

Buck Converter Design

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Buck Converter Design

Published by Infineon Technologies North America
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Durham, NC 27703
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DN 2013-01

Subjects: CCM Buck Converter Design

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1 Introduction

A buck converter is the most basic SMPS topology. It is widely used throughout the industry to convert a higher input voltage into a lower output voltage. The buck converter (voltage step-down converter) is a non-isolated converter, hence galvanic isolation between input and output is not given.

2 Buck topology

The buck converter (Figure 2.1 (Buck Converter – Basic Diagram)

) is the most popular topology used to distribute power in complex systems, e.g. server motherboards, broadband communication boards, etc. It provides the required local voltage from a higher voltage bus that is common to multiple converters in the system. The converter itself consists of one active switch controlled by an IC, a rectifier and filter elements. This great simplicity allows for cost effective high efficient power distribution throughout the application.

The buck converter has the filter inductor on the output side, which provides a smooth continuous output current waveform to the load. This could be considered a qualitative benefit but requires special considerations for big load transients.

The input is exposed to the switch S1. Therefore the input current is a highly dynamic waveform. This is undesired as the switched current emits noise into the entire system. A proper decoupling is inevitable. That is why capacitor C1 is a crucial part of the topology.

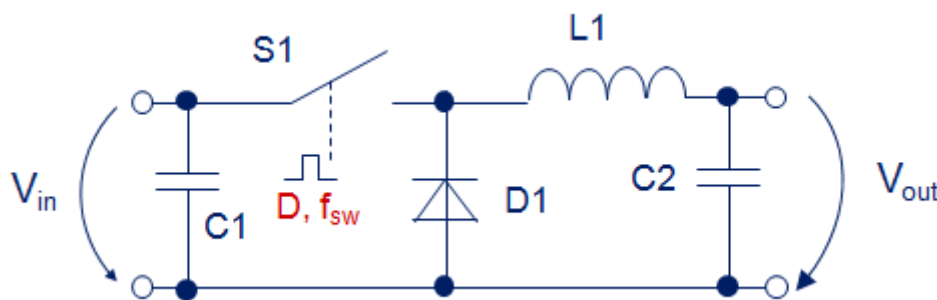


Figure 2.1 (Buck Converter – Basic Diagram)

3 Modes of Operation

The buck converter can operate in different modes; continuous conduction mode (CCM, e.g. fixed frequency and high current) and discontinuous conduction mode (DCM, e.g. PFM at low current).

Fig. 3.1 shows modeled waveforms of CCM operation to illustrate the component currents. Fig. 3.2 shows modeled waveforms of DCM operation respectively.

At constant frequency the buck converter with rectifier diode D1 will at low current always operate in DCM mode because the diode blocks negative current flow.

If the diode is being implemented by a synchronous rectifier switch (e.g. MOSFET) the CCM can even be obtained at zero output current at the same fixed frequency. The valley inductor current I_{VA} is then negative. For efficiency reasons many implementations feature pulse frequency modulation (PFM) at low currents. This is a DCM operation at fixed pulse width but variable frequency to minimize switching events and thus to reduce dynamic loss to a minimum.

The components are stressed most when the load current is high. Hence the converter operates in CCM and further considerations will be done with respect to it.

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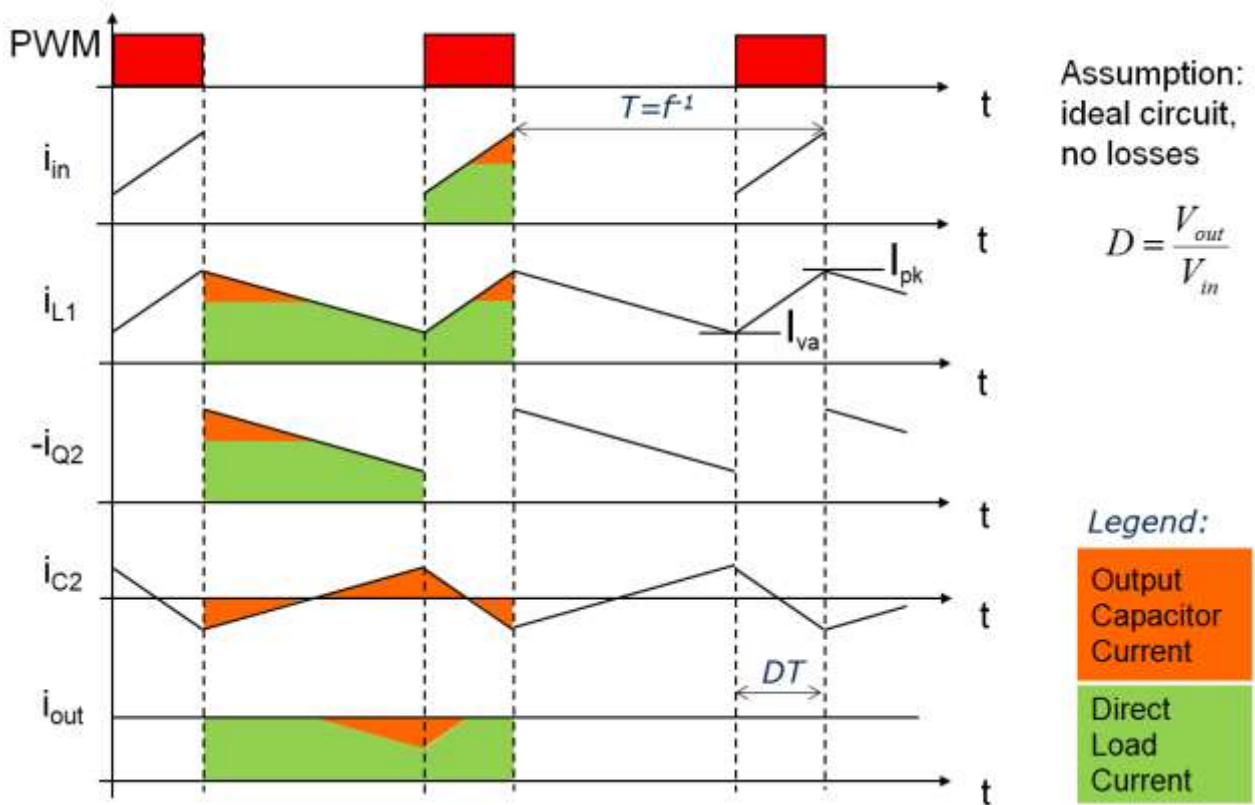


Figure 3.1 (CCM Operation)

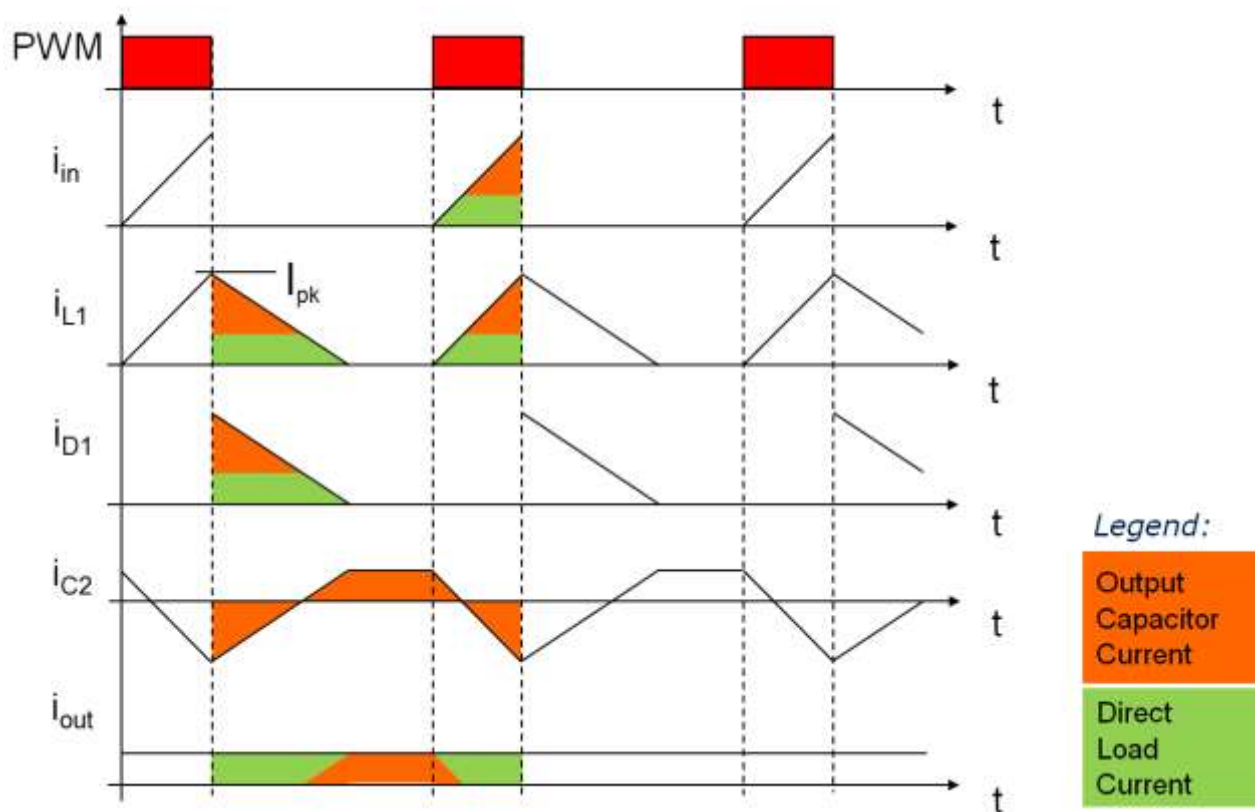


Figure 3.2 (DCM Operation)

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4 Design Equations

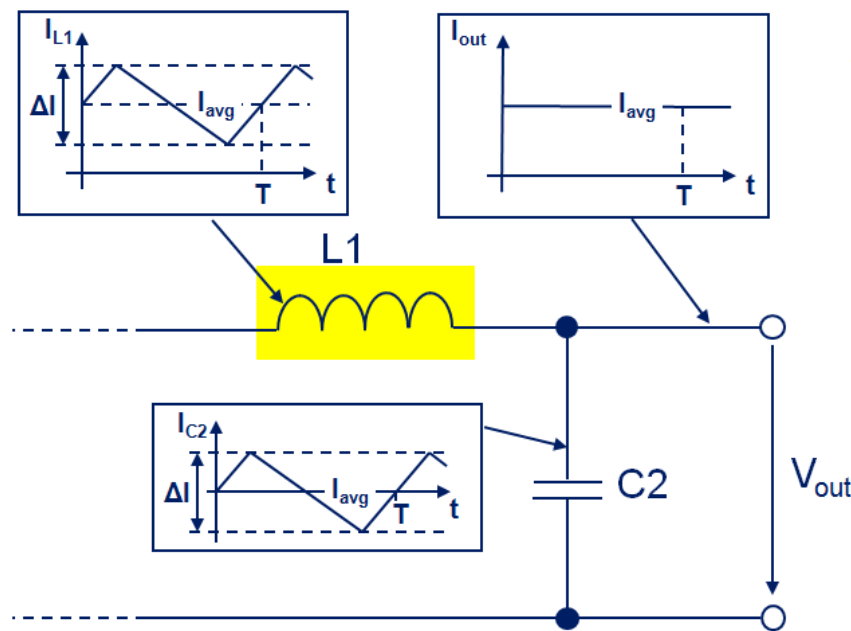
The following are design equations for the CCM operated buck. A design example has been calculated along with the description.

Table 1 Specifications

Input voltage	12 V
Output voltage	1.8 V
Maximum power	120 W
Switching frequency	500 kHz
Inductor current ripple	30%
Output voltage ripple	10 mV

Filter Inductor

The filter inductor value and its peak current are determined based on the specified maximum inductor current ripple.



$$V_{L1} = L_1 \cdot \frac{di_{L1}}{dt}$$

$$= L_1 \cdot \frac{\Delta I_{L1}}{(1-D) \cdot T} = V_{out}$$

$$L_1 = \frac{V_{out} \cdot (1-D)}{f_{sw} \cdot \Delta I_{L1}}$$

For the conditions given in Table 1 the inductor value should be:

$$L = \frac{V_{out}}{f_{sw}} \cdot \frac{1-D}{\Delta I_{L1}} = \frac{1.8V \cdot (1 - 1.8/12)}{500kHz \cdot 120W/1.8V \cdot 30\%} = 153nH$$

When considering a 10% duty cycle increase for offsetting power loss the equation results:

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$$L = \frac{1.8V \cdot (1 - 1.1 \cdot 1.8/12)}{500kHz \cdot 120W/1.8V \cdot 30\%} = 150.3nH$$

Duty cycle variation based on power losses in high efficiency converters usually has no big impact on the inductor value and can be ignored for inductor selection.

Practically a 150nH inductor will have to be chosen.

The inductor peak current is then:

$$I_{pk} = I_{out} + \frac{\Delta I_L}{2}$$

$$I_{pk} = I_{out} + \frac{30\% \cdot I_{out}}{2} = 1.15 \cdot I_{out} = 1.15 \cdot 120W/1.8V = 76. \bar{6}A$$

For the given situation the inductor must sustain a peak current of 77A without showing saturation. It is important that the inductor maintains its inductance at the elevated operating temperature based on board temperature and inductor loss consisting of core loss and DCR loss.

A saturating inductor will lead to excessive current in the MOSFETs, impact application reliability or even lead to sudden destruction due to electrical overstress of the MOSFETs.

The DCR loss can be approximated from the DCR value at operating temperature:

$$P_{DCRloss} = I_{out}^2 \cdot DCR_{Top}$$

The impact of the ripple current usually can be neglected for the DCR related loss. However, the core loss varies greatly from one material and shape to another one. Hence the inductor core material has to be chosen properly to ensure that the core loss is within specified limits under target conditions.

Assuming 0.2 Milliohm for the DCR the DCR power loss in the inductor will be:

$$P_{DCRloss} = \left(\frac{120W}{1.8V}\right)^2 \cdot 0.2m\Omega = 888. \bar{8}mW$$

This is a rather high DCR loss. A better design choice will be a 2-phase buck as smaller inductors with lower losses can be used. Any resistive loss in the application scales with the square of the output current and therefore these losses can be greatly reduced by having multiple current paths.

For the given example a 2-phase design leads to a phase current of:

$$I_{ph} = \frac{120W}{1.8V} \cdot 0.5 = 33. \bar{3}A$$

For the 2-phase solution the saturation current needs to be 39A. This gives a much bigger selection range for components (active and passive), the design can be optimized properly. For further design examples the 2-phase approach will be chosen.

Rectifier

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The rectifier diode D1 encounters a forward conduction loss of:

$$P_{V_{FD1}} = V_{FD1} \cdot I_{out} \cdot (1 - D)$$

For our example that leads to a diode loss of:

$$P_{V_{FD1}} = 0.7V \cdot 33.3A \cdot (1 - 0.15) = 19.8W$$

One can see from that figure that a synchronous rectifier is inevitable to make this an efficient power converter.

$$P_{sync_on} = I_{out}^2 \cdot R_{Qsync} \cdot (1 - D)$$

Every Milliohm $R_{DS(on)}$ in the synchronous rectifier MOSFET accounts for a conduction loss of:

$$P_{sync_on} = (33.3A)^2 \cdot 1m\Omega \cdot (1 - 0.15) = 944.4mW.$$

The BSC010NE2LS has a typical $R_{DS(on)}$ of 1 m Ω at 5 V gate drive voltage.

Additional consideration for the synchronous rectifier FET is the reverse recovery loss, dead time loss and the gate drive loss. They all are dynamic properties.

The reverse recovery loss is very hard to determine from the datasheet as it has many dependencies. However, in state-of-the-art switching MOSFETs it is small so that it usually will not play a primary role in the concrete choice of the MOSFET. Some MOSFETs have implemented embedded reverse recovery free structures bypassing the body diode. Those FETs have an advantage on reverse recovery loss at the expense of $R_{DS(on)}$ per die area.

A main criteria for low dead time loss is the driver that controls the gate of switching FET and synchronous rectifier MOSFET with minimum time between them.

Dead time loss is directly proportional to the switching frequency:

$$P_{tdead} = V_{FSync} \cdot I_{out} \cdot (t_{deadHSL} + t_{deadLSH}) \cdot f_{sw}$$

For the example here we assume a switching frequency of 300kHz and a dead time per transition of 10ns. The forward voltage drop across the body diode is assumed to be 0.8V.

$$P_{tdead} = 0.8V \cdot 33.3A \cdot (10ns + 10ns) \cdot 300kHz = 160mW$$

The driving voltage $V_{GSdrive}$ is another critical operation parameter. It impacts the $R_{DS(on)}$ and switching speed of the MOSFET. Gate charge of the MOSFET and its $R_{DS(on)}$ are inversely proportional to each other in a given technology. Therefore, an optimal MOSFET depends also on the chosen switching frequency and gate drive voltage.

Also gate charge loss is directly proportional to the switching frequency:

$$P_{Gsync} = Q_{Gsync} \cdot V_{GS} \cdot f_{sw}$$

For the example here we have a MOSFET BSC010NE2LS with a gate charge of 34 nC at 5 V gate drive voltage V_{GS} and 12 V V_{DS} .

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$$P_{Gsync} = 34nC \cdot 5V \cdot 300kHz = 51mW$$

In order to visualize the trade-off between gate charge and $R_{DS(on)}$, a **figure of merit (FOM)** is usually being used:

$$FOM(V_{GS}) = Q_G(V_{GS}) \cdot R_{DS(on)}(V_{GS})$$

Figure 4.1 depicts the gate charge characteristic of a MOSFET to visualize gate charge parameters.

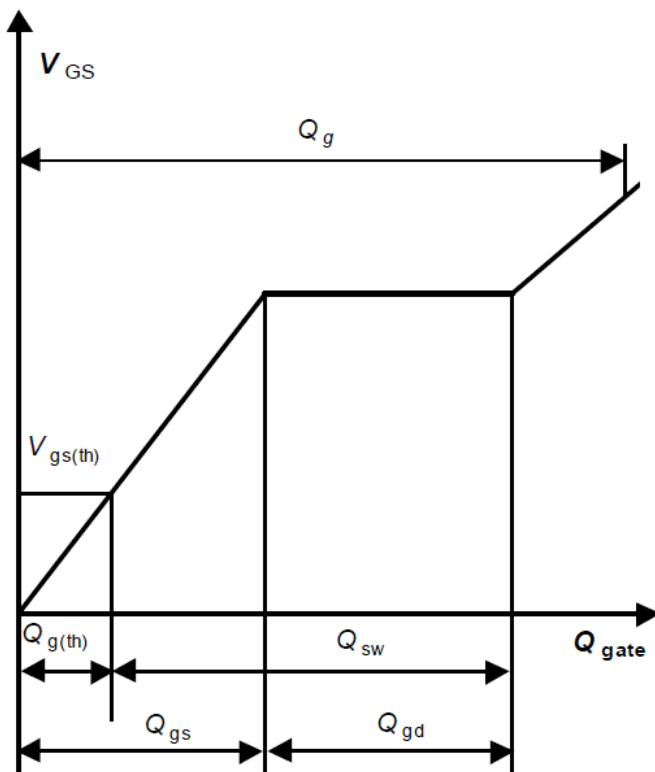


Figure 4.1 (Gate Charge Characteristic and Parameter Description)

Switching MOSFET

The buck converter is a hard-switched topology. The switching MOSFET has to resemble an ideal switch, i.e. being low ohmic and fast switching. As with the synchronous rectifier MOSFET, the FOM is setting limits to as far one can come to an ideal switch.

For a buck converter switch, the following are major MOSFET selection criterias:

- Low FOMs for - $R_{DS(on)} \cdot Q_G$ and $R_{DS(on)} \cdot Q_{oss}$
- Ratio $Q_{GD}/Q_{GS} < 1$ for immunity against dv/dt induced turn-on
- Fast turn-on/off switching, gate plateau near middle of gate drive range
- Switching and conduction losses must be balanced for minimum total loss at desired point of peak efficiency
- V_{DS} rating to handle spikes (voltage overshoot)

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- Low thermal resistance R_{thJC}
- Package selection must consider the importance of R_{thJA}
- Body diode speed and reverse recovery charge are not important, since body diode rarely conducts in a buck converter (only during forced output voltage down transitions)

The power loss equations for the various losses in the HS-MOSFET are:

$$P_{HScond} = I_{out}^2 \cdot R_{DS(on)_{HS}} \cdot D$$

$$P_{HScond} = (33.3A)^2 \cdot 5.5m\Omega \cdot \frac{1.8V}{12V} = 914.8mW$$

$$P_{HS_Gate} = Q_{GS_HS} \cdot V_{GS_HS} \cdot f_{sw}$$

$$P_{HS_Gate} = 5.5nC \cdot 5V \cdot 300kHz = 8.25mW$$

Output capacitance C_{oss} is one of the parasitic MOSFET parameters. The output charge related FOM_{oss} is a means to quantify the impact of dynamic performance among different technologies. In every cycle the output capacitance of the HS-MOSFET will be charged when the HS-FET turns off and annihilated (dissipated within the channel) when the MOSFET turns on. For the BSC050NE2LS at the sample conditions the output capacitance related loss accounts for:

$$P_{OSS_HS} = 0.5 \cdot Q_{OSS_HS} \cdot V_{IN} \cdot f_{sw}$$

$$P_{OSS_HS} = 0.5 \cdot 6.4nC \cdot 12V \cdot 300kHz = 11.52mW$$

Switching loss for inductively limited switching (fast switching with inductive plateau in switching waveform):

$$P_{SW_HS} = 0.5 \cdot L_{Stray} \cdot I_{out}^2 \cdot f_{sw}$$

Switching loss for resistively limited switching (slow switching with gate charge plateau in waveform):

$$P_{SW_HS} = V_{in} \cdot I_{out} \cdot \frac{Q_{SW}}{V_{GS}} \cdot R_{Gate} \cdot f_{sw}$$

with Q_{SW} being the switching charge (see fig. 4.1), i.e. the charge that has to be added to transition the MOSFET from the threshold voltage at the gate to the end of the plateau (low V_{DS}) in the gate charge characteristic. R_{Gate} represents the total resistance in the gate drive path (including MOSFET and driver) and V_{GS} is the driving voltage. This equation is just a first order approximation as the driving voltage changes during the transition. For centered plateau voltages it still provides a reasonable estimation.

More precise switching losses can be obtained when simulating the transition. In that case the parasitic source inductances of both MOSFETs can be accounted for easily.

For high efficiency the HS-MOSFET should have a low FOM value to provide a low $R_{DS(on)}$ while switching faster than the current transitions between HS and LS-MOSFET within its commutation loop. In addition the driver must provide sufficiently low sink- and source impedances to drive the MOSFET quickly. For the same reason the gate resistance in the MOSFET must be small as well.

The determination of which method of calculation to apply one must determine if the MOSFET can be enhanced quicker than the drain current can transition:

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$$t_{inductive} = L_{Stray} \cdot \frac{I_{out}}{V_{in}}$$

$$t_{resistive} = R_{Gate} \cdot \frac{Q_{gs_HS}}{V_{platHS}} \cdot \left[\ln \left(1 - \frac{V_{thHS}}{V_{GS_HS}} \right) - \ln \left(1 - \frac{V_{platHS}}{V_{GS_HS}} \right) \right]$$

If $t_{inductive} > t_{resistive}$ is true, then inductively limited switching applies.

For example the BSC050NE2LS is a typical HS-MOSFET in OptiMOS™25V technology. At 5 V gate drive voltage its typical $R_{DS(on)}$ is 5.5 mΩ. Its gate charge at 5 V with 12 V V_{DS} is 5.5 nC.

Its gate charge FOM for 5V (FOM_{QG}) is 30.25 mΩnC. In a 12 V input converter application with a stray inductance of 1.4 nH and a phase current of 33.3 A, the current transition time limited by the stray inductance is:

$$t_{inductive} = L_{Stray} \cdot \frac{I_{out}}{V_{in}} = 1.4nH \cdot \frac{33.3A}{12V} = 3.885ns$$

The gate resistance of the BSC050NE2LS is 0.5 Ω. Its Q_{GS} is 2.2 nC at a plateau voltage of 2.8 V. The threshold voltage is 1.6 V. The turn-on of the HS-MOSFET with a driver of 1 Ω sourcing resistance at 5 V occurs in:

$$t_{resistive} = (1\Omega + 0.5\Omega) \cdot \frac{2.2nC}{2.8V} \cdot \left[\ln \left(1 - \frac{1.6V}{5V} \right) - \ln \left(1 - \frac{2.8V}{5V} \right) \right] = 0.513ns$$

The MOSFET turn on takes less than 1/7th the time of the current transition. Having an appropriate circuit design without significant source feedback will enable inductively limited switching and thus lowest switching losses. Usually one can see the transitioning between inductively limited switching and resistively limited switching at a specific current level at which the spike voltage at the phase node changes qualitatively to a higher value at inductively limited transitions.

Aforementioned inductive **source feedback** is a very critical design aspect. The package of choice should ideally have no inductive feedback into the gate drive path. Therefore, preferred packages are CanPAK™, Blade-package or any integrated solutions such as DrMOS and DrBlade.

For the example here the switching loss can be calculated as:

$$P_{SW_HS} = 0.5 \cdot 1.4nH \cdot (33.3A)^2 \cdot 300kHz = 232.9mW$$

Note: When $t_{resistive} < t_{inductive} < 2 \cdot t_{resistive}$ resistively limited losses may partially have to be taken into account.

HS-Loss summary (except reverse recovery loss of LS-MOSFET body diode):

$$P_{HScond} = 914.8mW$$

$$P_{SW_HS} = 232.9mW$$

$$P_{OSS_HS} = 11.52mW$$

$$P_{HS_Gate} = 8.25mW$$

The total loss is about 1.17W. The switching loss is just about ¼ of the conduction loss. As this appears to be highly imbalanced, the BSC050NE2LS is the highest $R_{DS(on)}$ in that given package and technology. It

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allows for higher switching frequency to balance the losses. If that is reasonable depends on the entire converter stage and efficiency targets.

However, the calculations have been done only for 33.3 A output current. The high ratio also ensures that inductively limited switching prevails over a big range to low currents so that efficiency stays high over the entire range.

Gate charge and output charge related losses are small in comparison. They will start to become relevant when taking low current operation into consideration.

LS-loss summary (except reverse recovery loss of LS-MOSFET body diode):

$$P_{sync_on} = 944.4mW$$

$$P_{tdead} = 160mW$$

$$P_{Gsync} = 51mW$$

The total loss is about 1.05 W. Therefore, HS-FET and LS-FET $R_{DS(on)}$ -selection appears to be well chosen with respect to the power loss distribution among these two devices.

Output Capacitor

The function of the output capacitor is to filter the inductor current ripple and deliver a stable output voltage. It also has to ensure that load steps at the output can be supported before the regulator is able to react.

These are two distinct criteria which define the value and concrete design of the output capacitor solution.

Filter criteria 1 (based on filter inductor current ripple for n phases):

$$\Delta I_{Cout} = \frac{V_{out}}{n \cdot f_{sw}} \cdot \frac{1-D}{L}$$

ΔI_{Cout} is the vector sum of the ripple currents of all phases. The charge change at the output capacitors causing a voltage ripple is:

$$\Delta Q_{Cout} = \frac{T_{sw}}{n \cdot 2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\Delta I_{Cout}}{2} = \frac{\Delta I_{Cout}}{8 \cdot n \cdot f_{sw}}$$

The voltage at C_{out} changes with the charge:

$$\Delta V_{Cout} = \frac{\Delta Q_{Cout}}{C_{out}} = \frac{\Delta I_{Cout}}{8 \cdot C_{out} \cdot n \cdot f_{sw}} = \frac{V_{out} \cdot (1-D)}{8 \cdot C_{out} \cdot L \cdot (n \cdot f_{sw})^2}$$

Thus, the first criteria for the minimum output capacitance is:

$$C_{out} = \frac{1-D}{\frac{\Delta V_{Cout}}{V_{out}} \cdot 8 \cdot L \cdot (n \cdot f_{sw})^2}$$

For the given requirements the minimum output capacitance according to criteria 1 is:

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$$C_{out} = \frac{1 - 1.1 \cdot 1.8/12}{\frac{10mV}{1.8V} \cdot 8 \cdot 150nH \cdot (2 \cdot 300kHz)^2} = \frac{0.835}{2400H(Hz)^2} = 348\mu F$$

Filter criteria 2 (load step support):

Every phase can support a current transient of:

$$\frac{di_{ph}}{dt} = \frac{1}{L} \cdot (D_{max} \cdot V_{in} - V_{out})$$

Having a required load transient of $\frac{\Delta I_{out}}{t_{Step}}$ for the application, the regulator can only support a transient of $n \cdot \frac{di_{ph}}{dt}$, even with an immediate response. For the difference $\frac{\Delta I_{out}}{t_{Step}} - n \cdot \frac{di_{ph}}{dt}$ the current has to be supported by the output capacitor for the ramping time t_{ramp} .

$$t_{ramp} = \frac{\Delta I_{out}}{n \cdot \frac{di_{ph}}{dt}}$$

The voltage drop at the output capacitor is:

$$\Delta V_{out} = \frac{\Delta Q_{Cout}}{C_{out}}$$

The charge supplied by all phases accounts for:

$$\Delta Q_{nph} = n \cdot \frac{di_{ph}}{dt} \cdot t_{ramp}^2$$

The charge that needs to be supplied by the output capacitor is:

$$\Delta Q_{Cout} = \Delta Q_{nph} - \Delta Q_{out} \quad \text{with} \quad \Delta Q_{out} = \Delta I_{out} \cdot (t_{ramp} - 0.5 \cdot t_{Step})$$

The absolute value of the output voltage drop at a load step of ΔI_{out} in t_{Step} is then:

$$\Delta V_{out} = MAX \left[0, \frac{1}{2 \cdot C_{out}} \cdot \left(\frac{L \cdot \Delta I_{out}^2}{n \cdot (D_{max} \cdot V_{in} - V_{out})} - \Delta I_{out} \cdot t_{Step} \right) \right]$$

The requirement for C_{out} according to criteria 2 is:

$$C_{out} > \frac{1}{2 \cdot \Delta V_{out}} \cdot \left(\frac{L \cdot \Delta I_{out}^2}{n \cdot (D_{max} \cdot V_{in} - V_{out})} - \Delta I_{out} \cdot t_{Step} \right)$$

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For example, a load step of 20A/20μs on a maximum duty cycle of 50% requires a minimum output capacitance for a permitted voltage drop of 50mV of:

$$C_{out} > \frac{1}{2 \cdot 50mV} \cdot \left(\frac{150nH \cdot (20A)^2}{2 \cdot (50\% \cdot 12V - 1.8V)} - 20A \cdot 20\mu s \right) = -3.9mF < 0$$

In case of a negative result the transient can fully be supported by the duty cycle change.

Assuming a load step of 20A/2ns requires:

$$C_{out} > \frac{1}{2 \cdot 50mV} \cdot \left(\frac{150nH \cdot (20A)^2}{2 \cdot (50\% \cdot 12V - 1.8V)} - 20A \cdot 2ns \right) = 71\mu F$$

Conclusion for output capacitor selection:

Comparing the calculated values of criteria 1 and 2 leads to the conclusion that criteria 1 is imposing the more stringent constraints. The output capacitance is determined by criteria 1.

This result is an electrical value which is required under the assumption that the response of the regulator is immediate and simultaneous on all phases. This is normally not the case and has to be considered. Also, capacitors have a big tolerance usually below its nominal value. Deratings for DC bias and temperature have to be taken into account too.

Input Capacitor

The function of the input capacitor is to filter the input current into the regulator – ideally it should appear as a DC current for steady state load conditions.

When filtered ideally, the DC input current is:

$$I_{in} = \frac{D}{\eta} \cdot I_{out}$$

Ignoring the ripple effect, the current in one switch during its on-time is:

$$I_{sw} = \frac{I_{out}}{n \cdot \eta}$$

The charge to be stored in the input capacitor has to compensate for the difference between switched current and DC input current.

$$dQ_{capmin} = (I_{sw} - I_{in}) \cdot D \cdot T \quad \text{with} \quad T = 1/f_{sw}$$

$$dQ_{capmin} = \frac{I_{out}}{\eta \cdot f_{sw}} \cdot \left(\frac{D}{n} - D^2 \right)$$

Hence the minimum value for the input decoupling capacitor should not be less than:

$$C_{in} \geq \frac{dQ_{capmin}}{dV_{in}} = \frac{I_{out}}{\eta \cdot f_{sw} \cdot dV_{in}} \cdot \left(\frac{D}{n} - D^2 \right)$$

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where dV_{in} is the permissible voltage ripple at the input capacitor.

The current in the input capacitor is a critical design criteria for selecting the capacitors. Capacitors have an intrinsic serial resistance (ESR) which causes conduction loss and heating impacting long term reliability of electrolyte based capacitors.

$$P_{caploss} = I_{CinRMS}^2 \cdot ESR$$

The RMS current for the entire input capacitor bank is:

$$I_{CinRMS} = \frac{I_{out}}{\eta} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{D}{n^2} - \frac{D^2}{n}}$$

Thermals and Package

MOSFETs come in a broad variety of packages. For a decision the following aspects have to be taken into account:

- Required $R_{DS(on)}$ determines minimum package size.
- Fast switching (inductively limited) is only possible in packages with low inductive source feedback.
- Package resistance should be small to enable good FOM of the device (very important for low $R_{DS(on)}$ MOSFETs).
- Thermal resistance of package to cooling path must be sufficiently small. If cooling to top side is required a package with low $R_{thJC(top)}$ has to be chosen.
- In some cases thermal transient performance is important. In that case packages with big leadframes under the die are usually the preferred choice.

From the power loss in the MOSFET and the permitted temperature rise of its junction to ambient the required thermal resistance to ambient R_{thJA} can be calculated:

$$R_{thJA} = \frac{T_J - T_A}{P_{MOSFET}} \quad \text{with} \quad R_{thJA} = R_{thJC} + R_{thCA}$$

The thermal package resistance R_{thJC} is given in the datasheet. For power MOSFETs (TO, SuperSO-8, S3O8, CanPAK packages) this number is usually below 5 K/W, in cases where the die fills out the package quite well the numbers are in the vicinity of 1 K/W. A temperature rise of 50 K under operating conditions would allow for 5 W power loss in the MOSFET with 5 K/W thermal resistance to case - given the pcb is equal to ambient temperature. This, however, is rarely the case. The determining and mostly limiting factor is the thermal resistance case to ambient. Criteria defining this number are barely influenced by the package choice.

- Board size
- Air flow
- Heatsink ($R_{thJC(top)}$ is important to make effective use of the heatsink)
- Layer stack and design (copper thickness, closed copper layers and thermal vias, exposed copper area on top and bottom layers)
- Interface area between package and board.

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The last point of interface area and especially outline length of the thermal pad of the power MOSFET on the PCB is particularly important when thermal vias under the pad are missing and when the copper thickness of the top layer is small. In that case a big difference of total thermal resistance R_{THJA} can be seen between S3O8 and SSO-8, which is simply bigger. The heat has to be transported from the package outline to the PCB. A small outline has a higher resistance. This becomes significant when other paths for thermal transport are missing (vias in pad or thick copper on top layer to offset small outline).

For transient thermal analysis L3 – PSpice models of the MOSFETs can be used. They incorporate a thermal network describing the heat transfer characteristic through the die and the package. These models provide access to T_J and T_C so that external thermal networks can be established.

For example, a definition in PSpice as subcircuit for a CanPAK 25V MOSFET is initiated by:

```
.SUBCKT BSB012NE2LX drain gate source Tj Tcase PARAMS: dVth=0 dRdson=0 dgfs=0 dC=0 Zthtype=0  
Ls=0.05n Ld=0.7n Lg=0.1n
```

Highlighted are the 5 terminals 'drain', 'gate', 'source', 'Tj', 'Tcase' and the parameters for package inductances 'Ls', 'Ld' and 'Lg'. It can be seen that the dominant inductance is drain inductance. This package supports fast switching and top-side cooling.

Note that the actual inductance in the application varies from the default values as mutual inductances occur. This is especially important for the commutation loop in which the MOSFETs are located.

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Symbols used in formulas

D, D_{max}	duty cycle, maximum duty cycle
ESR	capacitor series resistance
f_{sw}, f	switching frequency
FOM	figure of merit
I_{VA}, I_{PK}	inductor valley current, inductor peak current
I_{SW}, I_{ph}	current in switch, phase current
I_{out}, I_{avg}	output current, average current
I_{CinRMS}	input capacitor RMS current
$L_1, L1, L$	output inductor
L_{Stray}	stray inductance
n	phase count
P_{sync_on}	resistive loss in synchronous rectifier MOSFET
P_{VFD1}	diode conduction loss in D1
P_{tdead}	dead time loss
P_{Gsync}	gate drive loss of synchronous rectifier MOSFET
$P_{DCRloss}$	inductor DCR loss
P_{HScond}	conduction loss of HS-MOSFET
P_{HS_Gate}	gate drive loss of HS-MOSFET
P_{oss_HS}	output capacitance loss of HS-MOSFET
P_{SW_HS}	switching loss of HS-MOSFET
$P_{caploss}$	capacitor loss
P_{MOSFET}	MOSFET power loss
Q_{GS}, Q_{GS_HS}	MOSFET gate -source charge, HS-MOSFET gate-source charge
Q_{GD}	gate-drain charge of MOSFET
Q_{SW}	MOSFET switching charge
Q_G	total gate charge of MOSFET
Q_{Gsync}	gate charge of synchronous rectifier MOSFET
Q_{oss}	output charge of MOSFET
R_{thJA}, R_{thJC}	thermal resistance junction to ambient, thermal resistance junction to case
R_{thCA}	thermal resistance case to ambient
R_{DSon}, R_{DSOn_HS}	on-resistance of MOSFET, on-resistance of HS-MOSFET
R_{Gate}	gate resistance
T_{sw}, T	switching period
T_j, T_A	junction temperature, ambient temperature
$t_{inductive}$	current commutation time during inductively limited switching
$t_{resistive}$	current commutation time during resistively limited switching
t_{step}	time of an output load step
t_{ramp}	time to ramp up the current in the regulator inductors
V_{in}, V_{out}	input voltage, output voltage
V_{GS}, V_{GS_HS}	gate-to-source driving voltage of MOSFET, gate-to-source driving voltage of HS-MOSFET
V_{platHS}, V_{thHS}	plateau voltage of HS-MOSFET, threshold voltage of HS MOSFET
$\Delta I_L, \Delta I_{Cout}$	inductor ripple current, output capacitor ripple current
ΔQ_{Cout}	output capacitor charge variation
ΔQ_{nph}	charge change delivered by n-phases of the regulator
ΔQ_{out}	charge change at output during load step
ΔV_{out}	output voltage ripple
η	efficiency
dQ_{capmin}	min. charge to be stored in input capacitor