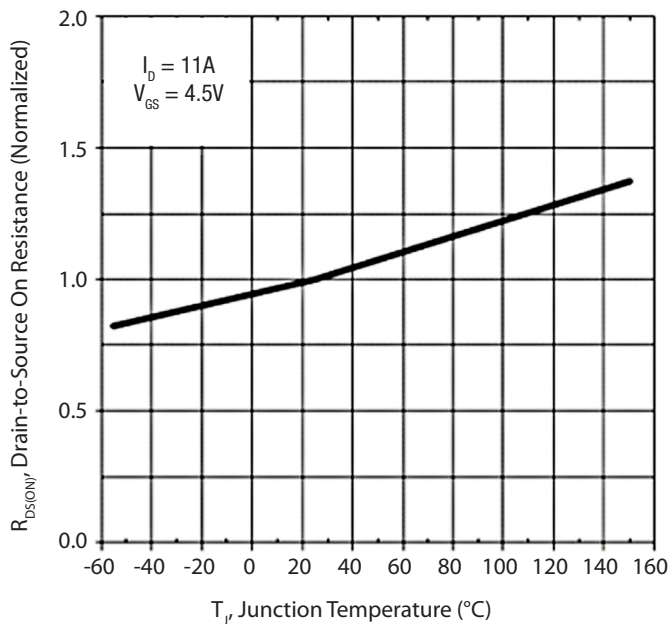
The gate turns the MOSFET on when its gate-to-source voltage is above a specific threshold. Typical gate thresholds range from 1 to 4 V. For an n-channel MOSFET a positive bias greater than the gate-to-source threshold voltage ($V_{GS(th)}$) is applied to the gate, a current flows between source and drain. For gate voltages less than $V_{GS(th)}$ the device remains in the off-state. P-channel MOSFETs use a negative gate drive signal to turn on.

P-channel MOSFETs use a negative gate drive signal to turn on.

When power semiconductor switches first found wide use, discrete transistors, pulse transformers, opto-couplers, among other components were used to drive the power MOSFET on and off. Now, specially designed gate driver ICs are used in many applications. This minimizes the drive requirements from a low power circuit, such as a microprocessor, and also acts as a buffer between the controlling signal and the power semiconductor switch. The gate driver supplies enough drive to ensure that the power switch turns on



10-4. Avalanche occurs if the maximum drain-to-source voltage is exceeded and current rushes through the device.



10-5. Normalized Variation of on-resistance vs. junction temperature for an N-Channel MOSFET.

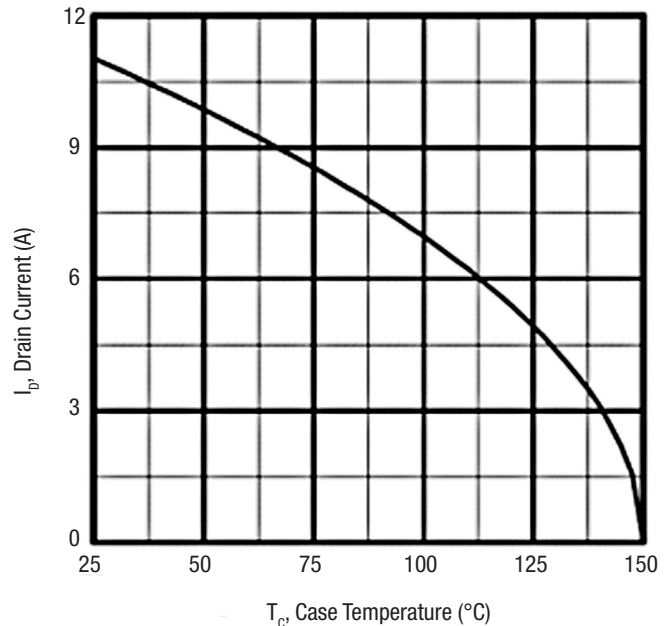
properly. Some gate drivers also have protection circuits to prevent failure of the power semiconductor switch and also its load.

MOSFET characteristics include several parameters critical to their performance:

Blocking voltage (BV_{DSS}) is the maximum voltage that can be applied to the MOSFET. When driving an inductive load, this includes the applied voltage plus any inductively induced voltage. With inductive loads, the voltage across the MOSFET can actually be twice the applied voltage.

Maximum single pulse avalanche energy (E_{AS}) determines how much energy the MOSFET can withstand under avalanche conditions. Avalanche occurs if the maximum drain-to-source voltage is exceeded and current rushes through the device. The higher the avalanche value the more rugged the device. The avalanche condition can cause two possible failure modes that can destroy a MOSFET. The most destructive is “bipolar latching” that occurs if the device current causes a voltage drop across its internal device resistance, resulting in transistor action and latching of the parasitic bipolar structure of the MOSFET. A second failure mode is thermal, which occurs if the avalanche condition raises the device temperature above its maximum junction temperature.

Trench technology offers an avalanche capability approaching industry-leading planar technology. To ensure satisfactory performance, devices in this technology can be fully characterized for single pulse avalanche energy (E_{AS}) up to their maximum junction temperature. The higher the E_{AS} , the more rugged the device. Some de-



10-6. Maximum Drain Current for a typical N-Channel Power MOSFET.

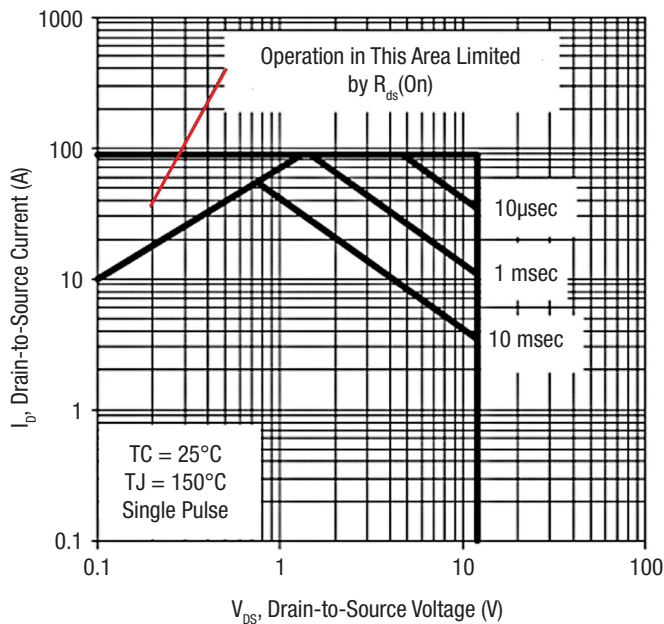
vices are rated in terms of E_{AR} , the repetitive avalanche energy.

Trench technology provides the desirable characteristics of low on-resistance sometimes at the expense of high avalanche energy. Trench power MOSFET technology provides 15% lower device on-resistance per unit area than existing benchmark planar technologies but usually at the cost of higher charge. And, the trench technology allows 10% lower on-resistance temperature coefficient. Fig. 10-4 is plot of single pulse avalanche energy for a MOSFET.

On-resistance ($R_{DS(ON)}$) for both planar and Trench MOSFETs is important because it determines the power loss and heating of the power semiconductor. The lower the on-resistance the lower the device power loss and the cooler it will operate. Low on-resistance drastically reduces heat-sinking requirements in many applications, which lowers parts count and assembly costs. In many applications, the low on-resistance also eliminates the need to parallel MOSFETs for low on-resistance, which leads to improved reliability and lower overall system cost than previous MOSFET generations. In virtually all MOSFETs, the n-channel versions have lower on-resistance than p-channel devices with the same operating voltages.

$R_{DS(ON)}$ decreases with increasing cell density. The cell density has increased over the years from around half a million per square inch in 1980 to around eight million for planar MOSFETs and around 12 million and higher for trench technology.

Maximum junction temperature, $T_{J(max)}$, is a function of

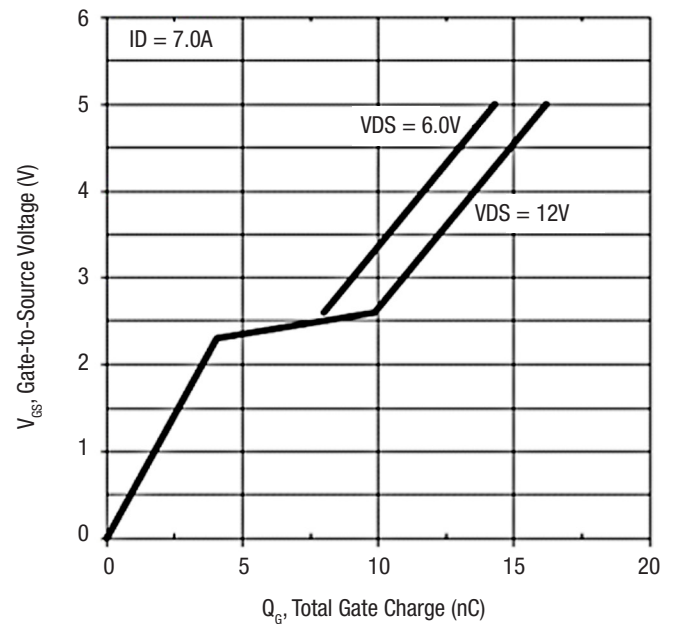


10-7. Typical Maximum Safe Operating for an N-Channel Power MOSFET

the electrical characteristics of the device itself, as well as the package employed. Package thermal properties determine its ability to extract heat from the die. The junction-to-ambient and junction-to-case thermal resistance is a measure of the MOSFET's ability to extract heat. Data sheets rate thermal resistance in terms of either °C/W or K/W. The lower the thermal resistance, the more efficient the package is in eliminating heat. In some cases, a heat sink may be required to maintain the device junction temperature below its maximum rating. Fig. 10-5 shows the variation of $R_{DS(ON)}$ with junction temperature for $V_{GS} = 4.5\text{ V}$ and 10 V . V_{GS} is gate-to-source voltage.

Drain current (I_D) establishes the ability of the MOSFET to drive a specific load. This value can be limited by the MOSFET's package. When operated in the pulsed mode, the MOSFET's drain current can be several times its continuous rating. In the pulsed mode the pulse width and duty cycle determine safe drain current and device power dissipation. Fig. 10-6 shows the maximum drain current vs. case temperature.

Safe operating area (SOA) for a MOSFET is a function of the voltage and current applied to the device. Power semiconductor manufacturers include a curve in their power transistor data sheets (Fig. 10-7) that defines the allowable combination of voltage and current, which is called the device's safe operating area (SOA). The product of the voltage and current represents the watts dissipated in the chip. If you exceed the SOA, the chip will get too hot and fail. MOSFET devices are limited by the SOA; bipolar devices have an additional failure

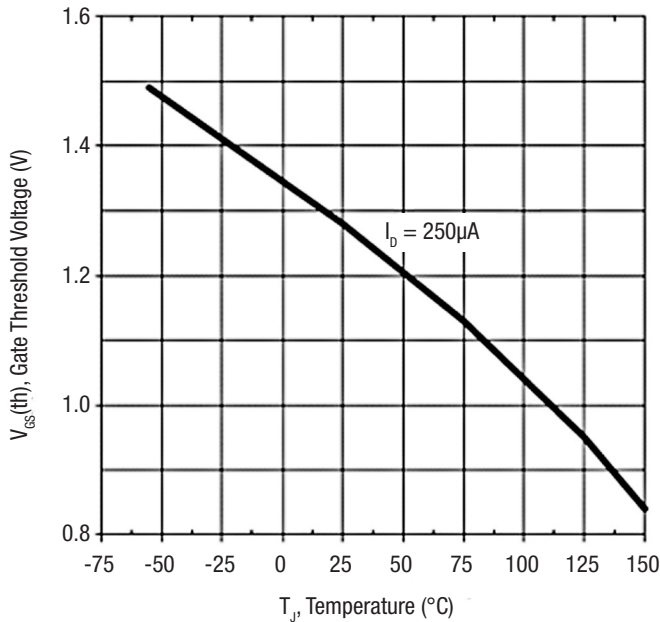


10-8. Total Gate Charge (Q_G) of an N-Channel Power MOSFET Varies With the Drain-Source Voltage

mechanism called secondary breakdown that significantly reduces the SOA.

Total Gate charge (Q_G) The charge on the gate terminal of the MOSFET as determined by its gate-to-source capacitance. The lower the gate charge, the easier it is to drive the MOSFET. Total gate charge, Q_G , affects the highest reliable switching frequency of the MOSFET. The lower the gate charge, the higher the frequency. Operation at higher frequencies allows use of lower value, smaller size capacitors and inductors, which can be significant factors in system cost. A low gate charge also makes it easier to drive the MOSFET, however, designers sometimes need to trade-off switching frequency with EMI considerations. Some New trench devices exhibit lower gate charge than some existing planar technologies by replacing larger die with new smaller die devices that have been optimized to offer a lower charge version of the trench devices. Fig. 10-8 shows the gate charge for a typical power MOSFET, which is specified in nC, nano-coulombs.

Although input capacitance values are useful, they do not lend themselves to calculation of the gate current required to switch the device in a given time and they do not provide accurate results when comparing the switching performance of two devices. A more useful parameter from the circuit design point of view is the total gate charge. Most manufacturers include both parameters on their data sheets. Using gate charge, Q_G , the designer can calculate the amount of current required from the drive circuit to switch the device on in a desired length of



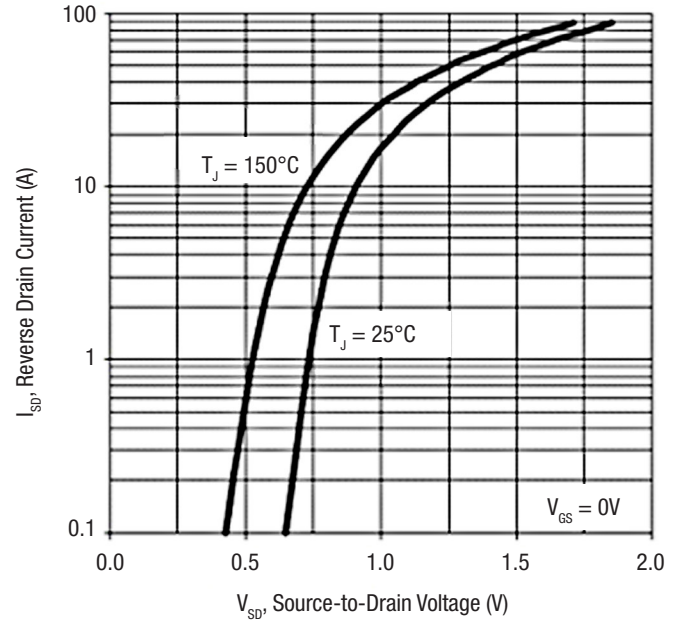
10-9. The Gate Threshold Voltage of this N-Channel Power MOSFET Is About 1.28 V for $I_D = 250\mu\text{A}$ at 25°C .

time because $Q_G = \text{current} \times \text{time}$. For example, a device with a gate charge of 20nC can be turned on in 20msec if a current of 1mA is supplied to the gate, or it can turn on in 20nsec if the gate current is increased to 1A. These simple calculations would not have been possible with input capacitance values.

Gate charge and on-resistance are inter-related. That is, the lower the gate charge, the higher the on-resistance and vice versa. Historically, MOSFET manufacturers have focused on reducing $R_{DS(on)}$ without paying much attention to gate charge. This has changed in the last several years, with new designs and processes becoming available that offer reduced gate charge devices.

Figure of Merit (FOM) relates to the tradeoff between $R_{DS(on)}$ and gate charge. The product of $R_{DS(on)} \times Q_G$ is a figure of merit (FOM) that compares different power MOSFETs for use in high frequency applications.

Threshold Voltage ($V_{GS(th)}$) is the minimum gate-source electrode bias required to form a conducting channel between the source and the drain regions. It is usually measured at a drain-source current of $250\mu\text{A}$. A value of 2-4V for high voltage devices with thicker gate oxides, and logic-compatible values of 1-2V for lower voltage devices with thinner gate oxides are common. In battery-based applications where power is a premium, the trend is towards lower values of $R_{DS(on)}$ and V_{gsth} . Gate oxide quality and integrity become major issues as gate oxide thickness is reduced to achieve lower V_{gsth} , the minimum voltage is required between the gate and source that enables the MOSFET to turn on. Logic level



10-10. Body-Diode Forward Voltage for an N-Channel Power MOSFET.

MOSFETs have typical values of about 2V to 3V, whereas other devices can have higher values. In Fig. 10-9 is the threshold voltage plotted against junction temperature.

Power Loss MOSFETs are expected to have low conduction and switching losses. For power management applications, conduction losses, ruggedness and avalanche capability are important features. Conduction losses are determined by the product of operating current and on-resistance (I^2R) of the power MOSFET.

Maximum Allowable Power Dissipation (P_D) is the maximum allowable power dissipation that raises the MOSFET's die temperature to the maximum allowable junction temperature, T_{jmax} , when the case temperature is held at 25°C . T_{jmax} is normally 150°C or 175°C .

Body-Diode Forward Voltage (V_{SD}) is the guaranteed maximum forward drop of the body-drain diode at a specified value of source current. The value of V_{SD} is significant and must be low in applications where the source-drain voltage may extend into the negative range, causing forward biasing the body-drain diode. If this happens, the source-drain current flows from drain straight to the source contacts, across the forward biased body-diode p-n junction.

A second and more dominant current conduction path will exist through the channel if the gate-source voltage, $V_{GS} > V_{gsth}$. Low voltage and low $R_{DS(on)}$ power MOSFETs are used in such synchronous rectifier modes since their forward voltage drop can be as low as 0.1V versus the typical Schottky diode forward voltage drops of 0.4-0.5V. Maximum values of 1.6V for high voltage devices

(>100V) and values of 1.2V for low voltage devices (<100V) are common for VSD. A typical source-drain diode forward voltage is shown in Fig. 10-10.

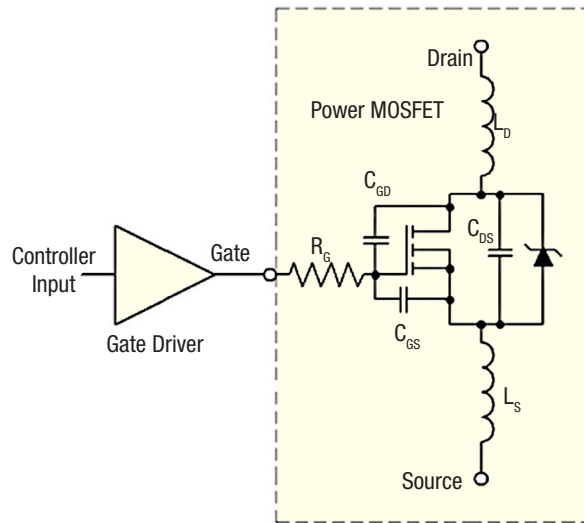
Thermal Resistance, Junction-to-Case ($R_{\theta JC}$) is the junction-to-case thermal impedance of the MOSFET, a typical surface mount package can have a thermal resistance of 30-50 °C/W, whereas a typical TO-220 device can be 2°C/W or less. Data sheets may also provide a value for $R_{\theta JA}$ for the junction-to-ambient thermal resistance of the power MOSFET

Maximum dV/dt is the maximum rate of rise of source-drain voltage allowed if the MOSFET's dV/dt . If this rate is exceeded, the voltage across the gate-source terminals may become higher than the threshold voltage of the device, forcing the device into current conducting mode and under certain conditions a catastrophic failure may occur.

There are two possible mechanisms by which a dV/dt induced turn-on may take place. One becomes active through the feedback action of the gate-drain capacitance CGD together with CGS forming a capacitive divider that can generate a pulse sufficient to exceed the V_{th} and turn the device on during fast voltage transitions on the drain. When a voltage ramp appears across the drain and source terminals of the device. Usually the driver will sink a current flowing through the gate resistance, R_G , to clamp the gate low during the off state, if R_G is too large, it is sometimes possible that the driver is isolated from the gate allowing the device to turn on. R_G is the total gate resistance in the circuit.

The second mechanism for the dV/dt turn-on in MOSFETs is through the parasitic BJT. The capacitance associated with the depletion region of the body diode, extending into the drift region is denoted as CDB and appears between the base of the BJT and the drain of the MOSFET. This capacitance gives rise to a current that flows through the base resistance, R_B , when a voltage ramp appears across the drain-source terminals.

Static Electricity (ESD) Effects is another way to kill semiconductors. The static charge accumulated by a person handling an MOSFET semiconductor is often enough to destroy the part. Therefore, manufacturers of semiconductors have instituted static discharge ratings that range from 3000V to 5000V. Handlers of MOSFET semiconductors use grounding straps and conductive



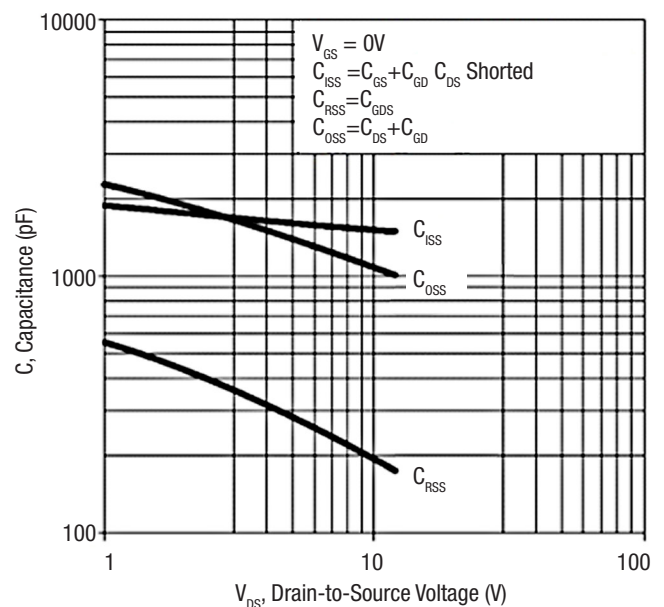
10-11. Typical N-Channel MOSFET's Parasitic Capacitances Includes CGD (Gate-to-Drain), C_{DS} (Drain-to-Source), and C_{GS} (Gate-to-Source)

surfaces to prevent static charge problems.

Switching and Transient Response is determined by the time required to establish voltage changes across capacitances and current changes in inductances. R_G is the distributed resistance of the gate and is approximately

inversely proportional to active area. Values of around 20 Ω -mm² are common for the product of R_G and active area for polysilicon gates. Fig. 10-11 shows the parasitics in the MOSFET input. L_S and L_D are source and drain lead inductances and are around a few tens of nH. There are also several parasitic capacitances associated with the power MOSFET. Gate-source capacitance, C_{GS} , is the capacitance due to the overlap of polysilicon gate with the source and the channel regions and is not a strong function of applied voltage. Fig. 10-12 illustrates the variation of the parasitic capacitances vs. the drain-source voltage.

C_{RSS} is the reverse transfer capacitance, which is the capacitance between the drain and gate with the source connected to ground. This capacitance is equal to the



10-12. Typical Plot of N-Channel MOSFET's Parasitic Capacitances vs. Drain-to-Source Voltage.

gate-to-drain capacitance. C_{RSS} , often referred to as the Miller capacitance, is one of the major parameters affecting rise and fall times of the output voltage during switching. Plus, it also affects turn-off delay time. The capacitances decrease over a range of increasing drain-source voltage, especially the output and reverse transfer capacitances.

Important parameters for MOSFETs are listed in Table 10-1.

Power MOSFET Fabrication Technologies

The trench MOSFET has replaced the planar device in many applications because it extends the cell density limit. Trench technology allows a higher cell density but is more difficult to manufacture than the planar device. Process refinements have yielded devices with steadily increasing density and lower on-resistance. TrenchFET devices have achieved on-resistance less than 1mΩ for a 25mm² silicon die, exclusive of lead resistance.

Trench MOSFETs employ the same schematic config-

uration of the older planar MOSFETs. And, new Trench MOSFETs offer significant advantages over the older generation Trench MOSFETs and also some improvements over the older planar MOSFET technology.

Among the other technologies are MDMesh. STMicroelectronics says that the improvement in $R_{DS(ON)}$ achieved with MDmesh V will significantly reduce losses in line-voltage PFC circuits and power supplies, which will in turn enable new generations of electronic products offering better energy ratings and smaller dimensions. This new technology should help designers with high efficiency targets and also save power.

MDmesh V achieves its $R_{DS(ON)}$ per area performance by improving the transistor drain structure to lower the drain-source voltage drop. This reduces the device's on-state losses while also maintaining low gate charge (Qg), enabling energy-efficient switching at high speeds and delivering a low $R_{DS(ON)} \times Qg$ Figure of Merit (FOM). ST claims that the breakdown voltage of 650V is also higher than competing 600V devices, delivering a valuable

safety margin for designers. A further advantage of ST's MDmesh V MOSFETs is a cleaner turn-off waveform, enabling easier gate control and simpler filtering due to reduced EMI.

STMicroelectronics' STRipFET technology uses an optimized layout and updated manufacturing process to improve the gate charge, gate resistance and input capacitance characteristics. The low gate charge enables excellent switching behavior and the low gate resistance means fast transient response. The technology also offers an extremely low figure-of-merit, meaning reduced conduction and switching losses.

Among STMicroelectronics introductions is a series of 30V surface-mount power transistors, achieving on-resistance as low as 2 mΩ (max) to increase the energy efficiency of products such as computers, telecom and networking equipment. The latest-generation STRipFET VI DeepGATE family process has high equiv-

TABLE 10-1. MOSFET PARAMETERS

Symbol	Parameter	Description
$V_{(BR)DSS}$	Breakdown voltage	The MOSFET's maximum operating voltage, where the reverse-biased body-drift diode breaks down and current flows between the source and drain.
$V_{GS(TH)}$	Threshold voltage	Minimum gate electrode voltage required to cause the MOSFET to conduct.
$R_{DS(ON)}$	On-resistance	$R_{DS(ON)} = R_{SOURCE} + R_{CH} + R_A + R_J + R_D + R_{SUB} + R_{WCML}$ R_{SOURCE} = Source diffusion resistance R_{CH} = Channel resistance R_A = Accumulation resistance R_J = "JFET" component-resistance of the region between the two body regions R_D = Drift region resistance R_{SUB} = Substrate resistance R_{WCML} = Sum of Bond Wire resistance, contact resistance between the source and drain metallization and silicon, metallization and leadframe contributions.
$I_{DS(MAX)}$	Maximum drain current	Maximum drain-to-source output current.
Q_G	Total gate charge	Gate charge allows calculation of the amount of current required from the drive circuit to switch the device on in a desired length of time.
PD	The maximum allowable power dissipation	Maximum allowable power dissipation that raises the die temperature to the maximum allowable when the case temperature is held at 25°C. $P_D = \frac{T_{J(MAX)} - 25}{R_{\theta JC}}$ where: $T_{J(MAX)}$ = Maximum allowable temperature of the p-n junction (normally 150°C or 175°C) $R_{\theta JC}$ = Junction-to-case thermal impedance of the MOSFET.

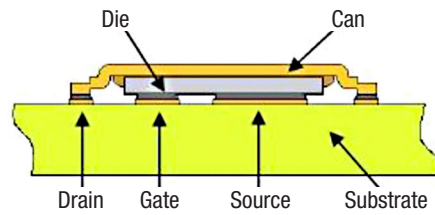
alent cell density and said to be best $R_{DS(ON)}$ in relation to active chip size. This is around 20 per cent better than the previous generation and allows the use of small surface-mount power packages in switching regulators and DC-to-DC converters, the company said.

Infinion has developed CoolMOS™ technology for high voltage Power MOSFETs that reduces the $R_{DS(ON)}$ area product by a factor of five for 600V transistors. It has redefined the dependence of $R_{DS(ON)}$ on the breakdown voltage. The more than square-law dependence in the case of a standard MOSFET has been broken and a linear voltage dependence achieved. It is said that this opens the way to new fields of application even without avalanche operation. System miniaturization, higher switching frequencies, lower circuit parasitics, higher efficiency, reduced system costs are pointing the way towards future developments. It has also set new benchmarks for device capacitances. Due to chip shrink and novel internal structure, the technology shows a very small input capacitance as well as a strongly nonlinear output capacitance. The drastically lower gate charge facilitates and reduces the cost of controllability, and the smaller feedback capacitance reduces dynamic losses. This technology, improves the minimum $R_{DS(ON)}$ values in the 600 to 1000 V operating range.

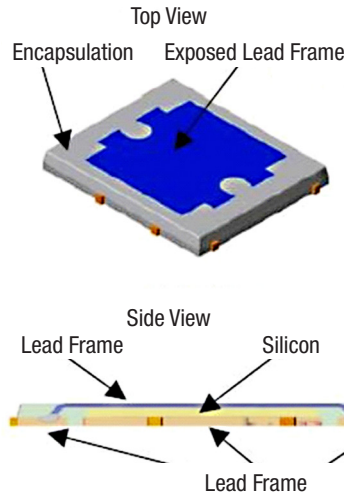
MOSFET Packages

MOSFETs are available in Small Outline IC (SOIC) packages for applications where space is at a premium. Larger through-hole TO-220, TO-247 and the surface mountable D2PAK or SMD-220 are also available. Newer package styles include chip scale devices and also the DirectFET™ and PolarPak™ packages.

Devices with breakdown voltage ratings of 55V-60V and gate-threshold voltages of 2 to 3V are used mainly in through-hole packages such as TO-220, TO-247 or the surface mounted D₂PAK (SMD220). These through-hole packages have very low thermal resistance. Despite their higher thermal resistances, more surface-mount SOIC packages are finding their way into applications due to the continuous reduction in on-resistance of power MOSFETs. SOIC packages save space and simplify system assembly. The newest generation of power MOSFETs use



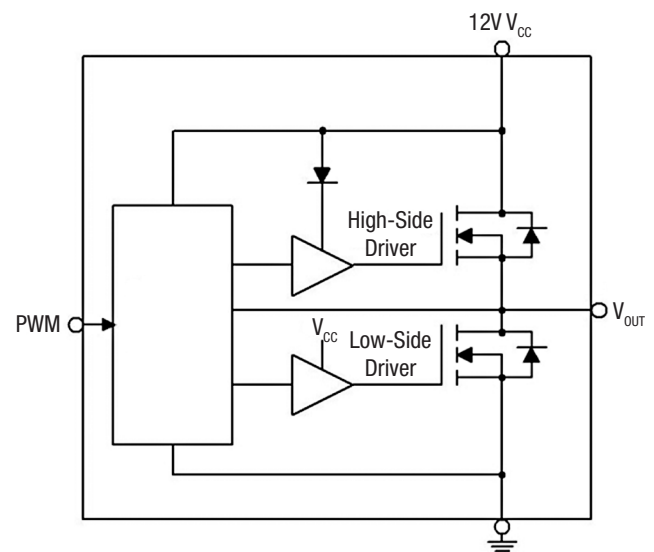
10-13. DirectFET® is a surface mount semiconductor for board-mounted power applications. It eliminates unnecessary elements of packaging that contribute to higher inductance and resistance, both thermal and electrical, so that its power capabilities exceed those of comparably sized packages.



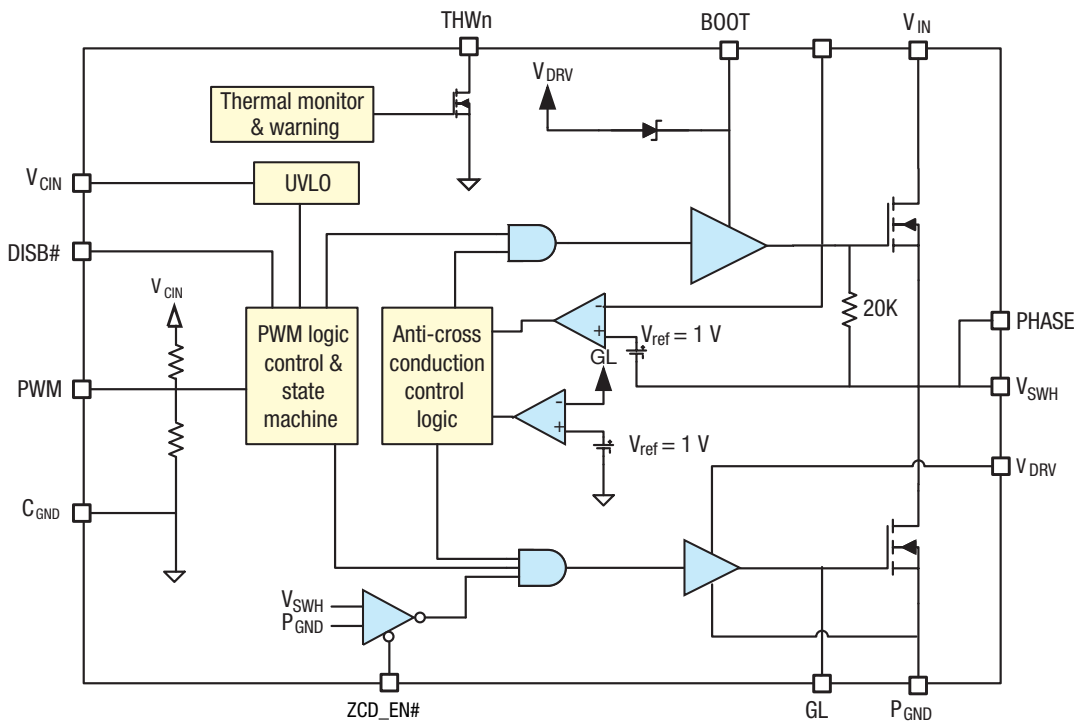
10-14. The PolarPAK™ package increases the power handling capability of power MOSFETs while keeping a PCB landing pattern no bigger in area than that of a standard SO-8 or PowerPAK® SO-8.

chip scale and ball grid array packages for low voltage power MOSFETs.

The International Rectifier DirectFET power package is surface-mount power MOSFET packaging technology designed for efficient topside cooling in a SO-8 footprint (Fig. 10-13). In combination with improved bottom-side cooling, the new package can be cooled on both sides to cut part count by up to 60%, and board space by as much as 50% compared to devices in standard or enhanced SO-8 packages. This effectively doubles current density (A/in²) at a lower total system cost. The DirectFET MOSFET family offerings match 20V and 30V synchronous buck converter MOSFET chipsets, followed by the addition at 30V targeted for high frequency operation. The DirectFET MOSFET family is also available in three different can



10-15. DrMOS Is a Multi-Chip Module That Contains Two MOSFETs and the Associated Drive Circuits.



10-16. Vishay Intertechnology's SiC632CD integrated DrMOS power stage for multiphase POL regulator applications combines power MOSFETs, advanced MOSFET gate driver IC, and a bootstrap Schottky diode.

is that the individual MOSFET's performance characteristics can be optimized, whereas monolithic MOSFETs produce higher on-resistance. Although the component cost of a multi-chip module may be higher than a monolithic part. The designer must view the cost from a system viewpoint.

sizes.

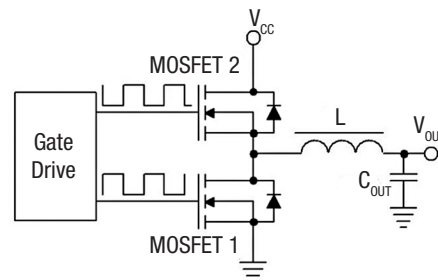
Vishay's PolarPAK® (Fig. 10-14) is a thermally enhanced package that facilitates MOSFET heat removal from an exposed top metal lead-frame connected to a drain surface in addition to a source lead-frame connected to a PCB. PolarPAK was specifically designed for easy handling and mounting onto the PCB with high-speed assembly equipment and thus to enable high assembly yields in mass-volume production. PolarPAK power MOSFETs have the same footprint dimensions of the standard SO-8, dissipate $1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{W}$ from their top surface and $1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{W}$ from their bottom surface. This provides a dual heat dissipation path that gives the devices twice the current density of the standard SO-8. With its improved junction-to-ambient thermal impedance, a PolarPAK power MOSFET can either handle more power or operate with a lower junction temperature. A lower junction temperature means a lower $R_{\text{DS(ON)}}$, which in turn means higher efficiency. A reduction in junction temperature of just $20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ can also result in a 2.5 times increase in lifetime reliability.

DrMOS

Intel's November 2004 DrMOS specification identified a multi-chip module consisting of a gate driver and power MOSFET. A major advantage of using this module (Fig. 10-15)

That is, space is saved, potential noise problems are minimized, and fewer components reduce production time and cost. Here, the multi-chip approach is superior to use of a monolithic part.

Unlike discrete solutions whose parasitic elements combined with board layout significantly reduce system efficiency, the DrMOS module is designed to both thermally and electrically minimize parasitic effects and improve overall system efficiency. In operation, the high-side MOSFET is optimized for fast switching while the low-side device is optimized for low $R_{\text{DS(ON)}}$. This arrangement ideally accommodates the low-duty-cycle switching requirements needed to convert the 12V bus to supply the processor core with 1.0V to 1.2V at up to 40A.



10-17. A Synchronous Rectifier Employs Two N-Channel MOSFETs, Which Provides More Efficient Rectification than Conventional Diodes.

SiC632CD

Vishay Intertechnology's SiC632CD integrated DrMOS power stage for multiphase POL regulator applications combines power MOSFETs, advanced MOSFET gate driver IC, and a bootstrap Schottky diode (Fig. 10-16). Housed in thermally enhanced 5 mm by 5 mm PowerPAK MLP55-31L package, it offers a 45 % smaller footprint compared with discrete solutions. The devices are suitable for industrial PC and high-current multiphase modules

used in networking and industrial applications.

This integrated device offers continuous current up to 40 A in the 5 mm by 5 mm PowerPAK MLP55-31L package. Besides its high-current capabilities and footprint savings, the power stage also lowers package parasitics to enable switching frequencies up to 2 MHz — further shrinking the overall solution size and profile by reducing the size of the output filter. Its high- and low-side MOSFETs utilize Gen IV TrenchFET® technology to reduce switching and conduction losses. The integrated power driver IC is compatible with a wide range of PWM controllers and supports tri-state PWM logic of 5 V.

The SiC632CD is optimized for synchronous buck converters, DC/DC voltage regulation modules, and multiphase VRDs for CPUs, GPUs, and memory. To increase light-load efficiency in these applications, the driver IC incorporates diode emulation mode circuitry and zero-current detect. An adaptive dead time control helps to further improve efficiency at all load points. To support PS4 mode light-load requirements for IMVP8, the power stages reduce current consumption to 5 μ A when systems are operating in standby mode, and they can awake from this state within 5 μ s. Protection features for the RoHS-compliant, halogen-free devices include undervoltage lockout (UVLO).

Power MOSFETs for Synchronous Rectifiers

Fig. 10-17 shows a simplified synchronous rectifier circuit. Typical synchronous rectifiers consist of high-side and low-side MOSFETs, which require different characteristics for an optimum design. Generally, the best high side MOSFET is one with the lowest $Q_{\text{switch}} \times R_{\text{DS(ON)}}$ figure-of-merit. Q_{switch} is defined as the post gate threshold portion of the gate-to-source charge plus the gate-to-drain charge ($Q_{\text{gs2}} + Q_{\text{gd}}$). In contrast, the best high side MOSFET must exhibit very low $R_{\text{DS(ON)}}$ coupled with good Cdv/dt immunity.

Power MOSFETs for Automotive Applications

Over the last two decades Power MOSFETs have evolved as a necessary power handling component is virtually all automobiles. To be eligible for use in automotive electronic systems these power MOSFETs must meet the AEC Q101 standard. Some new power MOSFETs are AEC Q101 qualified and will fit in the growing use of electric motors, solenoids and fuel injectors. Power MOSFETs have low on-resistance, 40 V and 100 V maximum operating voltage and the ability to tolerate the high-voltage transients such as load dump that can occur in automotive electrical systems.

An important feature of these new MOSFETs is their Moisture Sensitivity Level, or MSL. This relates to the

packaging and handling precautions for semiconductors and is an electronic standard for the time the device can be exposed to ambient room conditions of approximately 30°C/60%RH. The reason this is important is that thin fine-pitch devices could be damaged during surface mount technology (SMT) reflow when moisture trapped inside the component expands. Trapped moisture can damage a semiconductor. In extreme cases, cracks will extend to the component surface.

According to IPC/JEDEC's J-STD-20: Moisture/Reflow Sensitivity Classification for Plastic Integrated Circuit (IC) SMTs, there are eight levels of moisture sensitivity. Originally MOSFETs was rated at MSL 3, which allowed 168 hours of moisture testing. MSL 1 allows an unlimited time for the moisture test.

Today, there are new applications and power MOSFETs continue to grab them. This includes Electric Power Steering (EPS) and Micro Hybrid Vehicles, and chassis, drive train and power train systems. Besides meeting the AEC Q101 standard, they must meet the cost constraints imposed by automotive manufacturers.

For EPS, an electric motor driven by a power MOSFET provides steering assist to the driver of a vehicle. A typical system employs sensors detect the motion and torque of the steering column, and a computer module controls system performance. Software allows varying amounts of assistance to be applied depending on driving conditions.

Electric systems have a fuel efficiency advantage over conventional hydraulic power steering. The electrical approach eliminates the belt-driven hydraulic pump constantly running, whether assistance is required or not. Another major advantage is the elimination of a belt-driven engine accessory, and several high-pressure hydraulic hoses between the hydraulic pump, mounted on the engine, and the steering gear, mounted on the chassis. This simplifies manufacturing and maintenance.

A micro-hybrid system performs a stop-start function completely transparent to the driver, during idling, like waiting for a traffic light, a starter-alternator turns off the engine. Then, the engine restarts very quickly and silently when the drive steps on the accelerator. This technique cuts fuel consumption and gas emissions at standstill. Tests have shown that this can cut fuel consumption about 6%.

Power MOSFETs have played a major role make automotive systems more reliable. Among the traditional mechanical components that have been eliminated are shafts, pumps, hoses, fluids, coolers, etc., which reduces the weight of the vehicle and improves fuel efficiency. Safety improvement is another feature of electronic controls that provide more automated functions that cannot

be achieved by mechanical techniques. Compared with mechanical systems, the electronics trend also allows easier modification or upgrade of automotive systems.

MSL-1 preconditioning is required for surface mount capable devices that are put on Temperature Cycling, H3TRB, IOL, and Autoclave tests. If straight leaded devices (such as I-PAK or TO-262) are used, then the devices are required to undergo the preconditioning with a third reflow exposure in lieu of the surface mounting step

MOSFETs and BJT Comparison

Power MOSFETs are capable of operating at very high frequencies compared with Bipolar Junction Transistors (BJTs) whose switching speed is much slower than for a power MOSFET of similar size and voltage rating. Typical rise and fall times of power MOSFETs are of the order of several nanoseconds which is two orders of magnitude faster than bipolar devices of similar voltage rating and active area. BJTs are limited to frequencies of less than 100kHz whereas power MOSFETs can operate up to 1MHz before switching losses become unacceptably high. Recent advances in the design and processing of MOSFETs are pushing this frequency limit higher.

Power MOSFETs are voltage controlled devices with simple drive circuitry requirements. Power BJTs on the other hand are current controlled devices requiring large base drive currents to keep the device in the ON state. Power MOSFETs have been replacing power BJTs in power application due to faster switching capability and ease of drive, despite the very advanced state of manufacturability and lower costs of BJTs.

BJTs suffer from thermal runaway. The forward voltage drop of a BJT decreases with increasing temperature potentially leading to destruction. This is of special significance when several devices are paralleled in order to reduce forward voltage drop. Power MOSFETs can be paralleled easily because the forward voltage increases with temperature, ensuring an even distribution of current among all components. They can withstand simultaneous application of high current and high voltage without undergoing destructive failure due to second breakdown. However, at high breakdown voltages ($> \sim 200V$) the on-state voltage drop of the power MOSFET becomes higher than that of a similar size bipolar device with similar voltage rating, making it more attractive to use the bipolar power transistor at the expense of worse high-frequency performance.

Breakdown voltage (BV_{DSS}) is the drain-to-source voltage at which a current of 250 μA starts to flow between source and drain while the gate and the source are shorted together. With no bias on the gate, the drain voltage is entirely supported by the reverse-biased body-drain p-n

junction. Breakdown voltage is primarily determined by the resistivity of the epitaxial layer.

All applications of power MOSFET switches require some guardbanding when specifying BVDSS rating. It is important to remember that there is a price to be paid for this in the form of either higher $R_{DS(on)}$ or larger die. There may be applications where a reduction of conservative guardbanding on BVDSS can be justified by an improved $R_{DS(on)}$ specification or lower cost without jeopardizing performance or reliability.

Bipolar transistors have ratings for maximum current under continuous and pulsed conditions. Exceeding these ratings usually result in device failure. Current ratings on MOSFET transistors have a different meaning because they behave as a resistor when they turn on. This means that the maximum voltage drop or heat generated determines the maximum current. Turning the current on and off at high speeds reduces the average power or heat generated, thereby increasing the maximum allowable current.

Power semiconductor Reliability

Excessive operating voltage can cause power semiconductor failures because the devices may have small spacing between their internal elements. An even worse condition for a power semiconductor is to have high voltage and high current present simultaneously. A few nanoseconds at an excessive voltage or excessive current can cause a failure. Most power semiconductor data sheets specify the maximum voltage that can be applied under all conditions. The military has shown very clearly that operating semiconductors at 20% below their voltage rating provides a substantial improvement in their reliability.

Another common killer of power semiconductors is heat. Not only does high temperature destroy devices, but even operation at elevated, non-destructive temperatures can degrade useful life. Data sheets specify a maximum junction temperature, which is typically between 100°C and 200°C for silicon. Most power transistors have a maximum junction rating of 125°C to 150°C, the safe operating temperature is much lower.

Transient Effects

Power semiconductors can be destroyed by very short pulses of energy. A major source of destructive transients is caused by turning on or off an inductive load. Protection against these problems involves a careful combination of operating voltage and current margins and protective devices.

Power dv/dt and di/dt

The terms dv/dt and di/dt reflect a time rate of change of voltage (dv/dt) or current (di/dt) describe their reaction to turning on or off a reactive load. These problems can occur in power semiconductor switches because all sections of the device do not behave in an identical manner when subjected to very high rates of change. It is not only important to look at the dv/dt and di/dt values generated within a circuit, but also turn on and turn off times as well.

EMI

Switching power on and off at a rapid rate can cause electromagnetic interference (EMI) that can affect nearby electronic systems. Domestic and international standards define the amount of EMI that can be emitted.

Unclamped Inductive Switching (UIS)

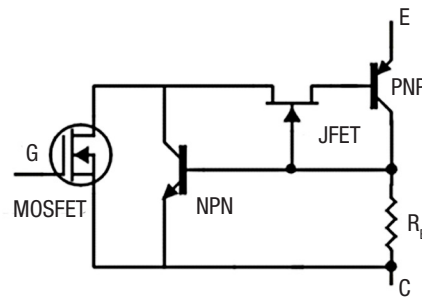
Whenever current through an inductance is turned off quickly, the resulting magnetic field induces a counter electromagnetic force (CEMF) that can build up surprisingly high potentials across the switch. With transistor switches, the full buildup of this induced potential may far exceed the rated voltage breakdown of the transistor, resulting in catastrophic failure.

There are two failure modes when subjecting a MOSFET to UIS. These failure mechanisms are considered as either active or passive. The active mode results when the avalanche current forces the MOSFET's parasitic bipolar transistor into conduction. In the passive mode the instantaneous device temperature reaches a critical value. At this elevated temperature the MOSFET's parasitic bipolar transistor causes catastrophic thermal runaway. In both cases the MOSFET is destroyed.

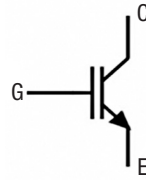
Cost Considerations

As a semiconductor chip gets larger its cost grows exponentially. And, there is the cost of the package that houses the integrated power device and the cost of interconnections. In deciding whether to integrate a power semiconductor into an integrated circuit or use two separate devices, look at the die size of each. If an integrated power semiconductor and a discrete power semiconductor have large die, the die cost dominates the overall cost, it would be cheaper to use two parts.

Integrated power semiconductors make sense when the die sizes are moderate, or there are multiple outputs. This is so because the package and handling costs offset the increased silicon cost. A major impact on cost is the number of good devices that can be obtained from



10-18 Simplified IGBT equivalent circuit



10-19. IGBT circuit symbol

silicon wafer, usually called yield. Not only does a larger die size mean a disproportionately larger cost, but key parameters may not be the same for all functions of each device on the die.

IGBT

An insulated-gate bipolar transistor (IGBT) is a three-terminal power semiconductor device primarily used as an electronic switch that combines high efficiency and relatively fast switching. The IGBT provides the simple gate-drive characteristics of MOSFETs with the high-current and low-saturation-voltage capability of bipolar transistors. It combines an isolated-gate FET for the control input and a bipolar power transistor as a switch in a single device.

The IGBT is used in medium- to high-power applications like switch-mode power supplies, traction motor control and induction heating. Large IGBT modules typically consist of many devices in parallel and can have very high current-handling capabilities in the order of hundreds of amperes with blocking voltages of 6000 V. These IGBTs can control loads of hundreds of kilowatts. It is equally suitable in resonant-mode converter circuits.

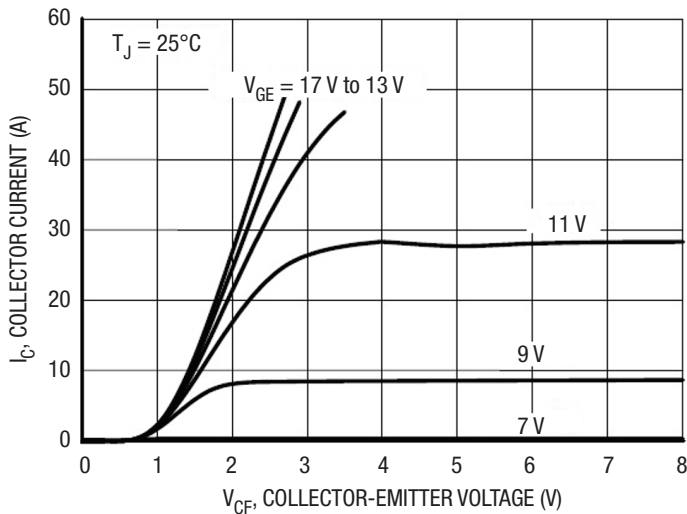
The main advantages of IGBT over a Power MOSFET and a BJT are:

1. Low on-state voltage drop due to conductivity modulation and on-state current density. So smaller chip size is possible, reducing cost.
2. Low driving power and a simple drive circuit due to the input MOS gate structure, which allows relatively easy control compared with current controlled devices in high voltage and high current applications.
3. Compared with a bipolar transistor, it has better current conduction capability as well as forward and reverse blocking capabilities.

Main disadvantages are:

1. Slower switching speed compared with a power MOSFET, but better than a BJT.
2. Possibility of latchup due to the internal PNPN thyristor structure.

A simple equivalent circuit model of an IGBT is shown in Fig. 10-18. It contains MOSFET, JFET, NPN and PNP transistors. The collector of the PNP is connected to the base of the NPN and the collector of the NPN is connected to the base of the PNP through the JFET. The NPN and PNP transistors represent the parasitic thyristor that



10-20. Output characteristics of the 15A, 600V NGTB15N60EG at 25°C

constitutes a regenerative feedback loop. The resistor RB represents the shorting of the base-emitter of the NPN transistor to ensure that the thyristor does not latch up, which will lead to the IGBT latchup. The JFET represents the constriction of current between any two neighboring IGBT cells. It supports most of the voltage and allows the MOSFET to be a low voltage type and consequently have a low $R_{DS(ON)}$ value. A circuit symbol for the IGBT is shown in Fig. 10-19. It has three terminals called Collector (C), Gate (G) and Emitter (E).

In general, high voltage, high current and low switching frequencies favor the IGBT while low voltage, low current and high switching frequencies are the domain of the MOSFET.

There two types of IGBTs: Non-punch-through (NPT) and punch-through (PT). The PT type has an extra buffer layer that performs two functions:

- Avoids failure by punch-through action because the depletion region expansion at applied high voltage is restricted by this layer.
- Reduces the tail current during turn-off and shortens the fall time of the IGBT.

NPT IGBTs have equal forward and reverse breakdown voltage, so they are suitable for ac applications. PT IGBTs have less reverse breakdown voltage than the forward breakdown voltage, so they are applicable for dc circuits where devices are not required to support voltage in the reverse direction.

The IGBT has a much lower “on-state” resistance, R_{ON} than an equivalent MOSFET. This means that the I^2R drop across the bipolar output structure for a given switching current is much lower. The forward blocking operation of the IGBT transistor is identical to a power MOSFET.

When used as static controlled switch, the IGBT has

voltage and current ratings similar to that of the bipolar transistor. However, the presence of an isolated gate in an IGBT makes it a lot simpler to drive than the BJT as it requires much less drive power.

An IGBT is turned “ON” or “OFF” by activating and deactivating its Gate terminal. Applying a positive input voltage signal across the Gate and the Emitter will keep the device in its “ON” state, while making the input gate signal zero or slightly negative will cause it to turn “OFF” in much the same way as a bipolar transistor or MOSFET. Another advantage of the IGBT is that it has a much lower on-state channel resistance than a standard MOSFET.

The IGBT is a voltage-controlled device, so it only requires a small voltage on the gate to maintain conduction through the device unlike BJT’s that require that the Base current is continuously supplied in a sufficient enough quantity to maintain saturation.

Also, it is a unidirectional device, meaning it can only switch current in the “forward direction”, that is from collector to emitter unlike MOSFET’s that have bi-directional current switching capabilities (controlled in the forward direction and uncontrolled in the reverse direction).

The principal of operation and gate drive circuits for the IGBT are similar to that of the N-channel power MOSFET. The basic difference is that the resistance offered by the main conducting channel when current flows through the device in its “ON” state is very much smaller in the IGBT. Because of this, the current ratings are much higher than an equivalent power MOSFET.

The main advantages of using the IGBT over other types of transistors are its high voltage capability, low ON-resistance, ease of drive, relatively fast switching speeds and combined with zero gate drive current makes it a good choice for moderate speed, high voltage applications such as in pulse-width modulated (PWM), variable speed control, switch-mode power supplies or solar powered DC-AC inverter and frequency converter applications operating in the hundreds of kilohertz range.

One of the main advantages of the IGBT transistor is the simplicity by which it can be driven “ON” by applying a positive gate voltage, or switched “OFF” by making the gate signal zero or slightly negative allowing it to be used in a variety of switching applications.

With its lower on-state resistance and conduction losses as well as its ability to switch high voltages at high frequencies without damage makes the IGBT ideal for driving inductive loads such as coil windings, electromagnets and dc motors.

ON Semiconductor’s NGTB15N60EG IGBT features a robust and cost effective Non-Punch Through (NPT) Trench construction. It is intended for switching applications and offers both low on state voltage and minimal

switching loss. Therefore the IGBT is well suited for motor drive control and other hard switching applications. Incorporated into the device is a rugged co-packaged reverse recovery diode with a low forward voltage. Figure 10-20 is this IGBT's output characteristics at 25°C.

Features

- Low Saturation Voltage Resulting in Low Conduction Loss
- Low Switching Loss in Higher Frequency Applications
- Soft Fast Reverse Recovery Diode
- 10_μs Short Circuit Capability
- Excellent Current versus Package Size Performance Density
- This is a Pb-Free Device

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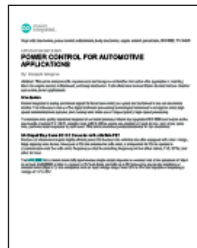


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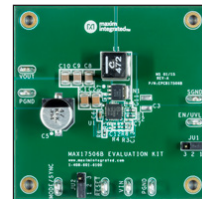
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CHAPTER 11:

WIDE BANDGAP SEMICONDUCTORS

Wide bandgap (WBG) semiconductor materials allow smaller, faster, more reliable power electronic components and with higher efficiency than their silicon-based counterparts. These capabilities make it possible to reduce weight, volume, and life-cycle costs in a wide range of power applications. Harnessing these capabilities can lead to dramatic energy savings in industrial processing and consumer appliances, accelerate widespread use of electric vehicles and fuel cells, and help integrate renewable energy onto the electric grid.

WBG semiconductors permit devices to operate at much higher temperatures, voltages, and frequencies—making the power electronic modules using these materials significantly more powerful and energy-efficient than those made from conventional semiconductor materials. Figure 11-1 compares the breakdown voltages of silicon and WBG semiconductors SiC and GaN.

WBG semiconductors are expected to pave the way for exciting innovations in power electronics, solid-state lighting, and other diverse applications across multiple industrial and clean energy devices with vastly superior performance compared to current technology. **Projected WBG benefits are:**

- Elimination of up to 90% of the power losses that currently occur during ac-to-dc and dc-to-ac power conversion.
- Operation up to 10 times higher than Si-based devices, which will enhance high-power performance.
- Operation up to higher maximum temperature of Si-based devices, which will provide better overall system reliability.
- Enabling of smaller and lighter systems with reduced lifecycle energy use, along with opportunities for new applications.
- Operation at higher frequencies than Si-based devices,

making possible more compact, less costly product designs.

As manufacturing capabilities improve and market applications expand, costs are expected to decrease, making WBG-based devices competitive with less expensive Si-based devices. Several manufacturing challenges must be addressed to make WBG materials more cost effective, including:

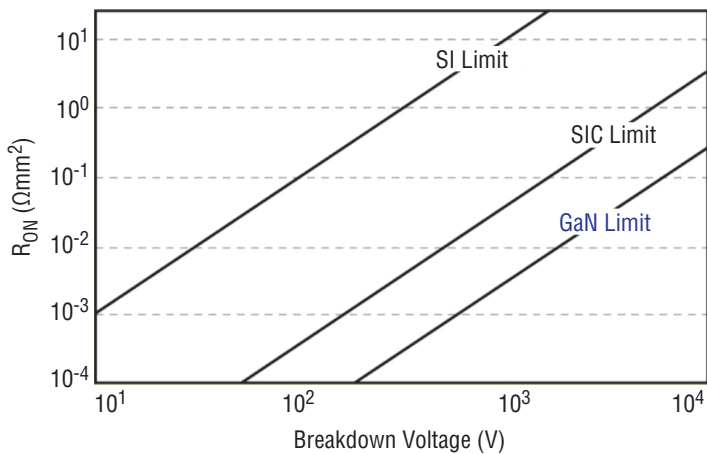
- Cost of producing larger-diameter wafers needs to be reduced.
- Novel device designs that effectively exploit the properties of WBG materials are needed to achieve the voltage and current ratings required in certain applications.
- Alternative packaging materials or designs are also needed to withstand the high temperatures in WBG devices.
- Existing systems may have to be redesigned to integrate the WBG devices in ways that deliver their unique capabilities.

TABLE 11-1. WBG MATERIAL COMPARISON

Material	Chemical Symbol	Bandgap Energy (eV)
Germanium	Ge	0.7
Silicon	Si	1.1
Gallium Arsenide	GaAs	1.4
Silicon Carbide	SiC	3.3
Gallium Nitride	GaN	3.4
Diamond	C	5.5

SiC

Using SiC (silicon carbide) can reduce on-resistance to two orders of magnitude in compared with existing Si devices. Use of SiC devices can reduce power loss extensively, when applied to power conversion systems. These SiC devices such as power MOSFET or IGBT



Courtesy of Efficient Power Conversion

11-1. Comparison of breakdown voltage for Si, SiC, and GaN.

are used in combination with rectifier devices such as Schottky barrier diode (SBD). SiC-SBD has been introduced. Within the last few years, SiC power MOSFETs have been manufactured after being able to produce usable SiC material.

GaN

Silicon power MOSFETs have not been able to keep pace with evolutionary changes in the power electronics systems industry. The power electronics industry reached the theoretical limit of silicon MOSFETs and now must go to another semiconductor material whose performance matches today's newer systems. The new material is gallium nitride (GaN), a high electron mobility (HEMT) semiconductor, which is poised to usher in new power devices that are superior to the present state of the art. Although GaN is young in its life cycle, it will certainly see significant improvements in the years to come.

Gallium nitride (GaN) is grown on top of a silicon substrate. The end result is a fundamentally simple, elegant, cost-effective solution for power switching. This device behaves similarly to Silicon MOSFETs with some exceptions.

GaN transistors behave in a similar manner to silicon power MOSFETs. A positive bias on the gate relative to the source causes the device to turn on. When the bias is removed from the gate, the electrons under it are dispersed into the GaN, recreating the depletion region, and once it the capability to block voltage. Among GaN's features:

1. GaN offers superior performance compared with both silicon and silicon carbide.
2. Device-grade gallium nitride can be grown on top of silicon wafers.

3. GaN-on-silicon offers the advantage of self-isolation and therefore efficient monolithic power integrated circuits can be fabricated economically.

4. Enhancement-mode (normally off) and depletion mode (normally on) GaN devices are available.

SiC Power MOSFET

Cree is the first to come up with a viable MOSFET. The ability to make these parts rests on the gate structure, which requires a physics and chemistry solution. The company still has some "tweaking" to do with the process, but it appears to be well ahead of the other companies that have ventured into this technology.

The commercial production of 1200 V SiC power MOSFETs is now feasible because of recent advances in substrate quality, improvements in epitaxy, optimized device design, advances made in increasing channel mobility with nitridation annealing, and optimization of device fabrication processes. SiC is a better power semiconductor than silicon (Si) because SiC has a much higher electric field breakdown capability (almost 10x), higher thermal conductivity, and higher temperature operation capability (wide electronic band gap).

SiC excels over Si as a semiconductor material in 600V and higher-rated breakdown voltage devices. SiC Schottky diodes at 600V and 1200V ratings are commercially available today and are already accepted as the best solution for efficiency improvement in boost-converter topologies as well as in solar inverters by substituting them for the previously used Si PiN free-wheeling diodes that have significant switching losses

The SiC MOSFET being discussed here is a 1200V, 20A device from Cree that has a 100mΩ $R_{DS(on)}$ at a +15V gate-source voltage. Besides the inherent reduction in on-resistance, SiC also offers a substantially reduced on-resistance variation over operating temperature. From 25°C to 150°C, SiC variations are in the range of 20% versus 200% to 300% for Si. The SiC MOSFET die is capable of operation at junction temperatures greater than 200°C, but for this particular example it is limited by its TO-247 plastic package to 150°C.

The technology also benefits from inherently low gate charge, which allows designers to use high switching frequencies and thereby specify smaller passive components such as inductors and capacitors.

GaN Power Transistors

Performance of silicon-based MOSFETs is reaching its upper performance limit. One company developing a higher performance alternative is Efficient Power Conversion (EPC). EPC produces gallium nitride (GaN) on silicon wafers using standard MOS processing equip-

ment. EPC produces gallium nitride on silicon wafers using standard MOS processing equipment. GaN's exceptionally high electron mobility and low temperature coefficient allows very low $R_{DS(ON)}$, while its lateral device structure and majority carrier diode provide exceptionally low Q_G (total gate charge) and zero Q_{RR} (source-drain recovery charge). As a result, GaN devices can handle tasks benefitted by very high switching speeds.

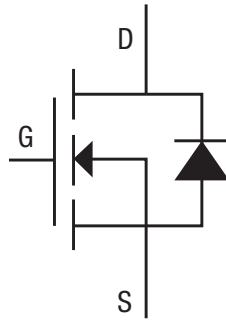
Initially, GaN-on-silicon transistors were depletion mode types. That is, they operated like a normally on power switch that required a negative voltage to turn them off. The ideal mode for designers is an enhancement mode transistor that is normally non-conducting and requires a positive voltage to turn it on, like the present silicon-only N-channel MOSFETs. EPC produces an enhancement mode GaN transistor using a proprietary process with a GaN-on-silicon structure. In operation, a positive gate voltage turns the enhancement mode GaN transistor on.

An advantage of the GaN transistor is that its blocking voltage rating depends on the distance between the drain and gate; the longer the distance, the higher the voltage rating. Another GaN advantage is its very low on-resistance.

GaN transistors borrowed the same nomenclature as their silicon brethren: gate, drain, and source, as shown Fig. 11-2. In addition, on-resistance and breakdown voltage of a GaN device have a similar meaning as their silicon counterparts. On-resistance ($R_{DS(ON)}$) versus gate-source voltage curves are similar to silicon MOSFETs. The temperature coefficient of GaN FETs on-resistance is similar to the silicon MOSFET as it is positive, but the magnitude is somewhat less.

GaN has a higher critical electric field strength than silicon. Its higher electron mobility enables a GaN device to have a smaller size for a given on-resistance and breakdown voltage than a silicon semiconductor. Compared to silicon devices, this also allows devices to be physically smaller and their electrical terminals closer together for a given breakdown voltage requirement.

The two types are the depletion mode and enhancement mode. The depletion mode transistor is normally on and is turned off with a negative voltage relative to the drain and source electrodes. In contrast, the enhancement mode transistor is normally off and is turned on by positive voltage applied to the gate. Depletion mode transistors are inconvenient because at start-up of a power converter, a negative bias must first be applied to



11-2. Enhancement mode GaN has a circuit schematic similar to silicon MOSFETs with gate (G), drain (D), and source (S).

the power devices or a short circuit will result. Enhancement mode devices do not have this problem: with zero bias on the gate, an enhancement mode device is off and will not conduct current.

The threshold of enhancement mode GaN FETs is lower than that of silicon MOSFETs. This is made possible by the almost flat relationship between threshold and temperature along with the very low gate-to-drain capacitance (CGD). The device starts to conduct significant current at 1.6V, so care must be taken to ensure a low impedance path from gate-to-source when the device needs to be held off during high speed switching in a rectifier function.

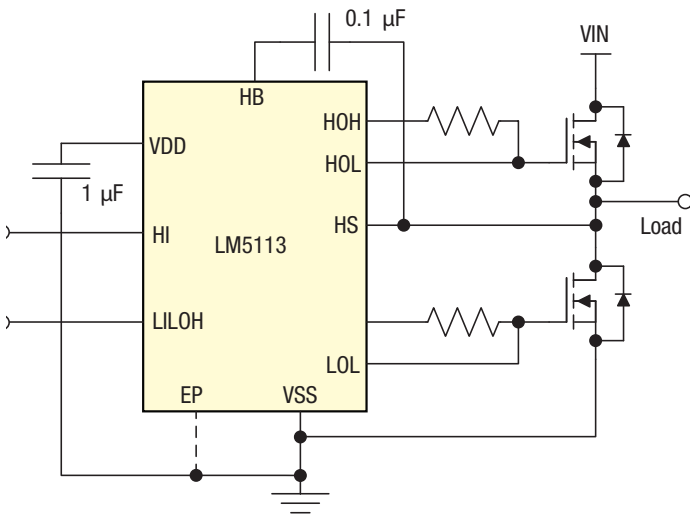
The threshold of depletion mode GaN HEMTs ranges from -5 V to -20 V.

Besides its low $R_{DS(ON)}$, the lateral structure of the enhanced GaN FET also makes it a very low-capacitance device. It can switch hundreds of volts in nanoseconds, giving it multi-megahertz capability. With a lateral structure, C_{GD} comes only from a small corner of the gate and is much lower than the same capacitance in a vertical MOSFET.

Gate-to-source capacitance (C_{GS}) consists of the junction from the gate in channel, and the capacitance of the dielectric between the gate and the field plate. C_{GS} is large compared with C_{GD} , giving GaN FETs good dv/dt immunity, but still small compared with silicon MOSFETs. The drain-to-source capacitance (C_{DS}) is also small, being limited to the capacitance across the dielectric from the field plate to the drain. Capacitance versus voltage curves for GaN FETs are similar to those for silicon, except that for a similar resistance, its capacitance is significantly lower.

The GaN transistor structure is a purely lateral device, without the parasitic bipolar junction common to silicon MOSFETs. Therefore, the enhancement GaN reverse bias or "diode" operation has a different mechanism, but a similar function. With zero bias gate-to-source there is an absence of electrons under the gate region. As the drain voltage decreases, a positive bias on the gate is created relative to the drift region, injecting electrons under the gate. Thus, there are no minority carriers involved in conduction, and therefore no reverse recovery losses.

Although Q_{RR} is zero, output capacitance (C_{OSS}) has to be charged and discharged with every switching cycle. For devices of similar $R_{DS(ON)}$, enhancement GaN FETs have significantly lower COSS than silicon MOSFETs. It takes a bias on the gate greater than the



11-3. EPC GaN transistors employ the Texas Instruments’ LM5113 half-bridge gate driver IC.

threshold voltage to turn on the enhancement FET in the reverse direction; the forward voltage of the “diode” is higher than silicon transistors.

In the cascode configuration for depletion mode devices, the low-voltage silicon MOSFET has very low Q_{RR} due to its body diode, which is orders of magnitude lower than a high-voltage silicon device with similar ratings to the high-voltage HEMT.

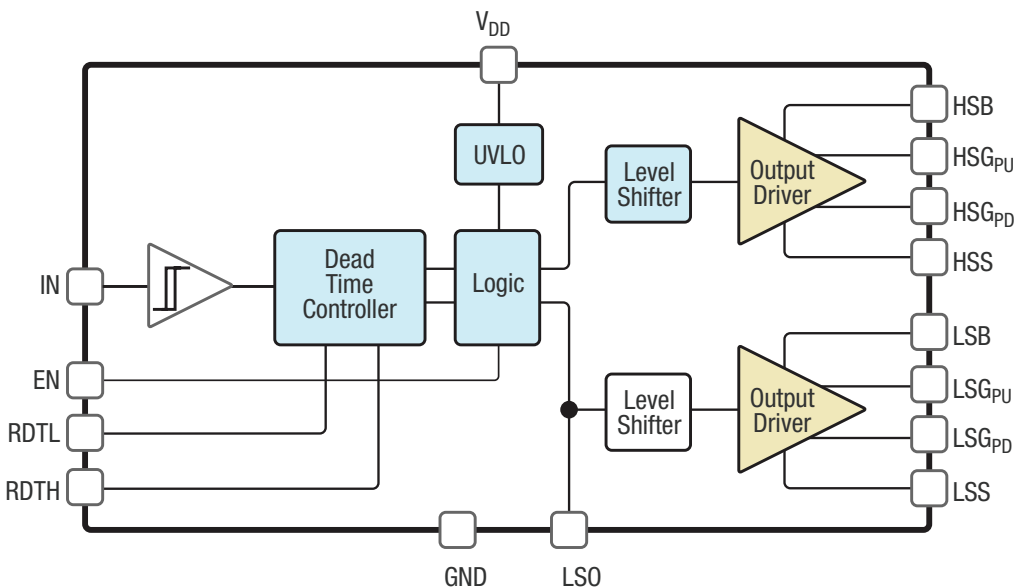
The three most important GaN FET parameters are:

- Maximum allowable gate voltage
- Gate threshold voltage
- Body diode voltage drop

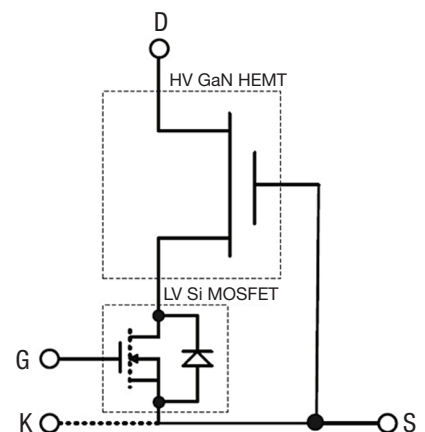
The maximum allowable gate-source voltage for an enhanced GaN FET of 6V is low compared with traditional silicon. The gate voltage is also low compared to most power MOSFETs, but does not suffer from as strong a negative temperature coefficient. And, the body diode forward drop can be a volt higher than comparable silicon MOSFETs.

Because the total Miller charge (Q_{GD}) is much lower for an eGaN FET than for a similar on-resistance power MOSFET, it is possible to turn on the device much faster. Too high a dv/dt can reduce efficiency by creating shoot-through during the “hard” switching transition. It would therefore be an advantage to adjust the gate drive pull-up resistance to minimize transition time without inducing other unwanted loss mechanisms. This also allows adjustment of the switch node voltage overshoot and ringing for improved EMI. For eGaN FETs, where the threshold voltage is low, the simplest general solution is to split the gate pull-up and pull-down connections in the driver and allow the insertion of a discrete resistor as needed.

The LM5113, from Texas Instruments, is an example of an eGaN FET optimized half-bridge driver that implements bootstrap regulation (Fig. 11-3). Integrated in the undervoltage lockout is an overvoltage clamp that limits bootstrap voltage to 5.2 V ensuring sufficient reliable operation under all circuit conditions. In addition to the clamp, there are separate source and sink pins, >50 V/ns dv/dt capability, matched propagation time, 0.5 Ω pull down, and separate high-side and low-side inputs to unlock the efficiencies the eGaN FETs enable.



11-4. PE29100 functional diagram.

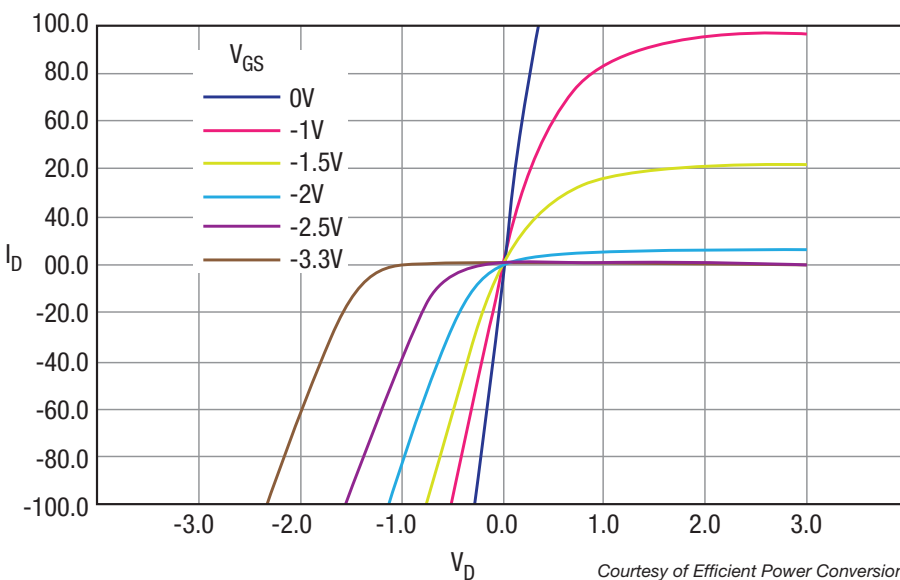


11-5. Transphorm employs a cascode circuit to drive the GaN device. Drain, gate, and source are similar to a silicon MOSFET’s D, G, and S, and K is the Kelvin contact for the gate return.

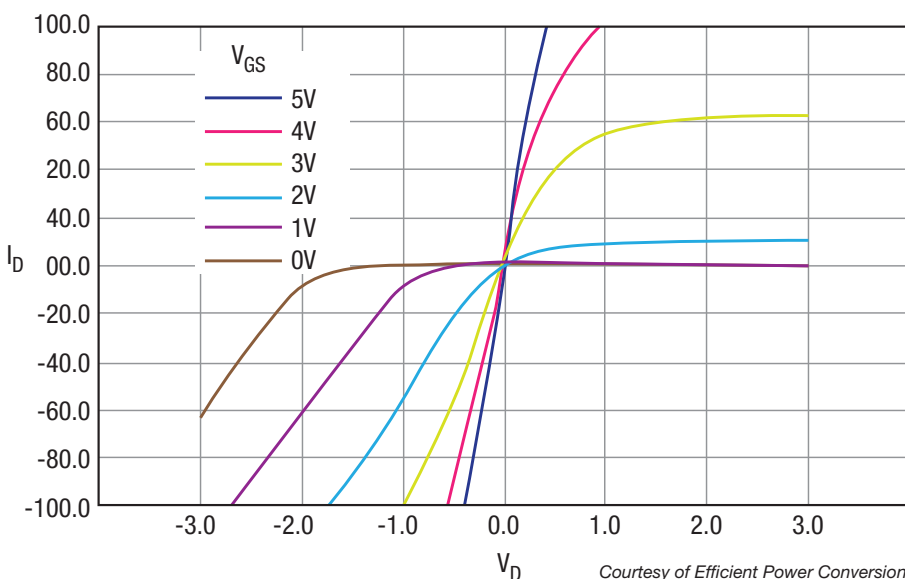
PE29100

The PE29100 from Peregrine Semiconductor (Fig. 11-4) is an integrated high-speed driver intended to control the gates of external power devices, such as enhancement mode gallium nitride (e.g. eGaN[®]) transistors. The outputs of the PE29100 are capable of providing switching transition speeds in the sub-nanosecond range for hard switching applications up to 33 MHz. The PE29100 is available in a flip chip package.

The PE29100 is manufactured on Peregrine's UltraC-MOS process, a patented variation of silicon-on-insulator (SOI) technology on a sapphire substrate, offering the performance of GaAs with the economy and integration of conventional CMOS.



11-6. Output characteristics of a depletion mode GaN transistor.



11-7. Output characteristics of an enhancement mode GaN transistor.

To allow normally off operation of a depletion mode GaN HEMT, it is often packaged in cascode with a low-voltage silicon MOSFET to allow normally off operation. The cascode configuration provides the ruggedness of a silicon gate, coupled with the improved voltage blocking characteristics of a high-voltage GaN HEMT. Figure 11-5 shows the cascode configuration with a depletion mode HEMT employed by Transphorm. There are no special requirements for the gate driver since the gate is connected to a standard silicon gate rated at ± 20 V with threshold around 2 V.

The layout is most critical regardless if the device is e-mode, d-mode, or cascode configuration. All of these devices switch extremely fast and therefore the parasitic inductance of the layout must be as small as possible; in the range of 0.4 nH to 2.0 nH is desirable.

There are two types of GaN transistors, enhancement mode and depletion mode. Enhancement mode is normally off and is turned on by a positive pulse. Depletion mode is normally on and is turned off by a negative pulse. Output characteristics of a depletion mode GaN transistor are in Fig. 11-6. Figure 11-7 shows the output characteristics of an enhancement mode GaN transistor.

LMG5200

Figure 11-8 shows the LMG5200 from Texas Instruments, a half-bridge, GaN power stage with a highly integrated high-side and low-side gate drivers that includes built-in UVLO protection circuitry and an overvoltage clamp circuitry. The clamp circuitry limits the bootstrap refresh operation to ensure that the high-side gate driver overdrive does not exceed 5.4 V. The device integrates two 19-m Ω GaN FETs in a half-bridge configuration. The device can be used in many isolated and non-isolated topologies, allowing very simple integration. The package is designed to minimize the loop inductance while keeping the PCB design simple. The drive strengths for turn-on and turn-off are optimized to ensure high-voltage slew rates without causing any excessive ringing on the gate or power loop.

Propagation delays between the high-side gate driver and low-side gate

driver are matched to allow very tight control of dead time. Controlling the dead time is critical in GaN-based applications to maintain high efficiency. HI and LI can be independently controlled to minimize the third quadrant conduction of the low-side FET for hard switched buck converters. A very small propagation mismatch between the HI and LI to the drivers for both the falling and rising thresholds ensures dead times of <10 ns. Co-packaging the GaN FET half-bridge with the driver ensures minimized common source inductance.

This minimized inductance has a significant performance impact on hard-switched topologies.

The built-in bootstrap circuit with clamp prevents the high-side gate drive from exceeding the GaN FETs maximum gate-to-source voltage (V_{GS}) without any additional external circuitry. The built-in driver has an undervoltage lockout (UVLO) on the VDD and bootstrap (HB-HS) rails. When the voltage is below the UVLO threshold voltage, the device ignores both the HI and LI signals to prevent the GaN FETs from being partially turned on. Below



11-10. The all-SiC 300A, 1.2kV half-bridge module is packaged in industry-standard 62mm housing.

UVLO, if there is sufficient voltage ($V_{CC} > 2.5\text{ V}$), the driver actively pulls the high-side and low-side gate driver output low. The UVLO threshold hysteresis of 200 mV prevents chattering and unwanted turn-on due to voltage spikes. Use an external VCC bypass capacitor with a value of 0.1 μF or higher. A size of 0402 is recommended to minimize trace length to the pin. You should place the bypass and bootstrap capacitors as close to the device as possible to minimize parasitic inductance.

All-SiC 300A

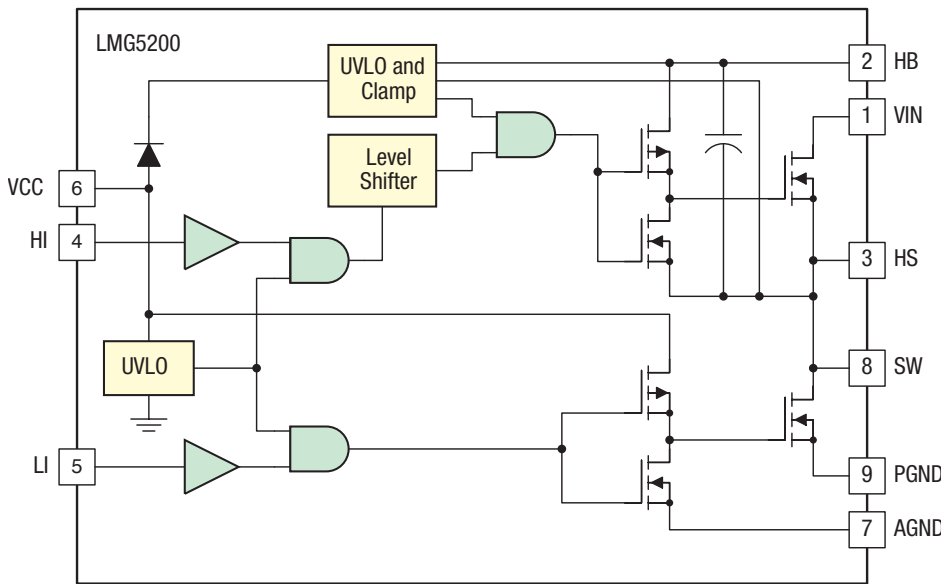
Cree's all-SiC 300A, 1.2kV half-bridge module circuit (Fig. 11-9) is packaged in industry-standard 62mm housing (Fig. 11-10). The module reduces energy loss due to switching by more than five times compared to the equivalent silicon solution. This efficiency enables an all-SiC high power converter rated up to the megawatt level.

The all-SiC 62mm half-bridge module allows designers to reduce the amount of magnetic and cooling elements, delivering double the power density and a lower system cost while also reducing end user cost of ownership. Offering a simplified two-level topology that is feasible at higher frequencies, the new module can also eliminate the need to invest in multi-level silicon-based solutions.

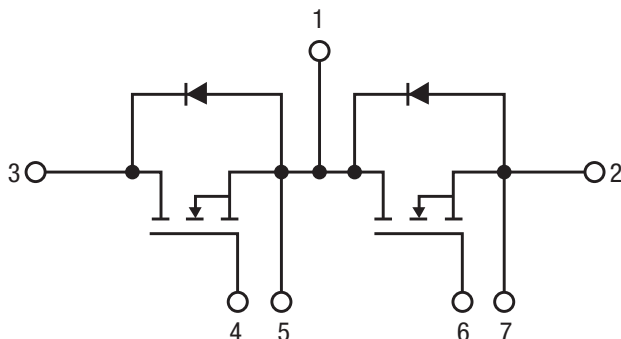
This Cree SiC power module is available with multiple gate driver options and is pin-compatible to standard 62mm half-bridge modules, including IGBT modules rated at 450A or more. This allows designers to quickly and easily evaluate the module's unparalleled capabilities.

The all-SiC 300A, 1.2kV half-bridge module is available as part number CAS300M12BM2. Companion gate drivers are also available.

A newer module design also configured as in Fig. 11-9 is said to be the industry's most optimized to




11-8. LMG5200 half-bridge with GaN output transistors and internal gate drivers.



11-9. Configuration of the Cree half-bridge.

achieve the unique benefits of SiC technology—with a 66% reduction in module inductance to 5.5nH, compared to competitive power products at 15nH. This reduction in module inductance enables faster switching speeds, higher frequency operation, and ultra-low losses.

Available as part number CAS325M12HM2, the high-performance power module is configured in a half-bridge topology comprised of seven 1.2kV 25mΩ C2M SiC MOSFETs and six 1.2kV 50A Z-Rec Schottky diodes. The companion gate driver (CGD15HB62LP) is specifically designed for integration with the module to fit within the 62mm mounting footprint. An engineering evaluation kit that includes both the module and the gate driver is also available so design engineers can quickly and easily test the performance of the new device in their systems. 

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