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**OCPA2025**



# **POWER SUPPLY**

Power Supply Group, SSRF, SARI

**SHU KUN**



# Introduction





## Why magnet power supplies?

- Most accelerator magnets are electromagnets.
  - Permanent magnets
    - Hard to change magnetic field dynamically.
    - Sensitive to temperature, external magnetic field, electromagnetic interference, radiation, mechanical shock and vibration ...
    - Hard to manufacture, assembly, compensation.
    - High magnetic fields make installation and maintenance difficult.
    - Hard to achieve very high field strength compared to superconducting magnets.
    - Cost, volume, weight ...
    - Yet still suitable in certain circumstances: small medical accelerators, insert devices like undulators...
- Transfer electrical energy from the grid to the magnets



# Power supplies in daily life



-  Lab PS  $\Rightarrow$  adjustable current or voltage output
-  Computer PS  $\Rightarrow$  several fixed voltage
-  Switching PS  $\Rightarrow$  1 or 2 fixed voltage
-  Outdoor PS  $\Rightarrow$  store energy, AC voltage output

Can be used as accelerator PS?

# Power, Stability, Reliability

Larger energy



larger power

Main magnet power: 1 ~ 10kA, 0.1 ~ 2kV

Often dozens of output current / voltage

Orbit stability  
Beam quality, brightness,  
stability, loss ...



Higher stability

Current stability:  $10^{-4} \sim 10^{-5}$

Around  $10^{-3}$  (line regulation)

VS

$MTBF_{\text{single}} = 10 \text{ year}$

↓ 1000 devices

Sadly, a power supply failure almost always leads to accelerator failure

$MTBF_{\text{system}} = 1/\lambda_{\text{system}} = 1/(1000 \cdot \lambda_{\text{single}}) = 0.01 \text{ year} \Rightarrow$  System failure: 100 times every year!

More devices



Higher reliability

# Outline

<b>1</b>	<b>History and Classification</b>	<b>A brief history of acclerator magnet power supply</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Terms and Definition</b>	<b>Key performance indexes and why these matter</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>Principles of MPS Design</b>	<b>Power electronics devices and PS basic topologies</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>Theory of PS Control</b>	<b>Basic classical control design methods in SMPS</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>Control Hardware and Software</b>	<b>Digital control architecture and key devices</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>Challenges and Developments</b>	<b>Some new techniques in topology, control, ...</b>

We will focus on DC power supplies

# History of MPS

Rotary converters and motor-generator sets

IGBT, MOSFET  
Digital Regulation

SiC, GaN  
AI-enhanced control

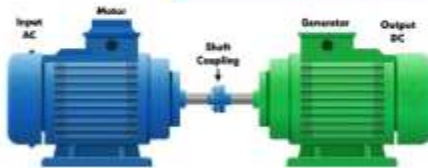
1930 ~ 1950s

1950 ~ 1960s

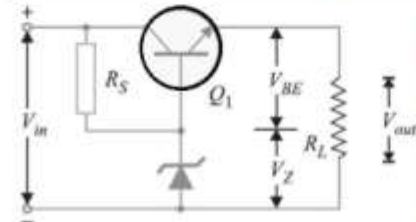
1970 ~ 1980s

1990 ~ 2000s

2010 ~ present



SCRs, Transistorized regulators



Cockcroft-Walton accelerator, 1932



SLAC linac, 1966



Fermilab Tevatron, 1983



LHC 13kA power converter

Semiconductors: SCR -> BJT -> MOSFET -> IGBT -> SiC/GaN  
Control systems: Analog -> Digital (DSP/FPGA) -> AI-Enhanced

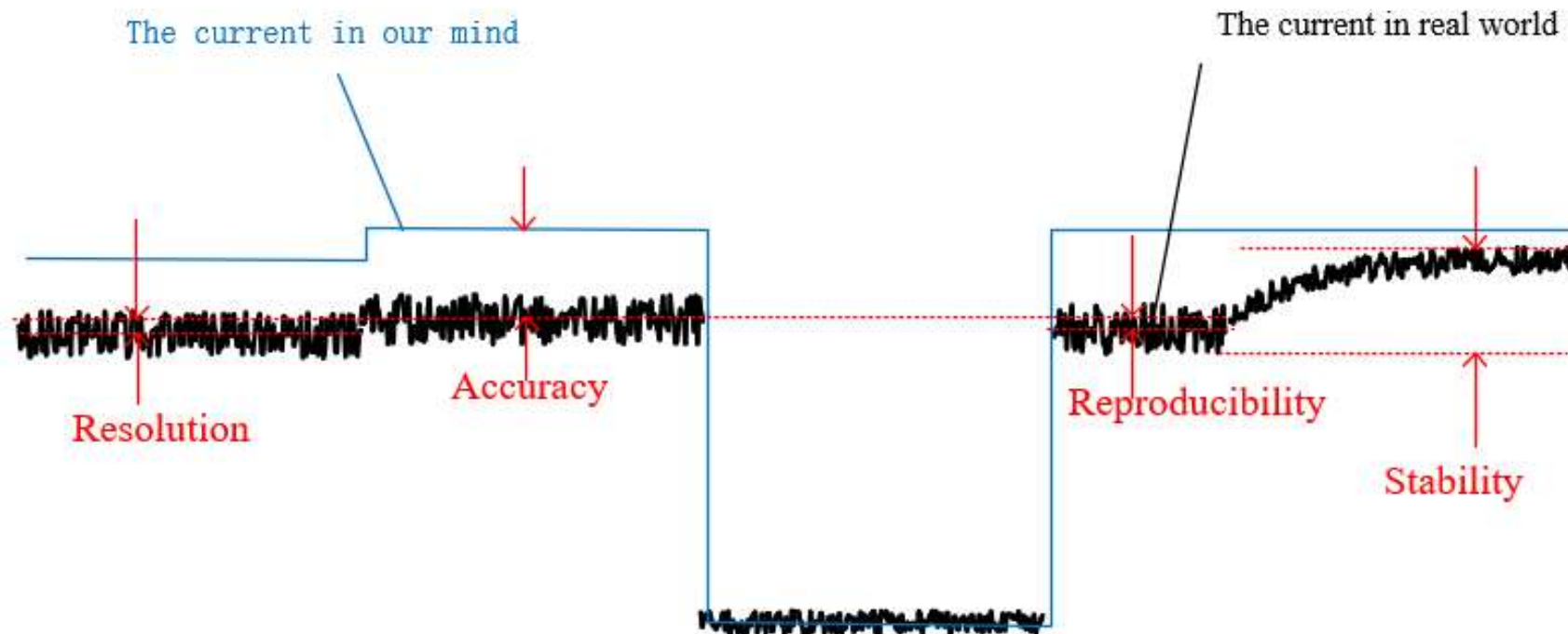
# MPS Classifications

- By output current type
  - DC MPS: Stable DC current output for static magnetic field (e.g., transfer line, storage ring)
  - Ramped MPS: Time-varying, waveform output for particle acceleration (e.g., synchrotron cycling, booster ring)
  - Pulsed MPS: Short high-energy pulses ( $\mu\text{s}$ -ms) for kicker/septum magnets
- By Power rating
  - Low:  $<100\text{A}$ ,  $<100\text{V}$ , for correctors, small quadrupoles
  - Medium:  $100\text{A}$ - $1\text{kA}$ ,  $100\text{V}$ - $1\text{kV}$ , standard dipole/quadrupoles
  - High:  $1$ - $10\text{kA}$ ,  $1$ - $10\text{kV}$ , main magnets in large synchrotrons
  - Ultra-High:  $>10\text{kA}$ ,  $>10\text{kV}$ , LHC superconducting magnets, fusion device
- By Topology
  - Linear PS: transistor (BJT or MOSFET) acts as a variable resistor
  - Switching-mode PS: transistors (MOSFETs or IGBTs ...) act as electronic switches



# Terms and Definition

- Precision
  - **Accuracy**: the absolute bias from the value “in our mind”
  - **Stability**: the range the value vibrates between
  - **Reproducibility**: the difference among operations
  - **Resolution**: the smallest step that makes any difference





- Accuracy

The closeness of agreement between the measured value and the reference value.

- Stability

The maximum deviation over a period with no changes in operating conditions.

- Reproducibility

The uncertainty in returning to a set of previous working values from cycle to cycle of the machines.

- Resolution

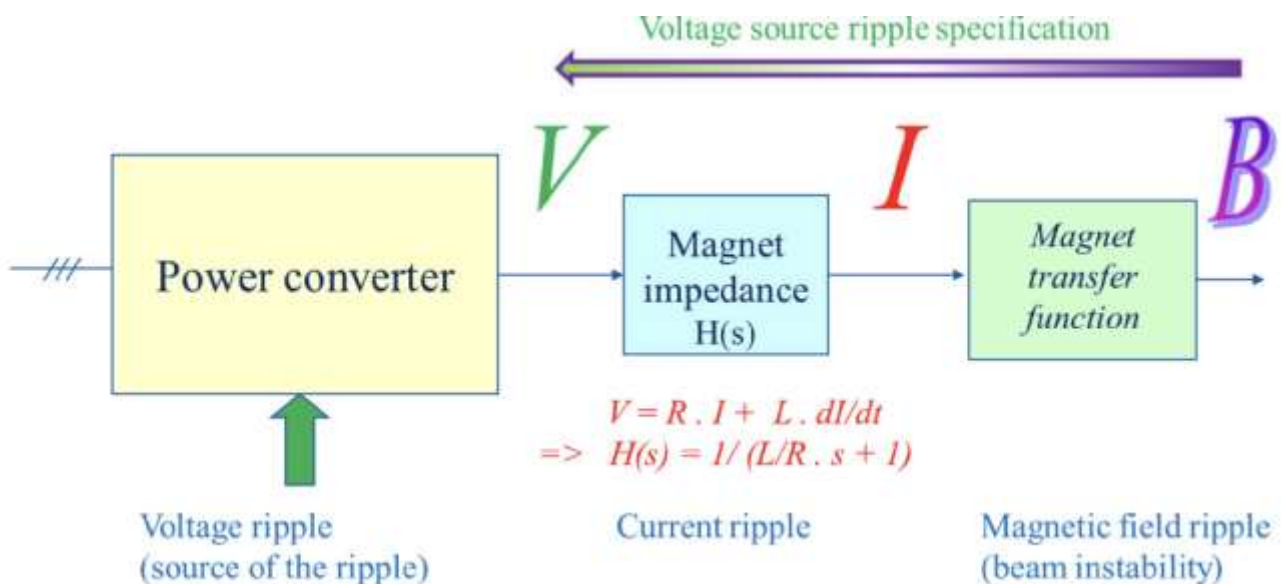
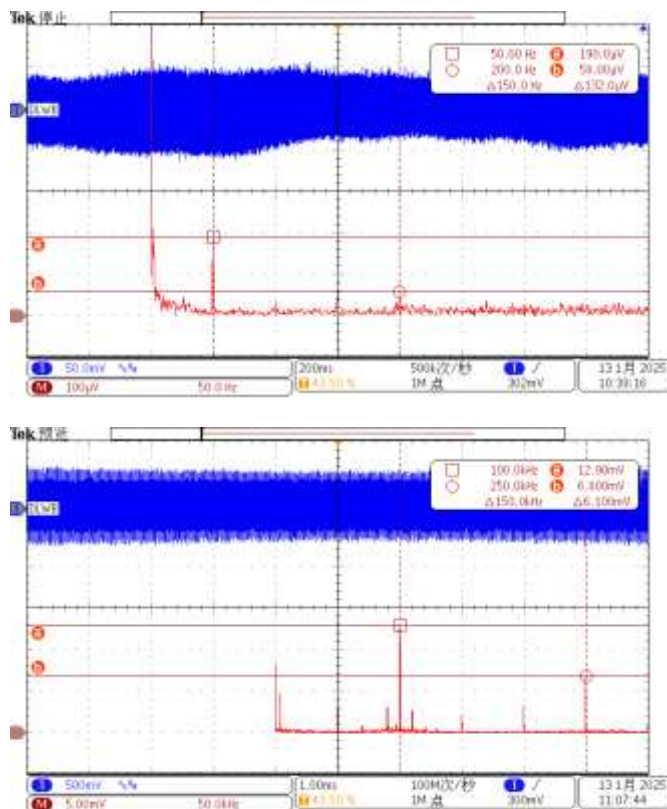
The smallest increment that can be induced or discerned.

These terms are expressed in ppm of the nominal current.

Part Per Million =  $10^{-6} \approx 2^{-20}$  (20 bit)

- Ripples

Ripple current or voltage refers to the harmonic components in the current or voltage, which can cause variations in their amplitude.



Ripple measurement: direct or indirect

$$I = \frac{U}{Z} = \frac{U}{2\pi fL + R}$$

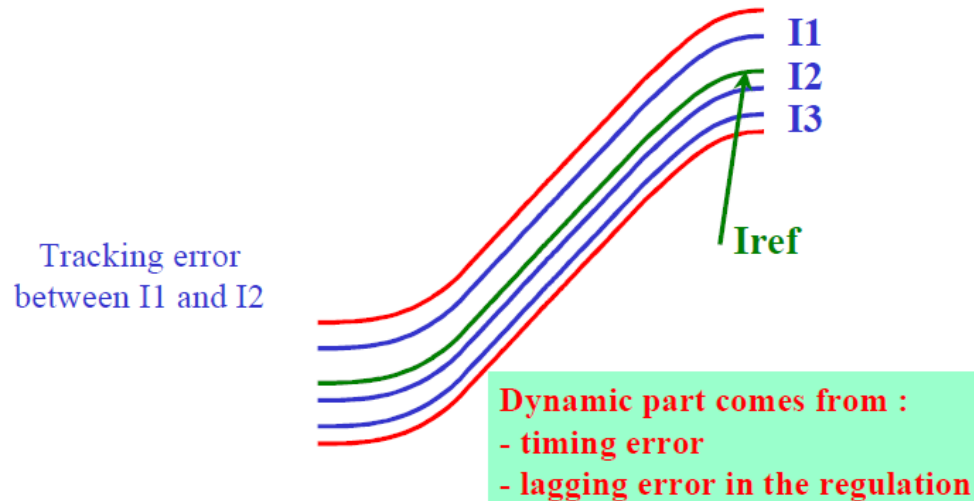
- Dynamic terms

- **Tracking Error**: the maximum deviation in one cycle
- **Total Harmonic Distortion**: the percentage of the total harmonic content relative to the fundamental.

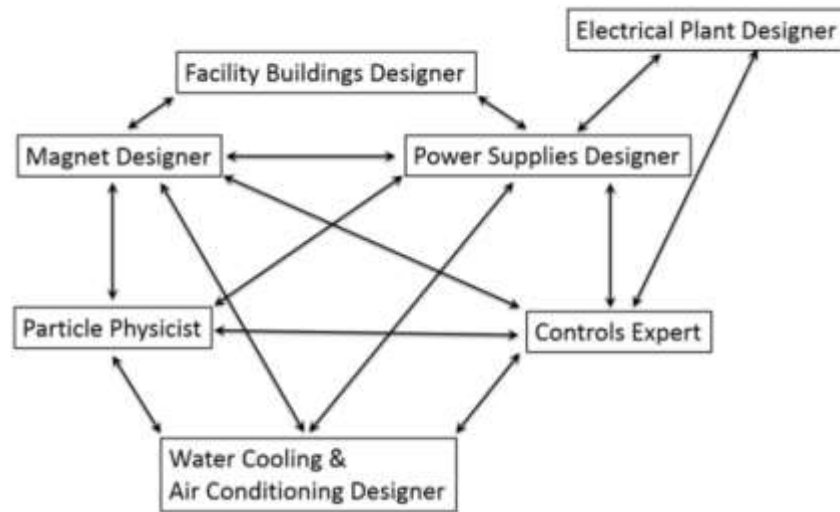
$$THD = \frac{\sqrt{I_1^2 + I_2^2 + \dots + I_n^2}}{I_0} \times 100\%$$

$I_0$ : the RMS value of the fundamental harmonic

$I_n$ : the RMS value of the  $n^{\text{th}}$ -order harmonic



# A typical magnet power supply specification



Role in the system

## Main Dipole Power Supply Specifications

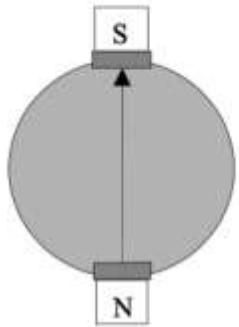
AC input power	■ 3-phase 460 VAC ~683 AAC
DC maximum output current – I <sub>max</sub>	■ 450 ADC
DC minimum output current – I <sub>min</sub>	■ ~1 ADC
DC output voltage	■ 1100 VDC
operating quadrants	■ 2: (V <sub>+</sub> , I <sub>+</sub> ) & (V <sub>-</sub> , I <sub>+</sub> )
small-signal – 3 db bandwidth	■ 500 Hz
stability (8 h–10 s) – referred to I <sub>max</sub>	■ <u>40 ppm</u>
stability (10s–300 ms) – referred to I <sub>max</sub>	■ <u>20 ppm</u>
stability (300 ms–0 ms) – referred to I <sub>max</sub>	■ <u>10 ppm</u>
absolute accuracy – referred to I <sub>max</sub>	■ 100 ppm
reproducibility long term – referred to I <sub>max</sub>	■ 50 ppm
current ripple – referred to I <sub>max</sub>	■ 5 ppm 60 Hz and greater
resolution of reference current	■ 18 bit ±1 LSB
resolution of current measured – fast sampling	■ 16 bit ±1 LSB at 200 μsec
resolution of current measured – slow sampling	■ 22 bit ±1 LSB at 16.67 msec

From NSLSII

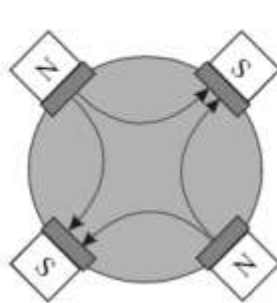
# Principles of MPS Design

## Load magnets

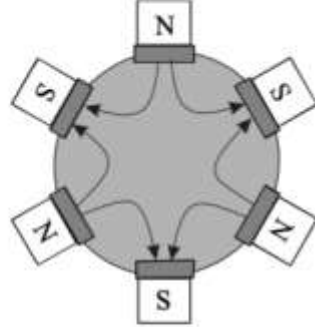
**NORMAL** : vertical field on mid-plane



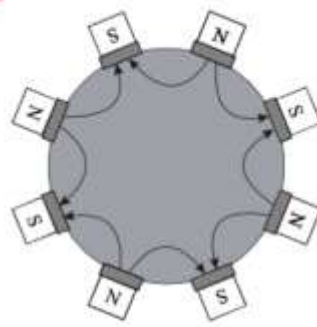
Dipole  
 $|B| = \text{const}$



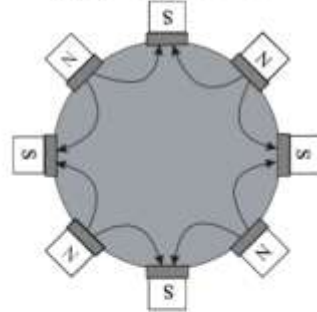
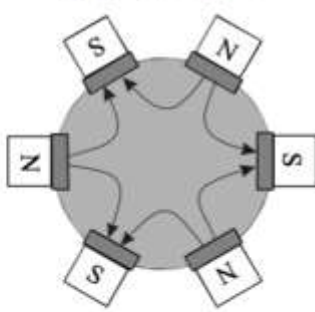
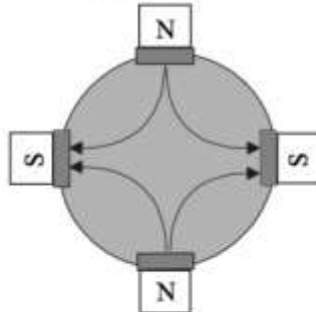
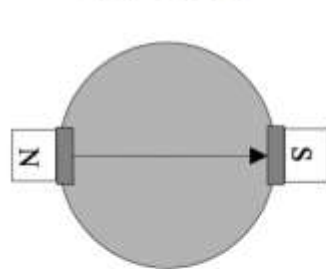
Quadrupole  
 $|B| = G \cdot r$



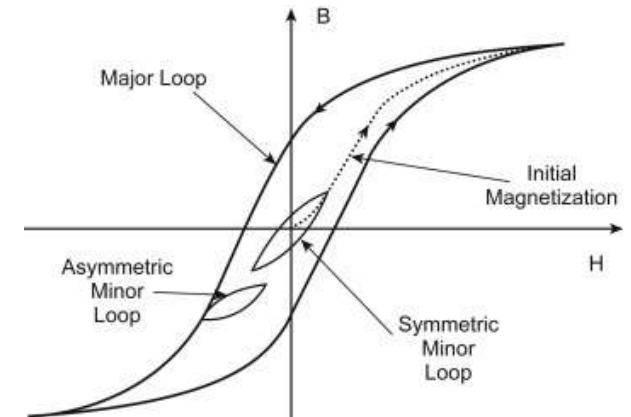
Sextupole  
 $|B| = 1/2 \cdot B'' \cdot r^2$



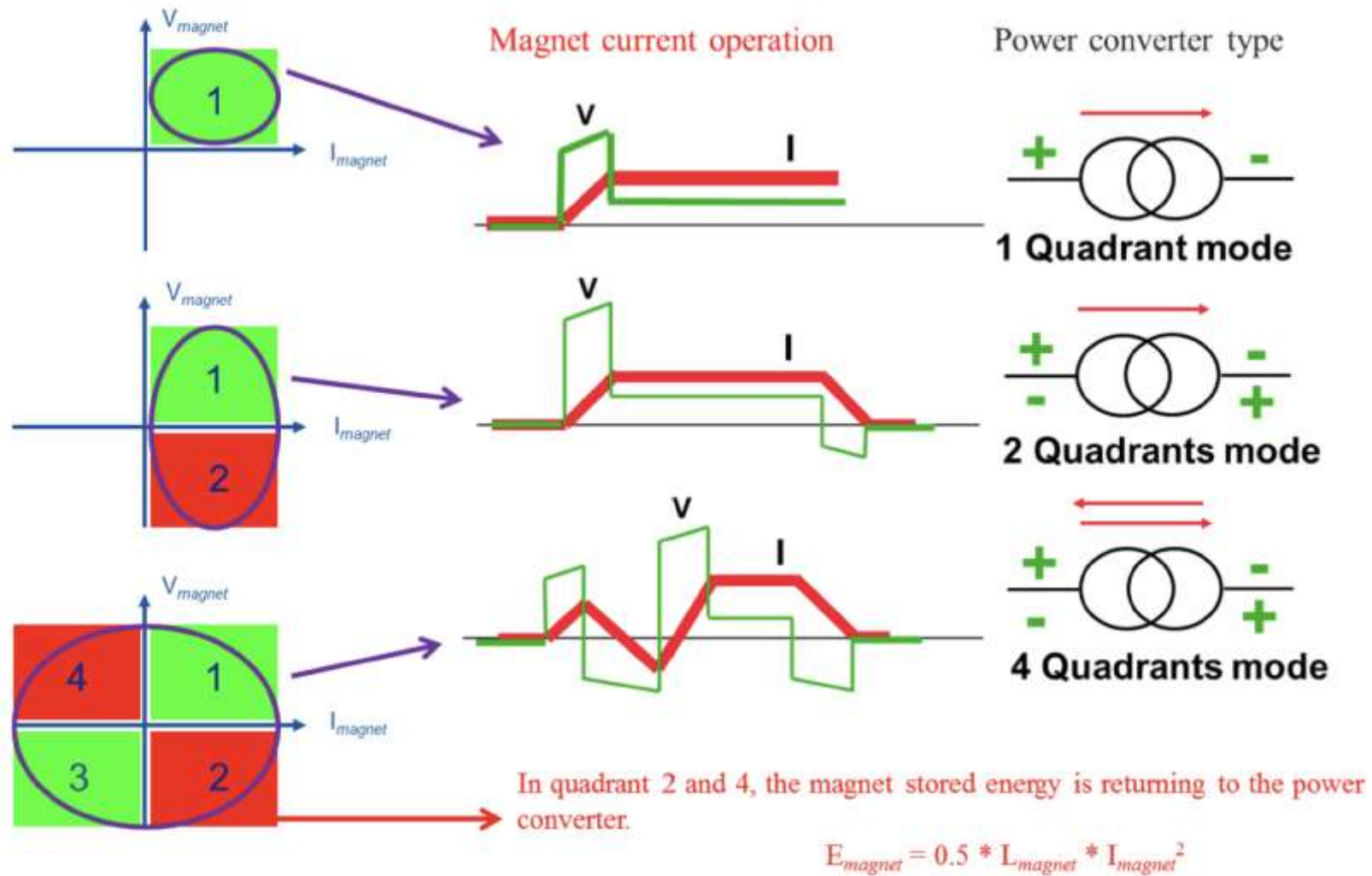
Octupole  
 $|B| = 1/6 \cdot B''' \cdot r^3$



**SKEW** : horizontal field on mid-plane



# Operation





# Topology

How much voltage and current?

How accurate needed?

Bipolar voltage/current?

How many stages in topology?

Linear or Switching?

A proper topology for each stage

Buck

Boost

Buck-Boost

Flyback

LLC

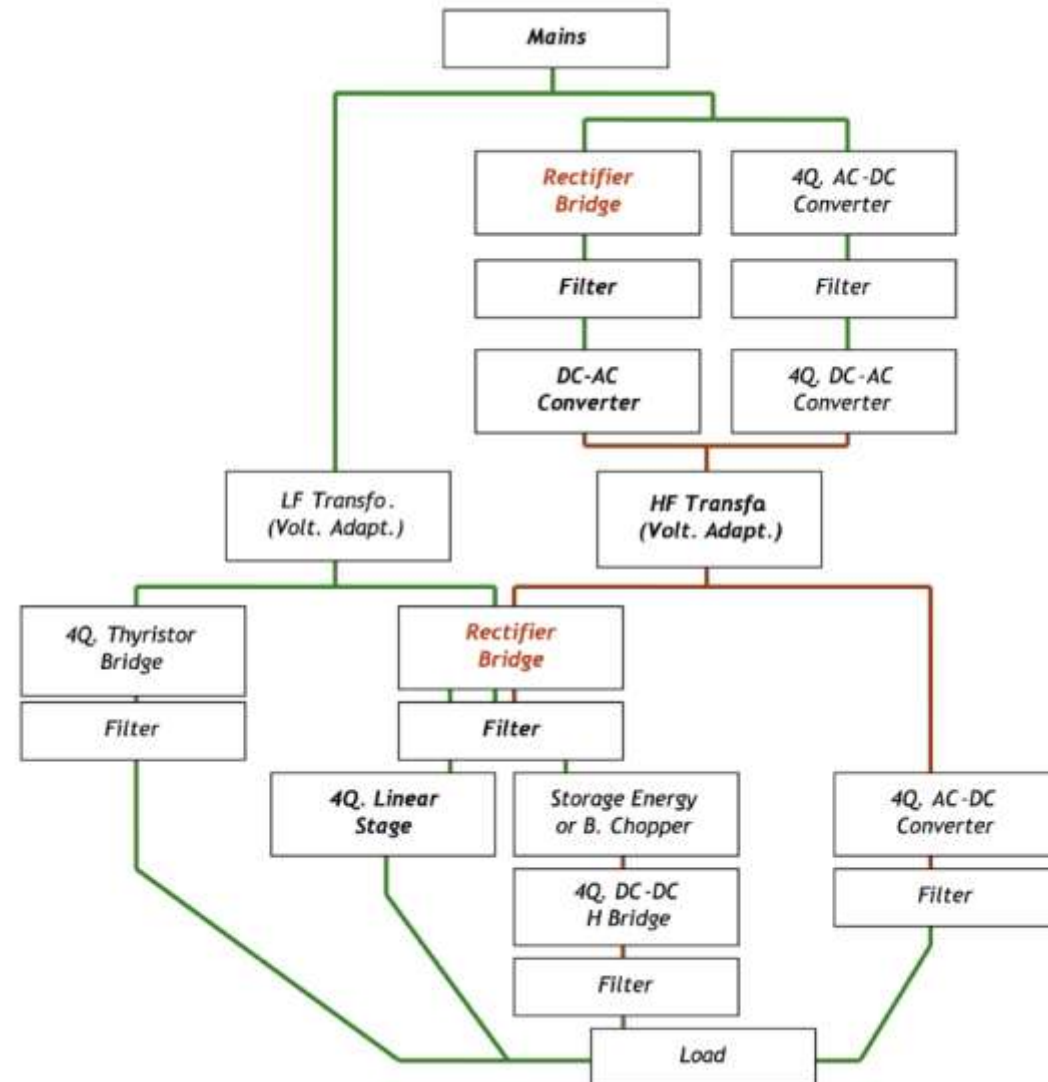
Full Bridge

H-Bridge

Cuk

SEPIC

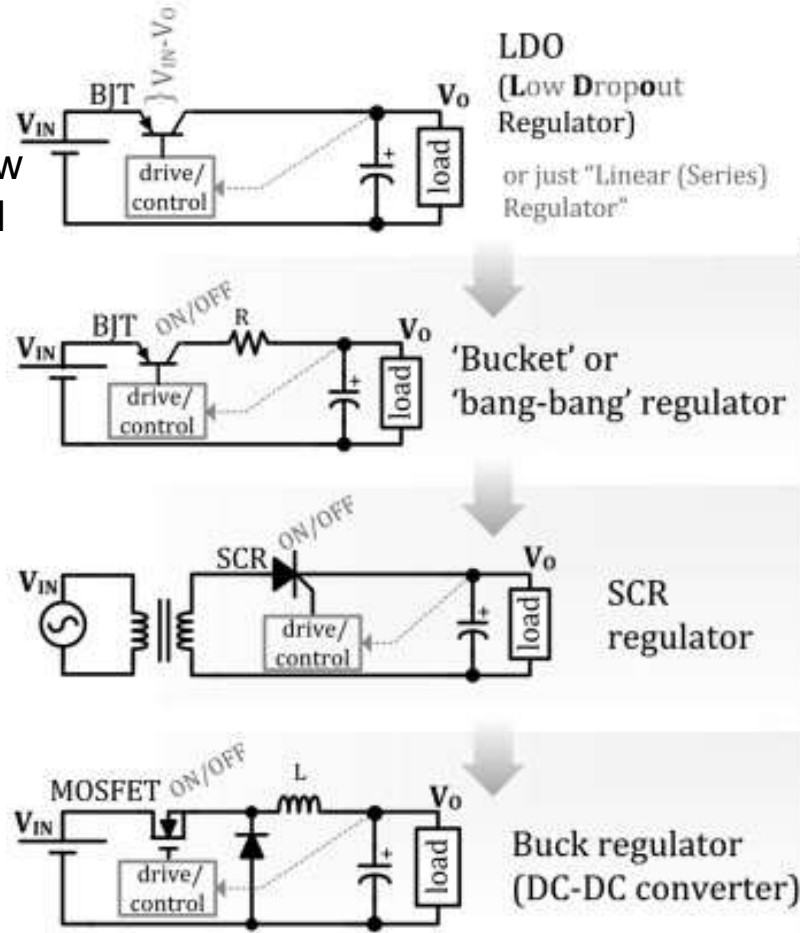
...





# Linear and Switching PS

Still good  
when ultra low  
noise needed

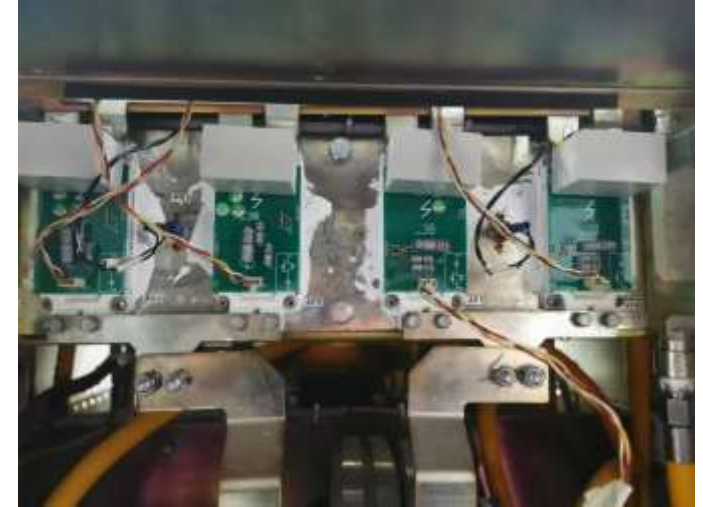


BJT= Bipolar Junction Transistor  
SCR= Silicon-controlled Rectifier  
MOSFET= Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field-Effect Transistor

Factor	Linear PS	Switching PS
Efficiency	Low	High
Size/Weight	Large	Compact
Noise/Ripple	Very low	Requires Filtering
Cost	Low	Medium/High
In-Out Isolation	Not supported	Supported

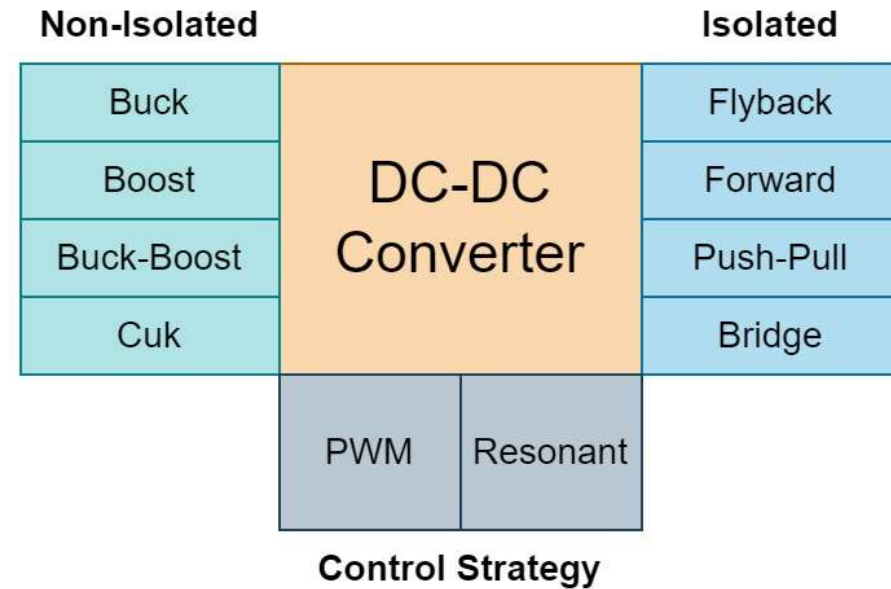
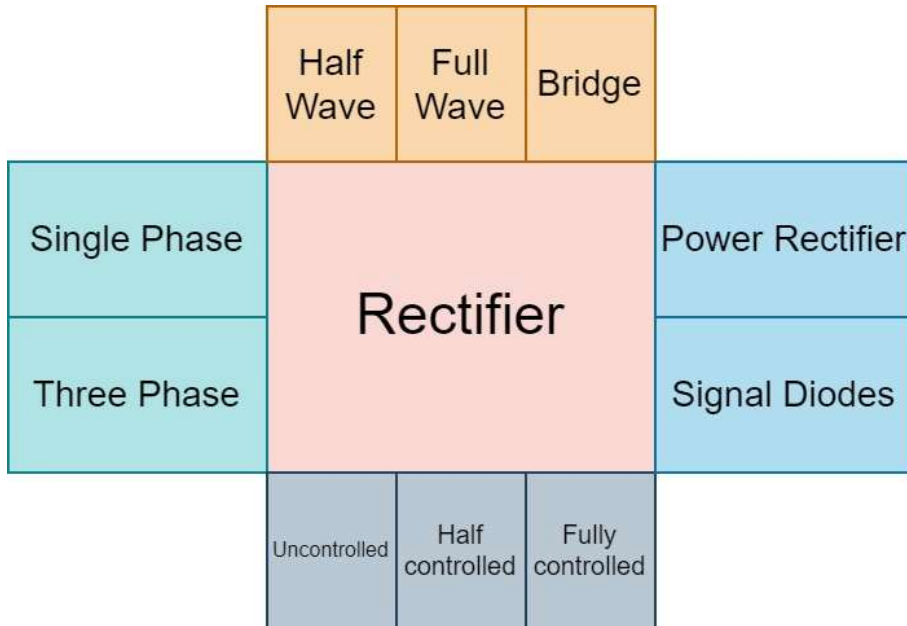


LRTs and heatsink



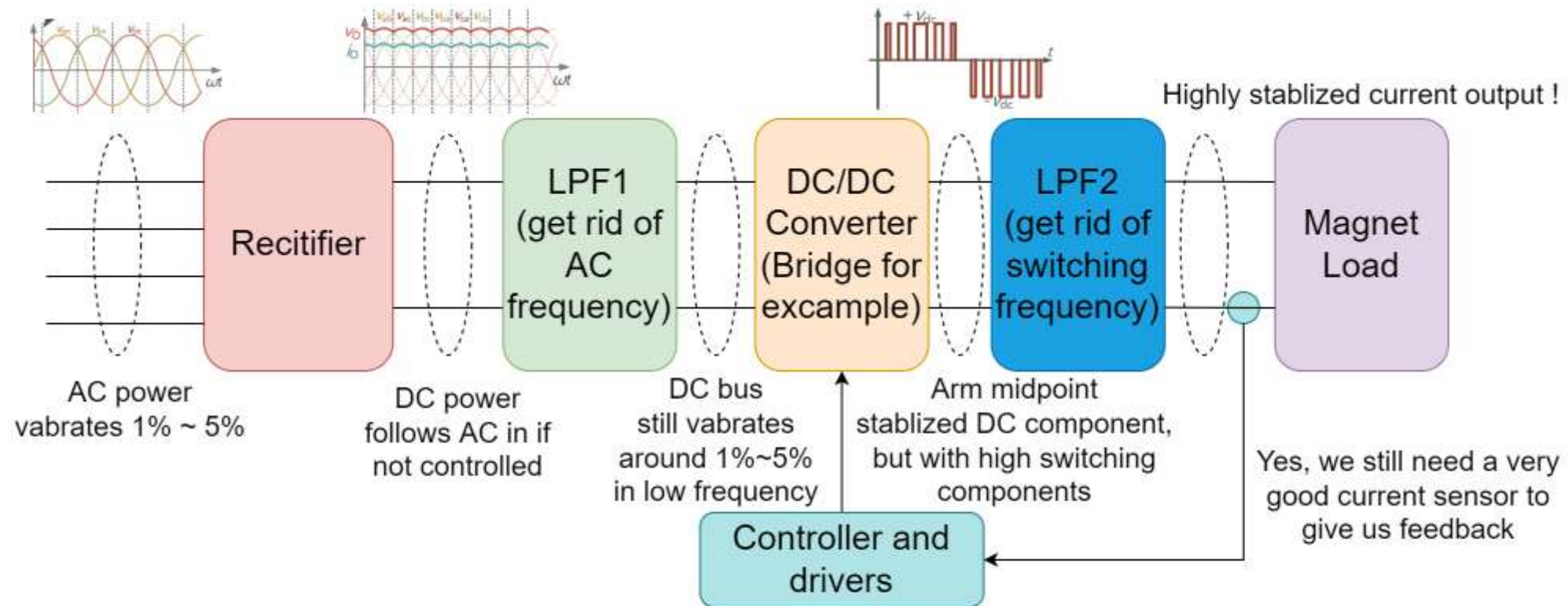
IGBTs and water-cooling plate

# Summary



We can choose our design in them according to different specifications.

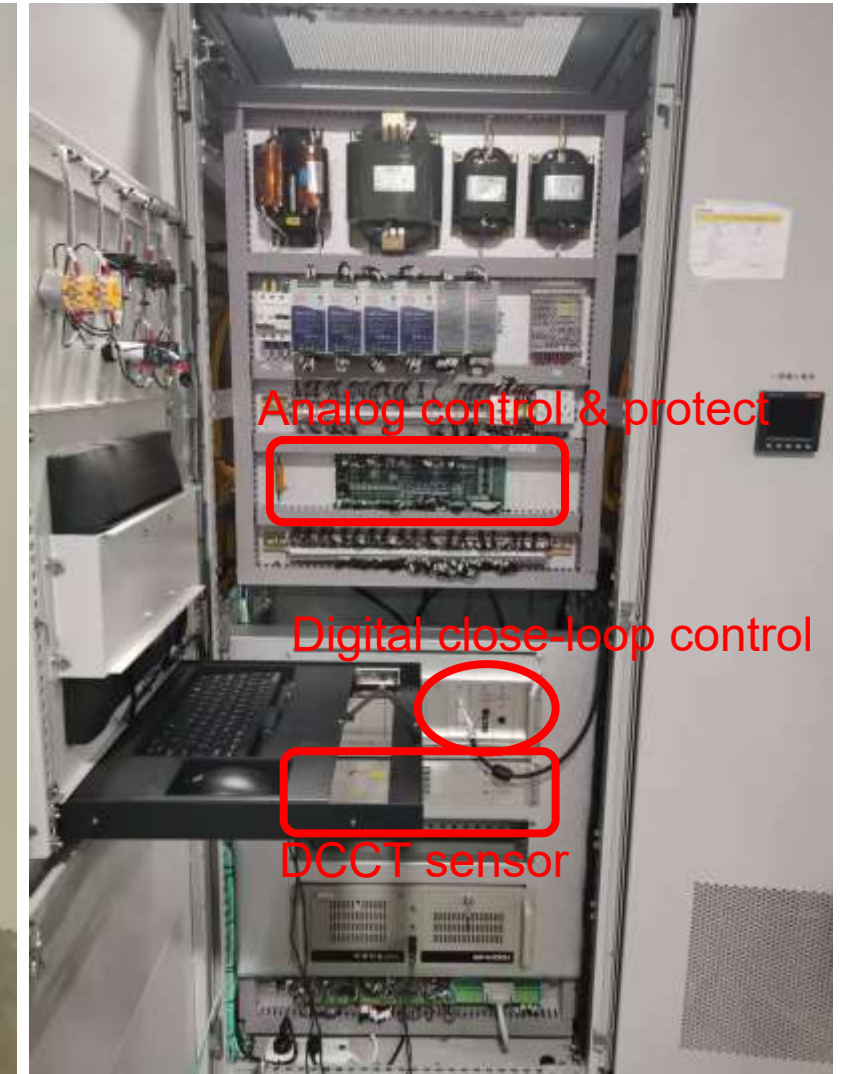
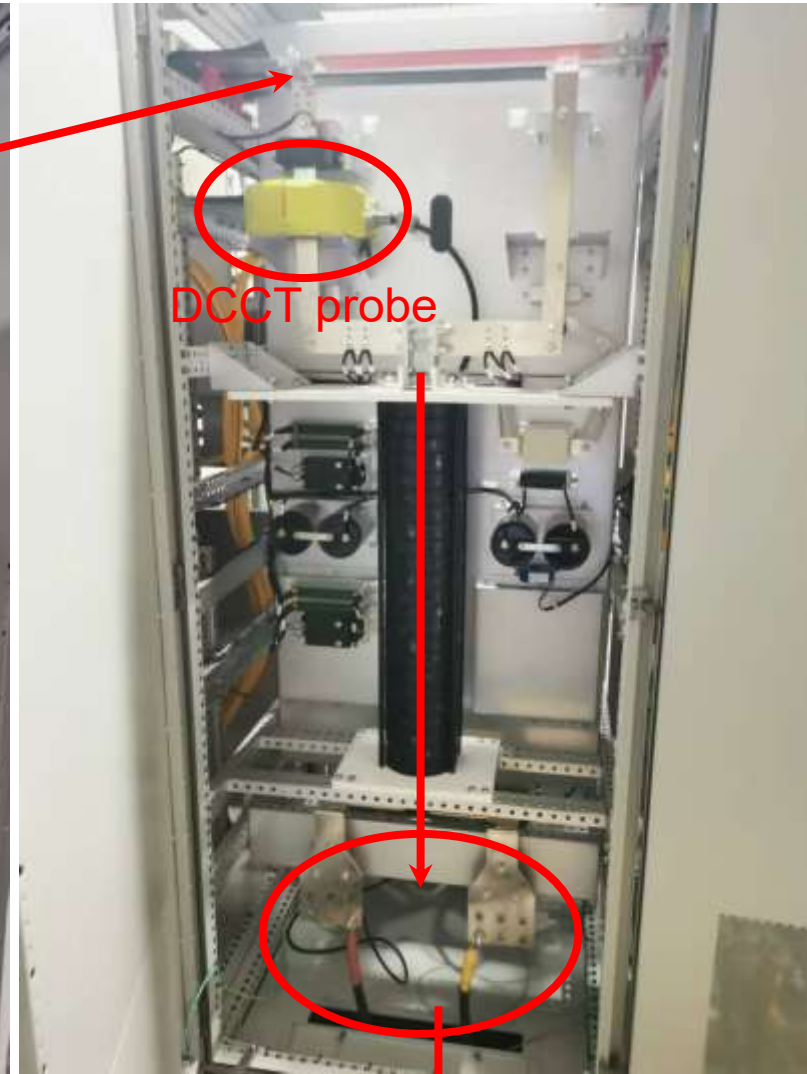
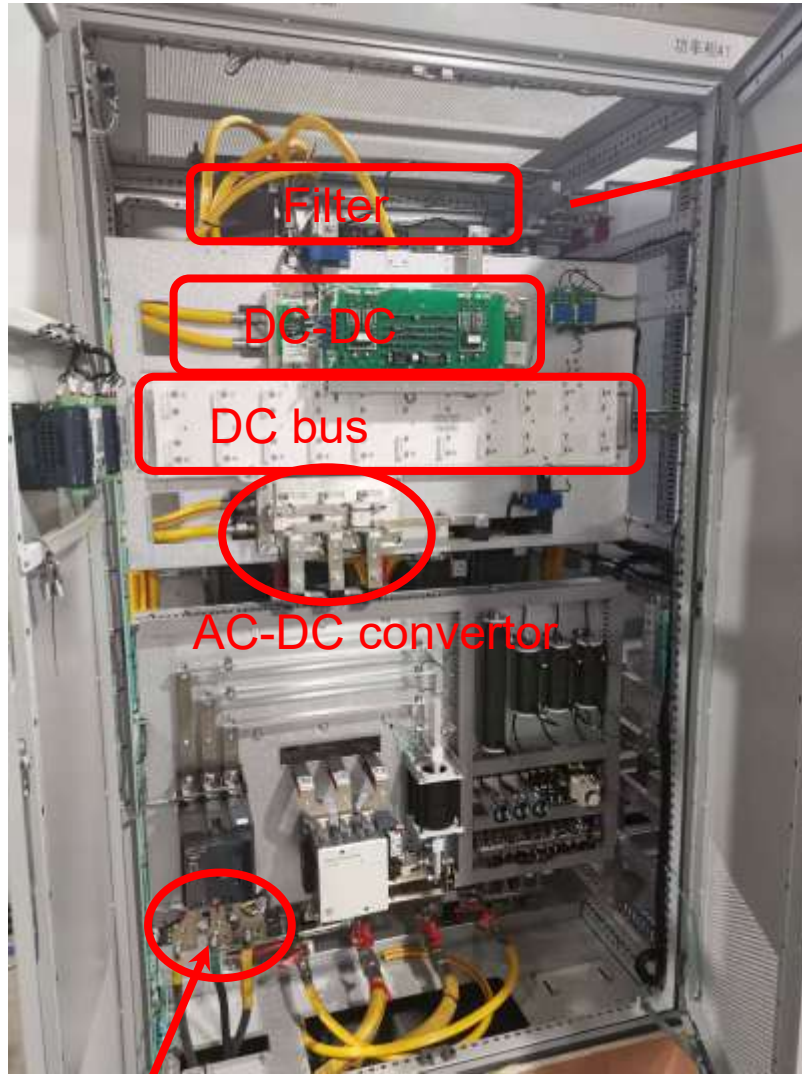
# An Example



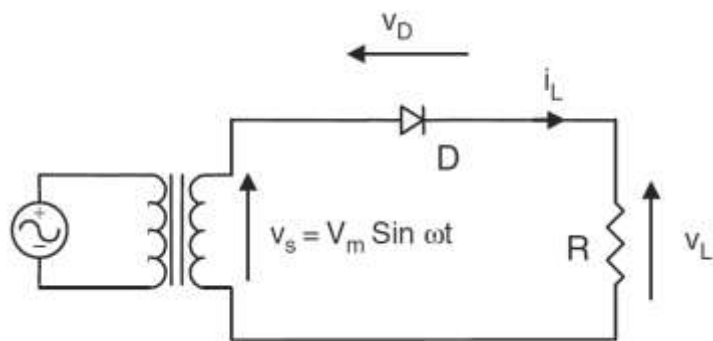
Grid Voltages and Tolerance			
Region	Single-Phase	Three-Phase	Tolerance Range
China	220V	380V	+7/-10%
US	120V	480V	±5% (Class A)
Europe	230V	400V	±10%
Japan	100V	200V	+6%/-10%
Thailand	230V	400V	±5%



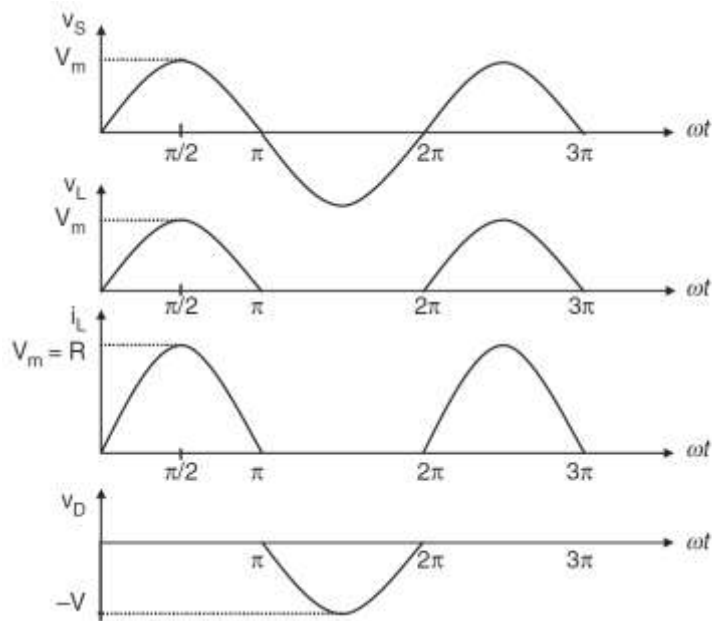
# What it may look like



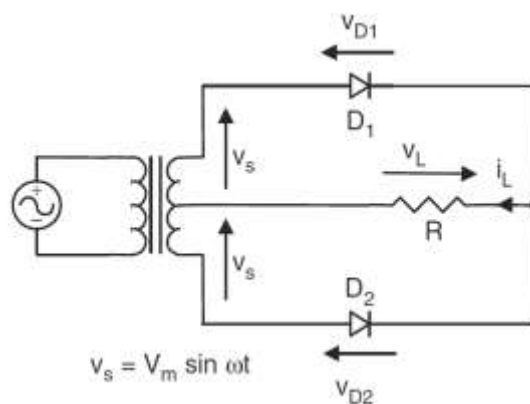
# Common AC-DC topology



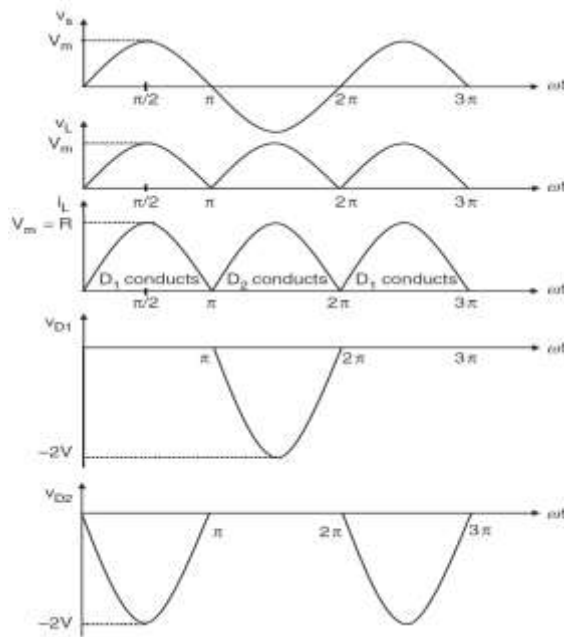
Single-phase, half-wave



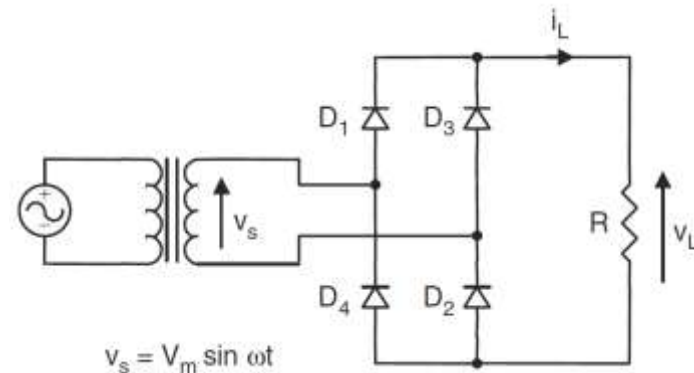
$$V_O = V_{avg} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\pi V_m \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t) = \frac{V_m}{\pi}$$



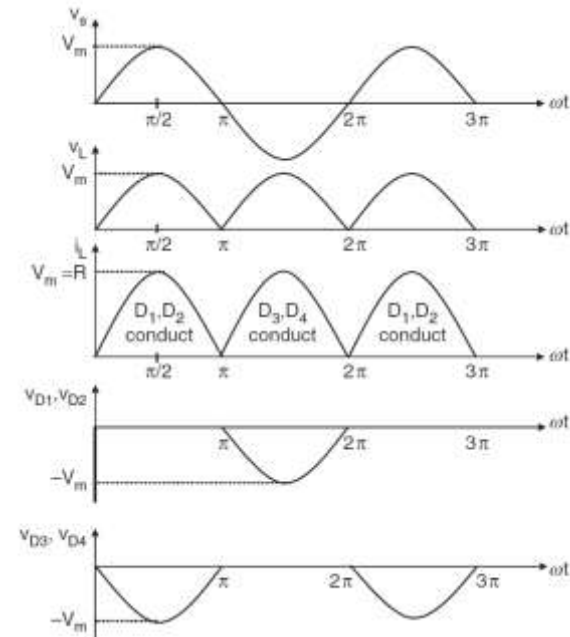
Single-phase, full-wave



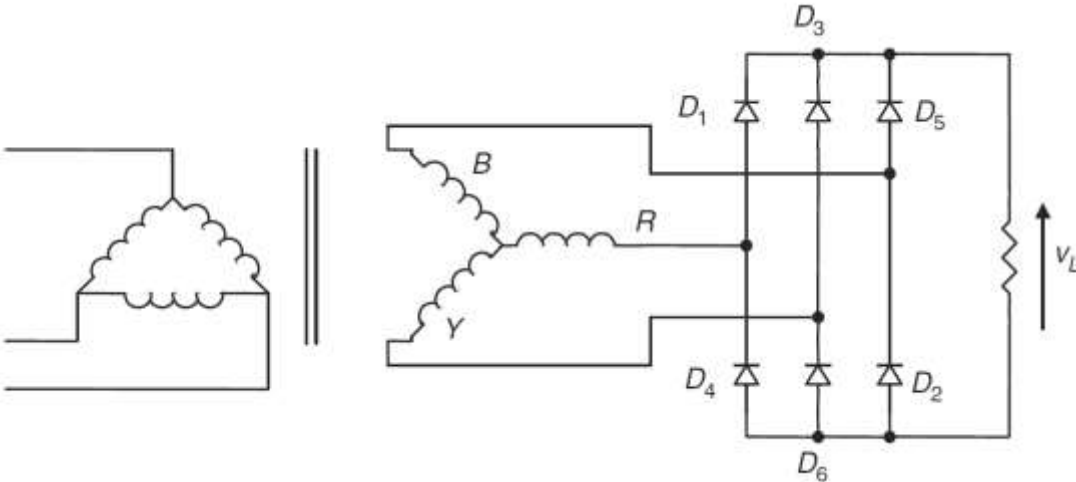
$$V_O = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi V_m \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t) = \frac{2V_m}{\pi}$$



Single-phase, bridge

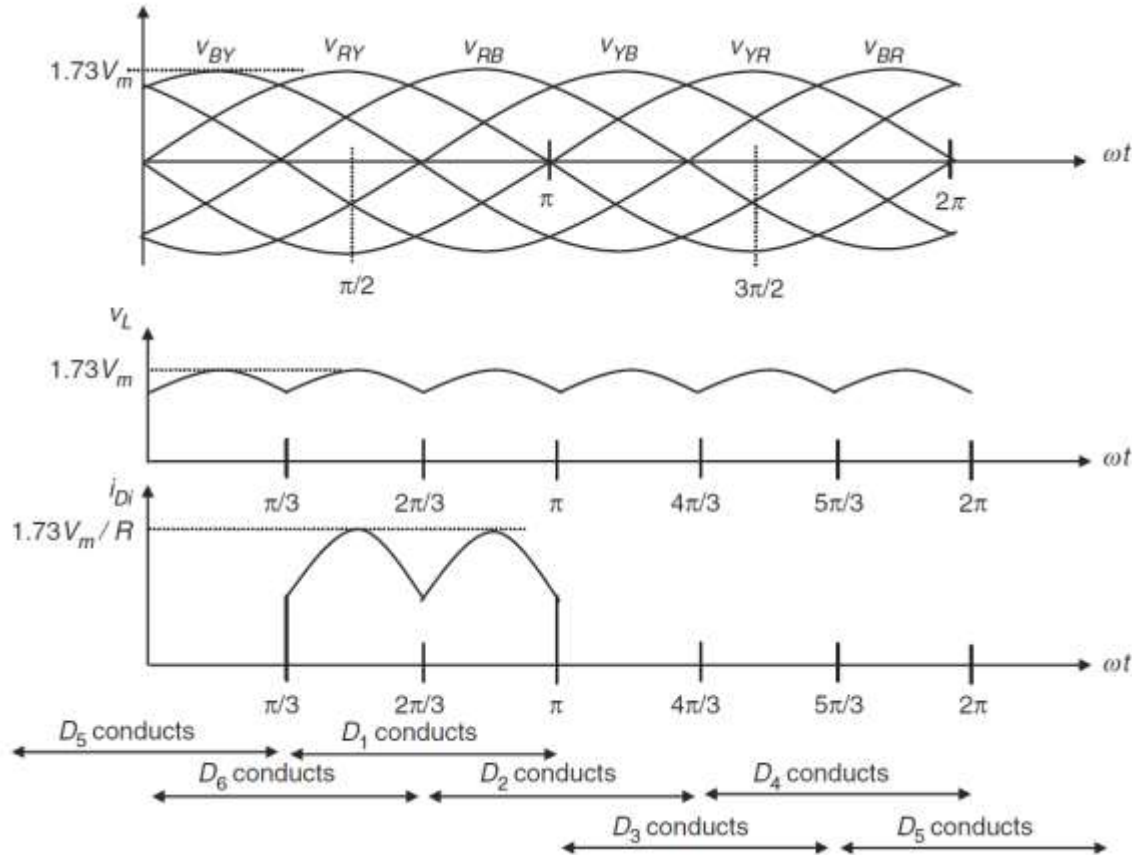


# Common AC-DC topology



Three-phase, bridge

$$V_O = \frac{1}{\pi/3} \int_{\pi/3}^{2\pi/3} \sqrt{3} V_m \sin \omega t d(\omega t) = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{\pi} V_m$$





# Common AC-DC devices



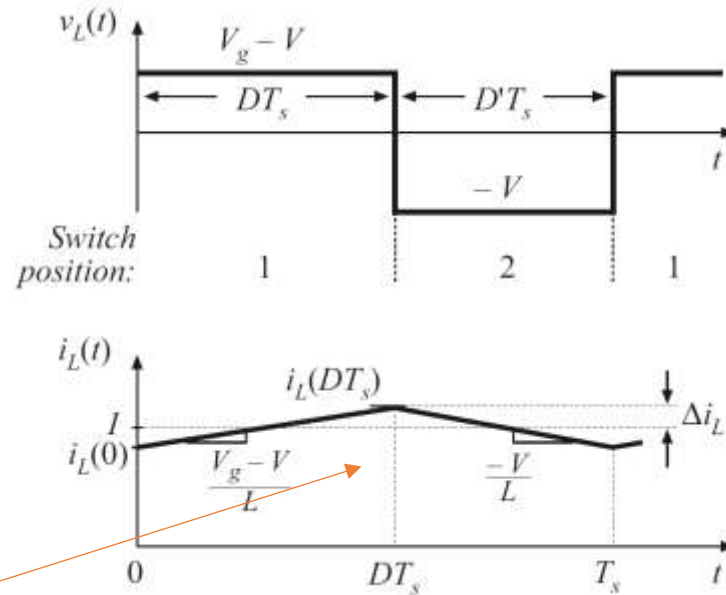
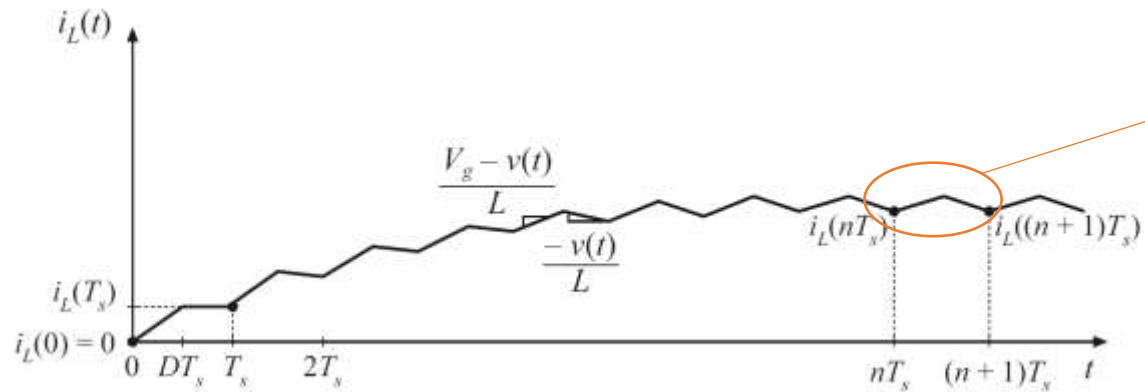
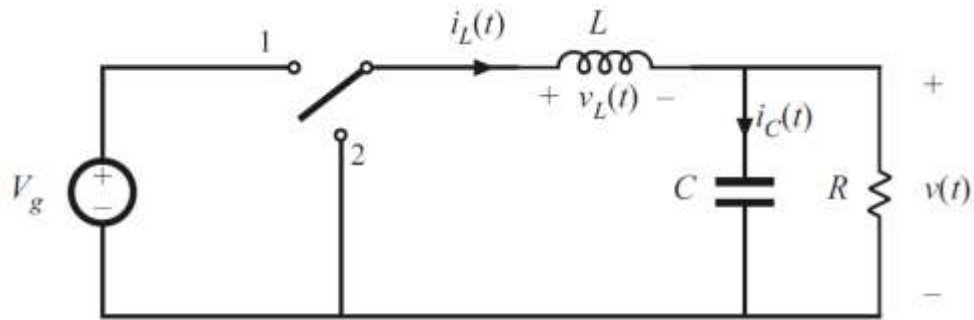
or





# Common DC-DC topology

Buck Converter



*Small Ripple Assumption*

$$\text{On: } \frac{di_L}{dt} = \frac{V_g - v(t)}{L} = \frac{V_g - V}{L}$$

$$\text{Off: } \frac{di_L}{dt} = \frac{-V}{L}$$

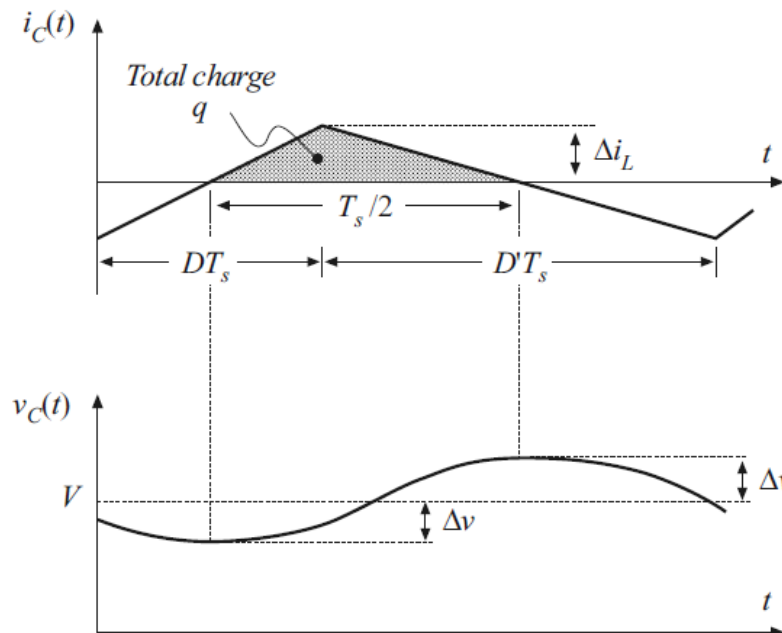
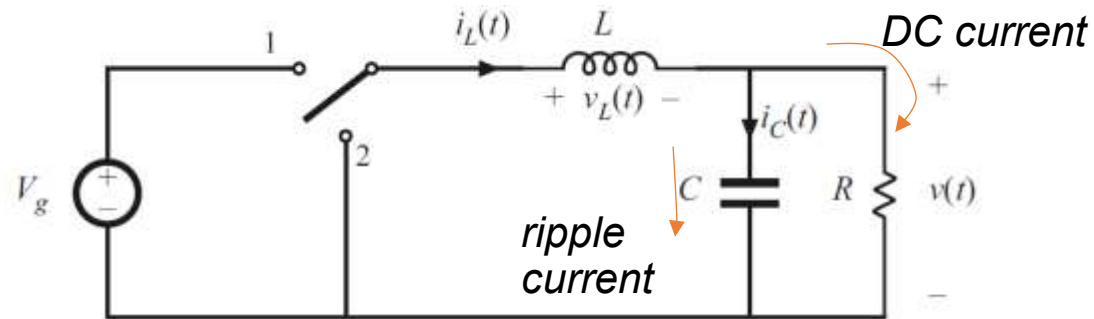
$$\text{Steady-State Condition: } \frac{V_g - V}{L} \times DT_s = \frac{V}{L} \times (1 - D)T_s$$

$$(V_g - V)DT_s = V(1 - D)T_s \quad \frac{V}{V_g} = D \quad \text{Change } D \text{ to adjust } V_o$$

$$L = \frac{V_g - V}{\Delta I_L} \times DT_s \quad \text{Choose } L \text{ to limit current ripple}$$

# Common DC-DC topology

## Buck Converter



$$q = \frac{1}{2} \Delta i_L \frac{T_s}{2} = C(2\Delta v)$$

$$\Delta v = \frac{1}{2} \Delta V = \frac{\Delta i_L T_s}{8C} = \frac{\Delta I_L T_s}{16C}$$

Choose  $C$  to limit voltage ripple

Remember:

### 1. Low Ripple assumption

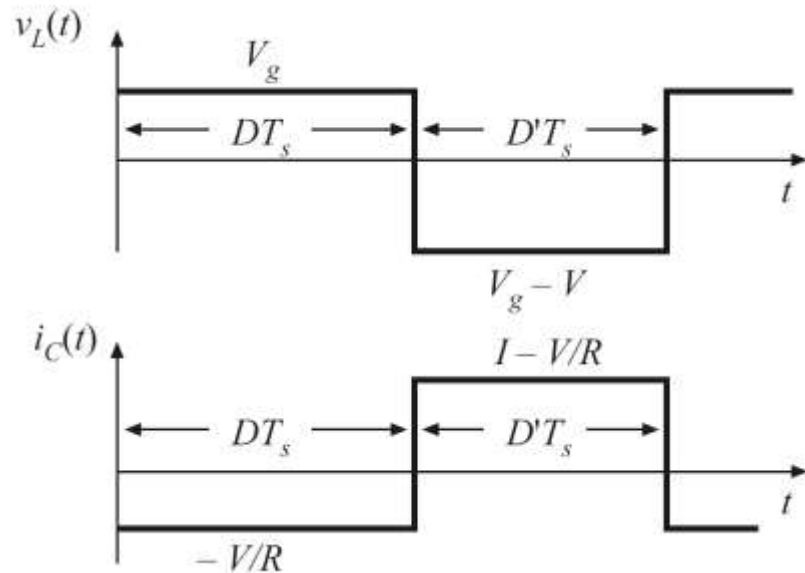
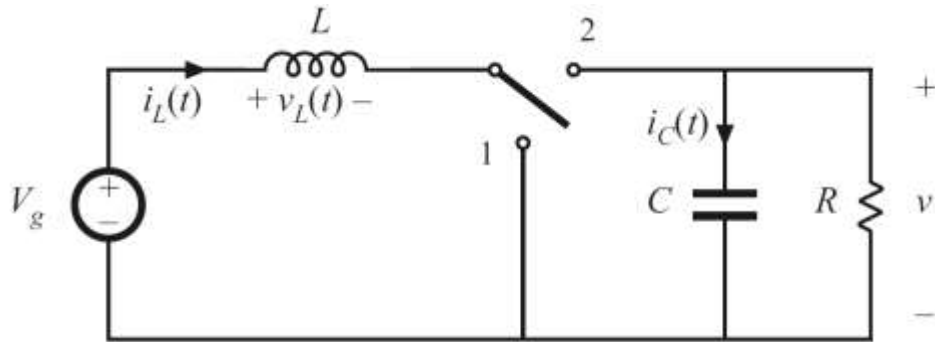
- $v(t)$  can be treated as constant  $V$
- All the ripple current flows to capacitor, so capacitor current is the same as inductor current without DC component.

### 2. Steady-State condition

- $\int_{T_{pwm}} v_L(t) dt = 0$
- $\int_{T_{pwm}} i_C(t) dt = 0$

# Common DC-DC topology

## Boost Converter



$$\text{On: } v_L(t) = V_g, i_C(t) = -\frac{V}{R}$$

$$\text{Off: } v_L(t) = V_g - V, i_C(t) = i_L(t) - \frac{V}{R} = I - \frac{V}{R}$$

Steady-State Condition:

$$V_g \times DT_s = -(V_g - V)D'T_s$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V}{V_g} = \frac{1}{D'}$$

$$\frac{V}{R} \times DT_s = \left(I - \frac{V}{R}\right) D'T_s$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \frac{V_g}{R} \frac{1}{D'^2}$$

LC estimation:

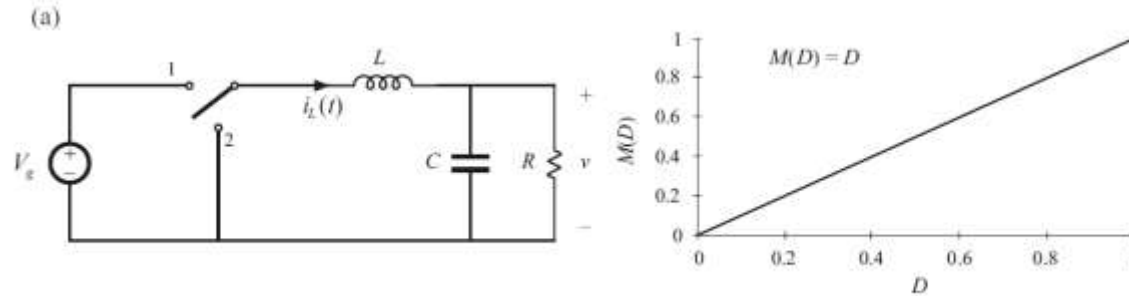
$$L = \frac{V_g}{\Delta I_L} DT_s, \Delta I_L : \text{peak-to-peak current ripple}$$

$$C = \frac{V}{R\Delta V_C} DT_s, \Delta V_C : \text{peak-to-peak voltage ripple}$$

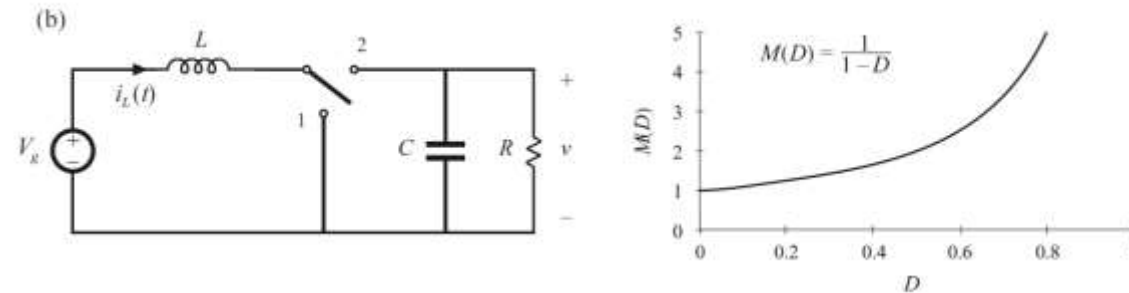
# Common DC-DC topology

## Basic DC-DC Converters

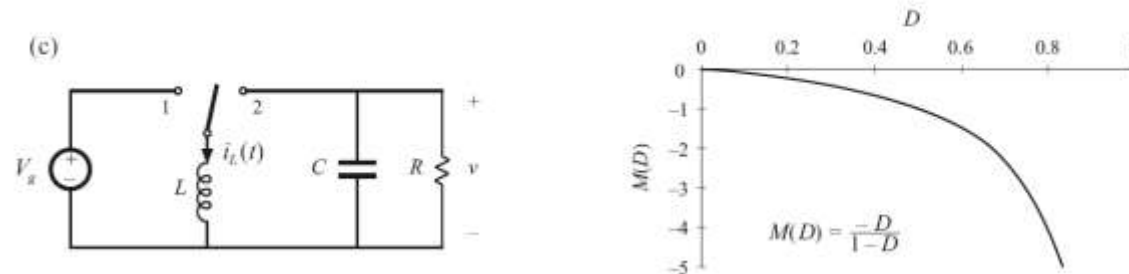
Buck:  $V_{out} < V_{in}$



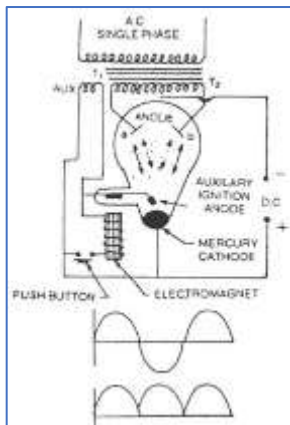
Boost:  $V_{out} > V_{in}$



Buck-Boost:  $V_{out} < \text{or} > V_{in}$



# Power Electronic Devices



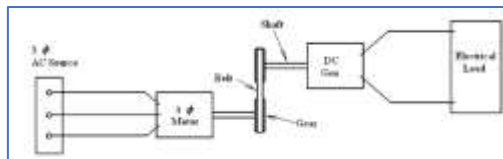
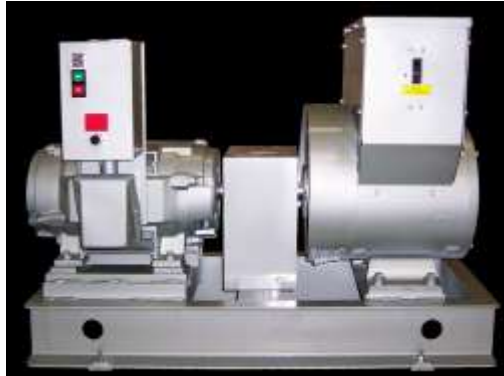
Mercury Arc Rectifier (1902)

*Anode: from Greek words, "Way up", positive charge comes in*

*Cathode: "Way down"*

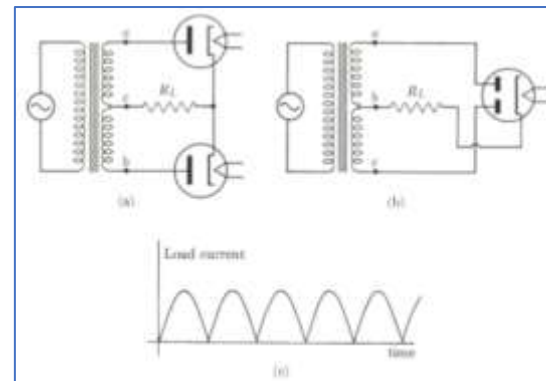
*Thyristor: "door" + "transformer" ("Thyri-" ← Greek word "thyreos")*

*Rectify: to make something right, (Alternating to Direct)*



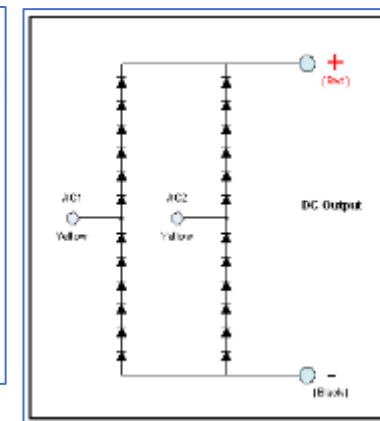
Motor-Generator Sets

(Still used when rugged and robust conversion is required)



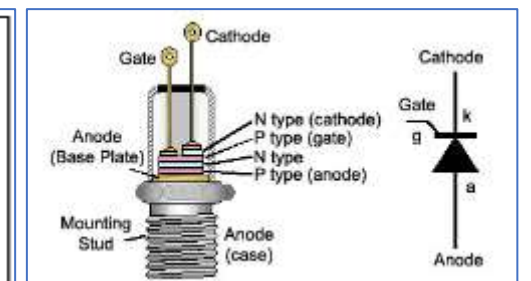
Vacuum Tube Rectifiers

(1920s, Very high voltage capacity)



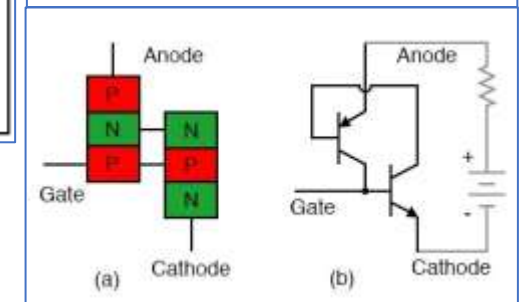
Selenium Rectifiers

(1930s)



SCR/Thyristor (1957)

IEEE Milestone



# Diode



$V_B$ : Reverse Breakdown Voltage

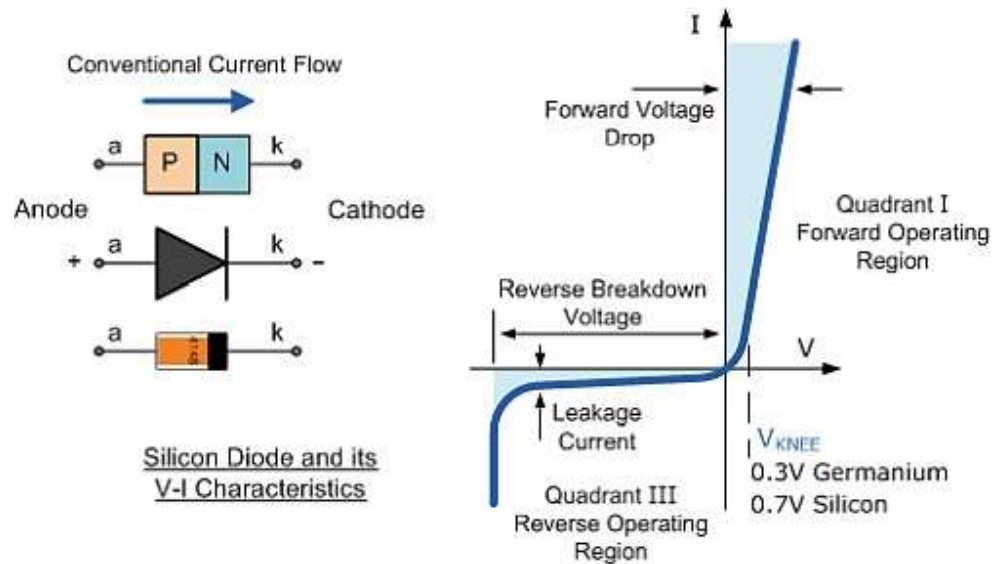
$i_R$ : Reverse (Leakage) Current

$V_F$ : Forward Voltage Drop

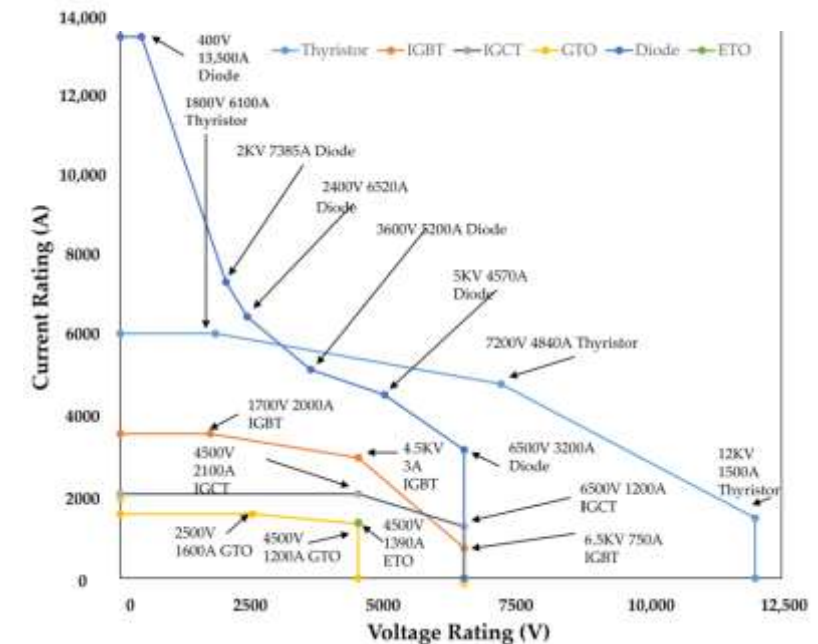
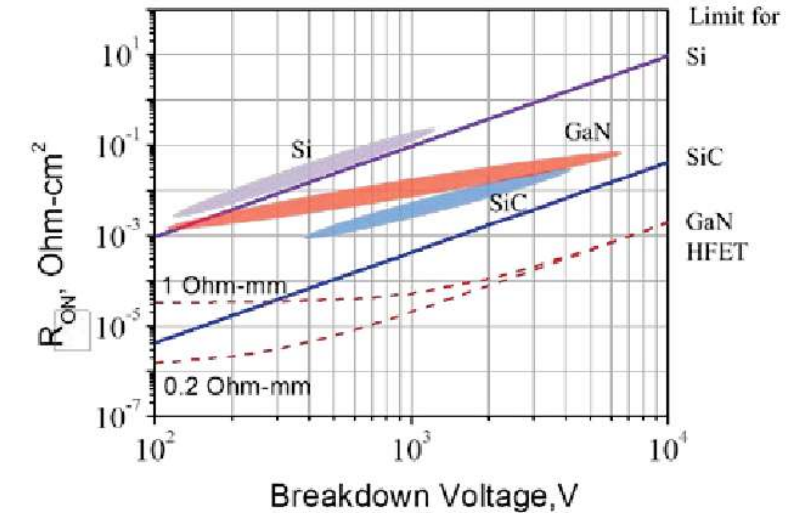
$V_{TO}$ : Threshold Voltage

$V_{KNEE}$ : Knee Voltage

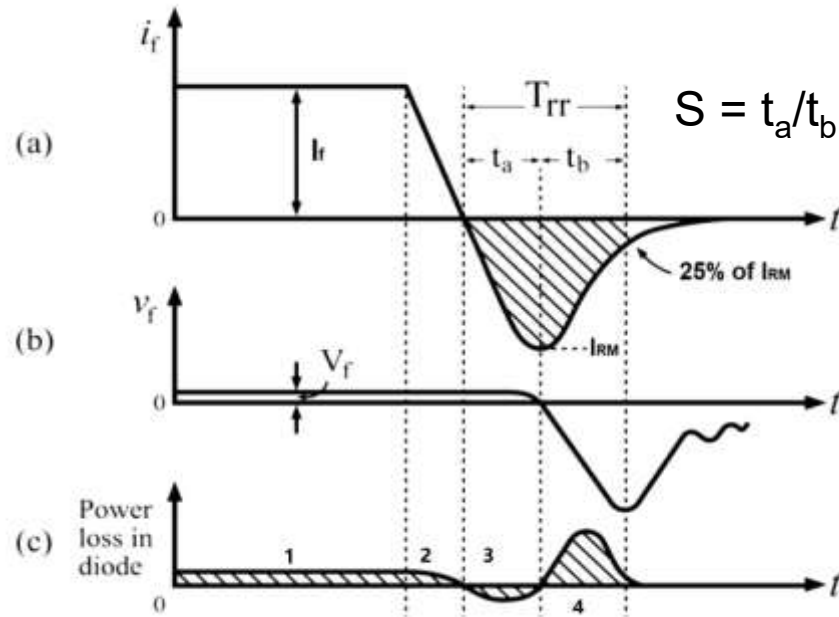
$i_F$ : Forward Current



Silicon Diode and its V-I Characteristics



# Diode Power Loss



1. Diode is ON

Loss due to forward current and  $R_{on}$

2. Diode is ON

Forward current dropping, voltage dropping too (but very little)

3. The charge from the depletion region is removed

$V_f$  not blocked, until the minority carriers are exhausted at  $t_a$ , when the diode reverse-recovery current reaches the negative maximum  $I_{RM}$

4. The diode blocks negative voltage and the reverse current continues to flow to charge the body diode depletion capacitance.

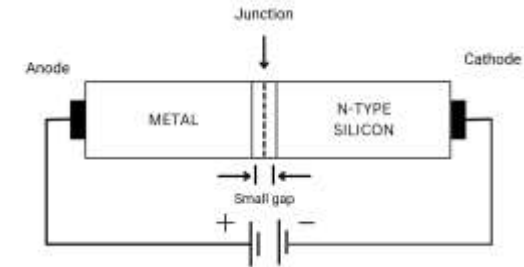
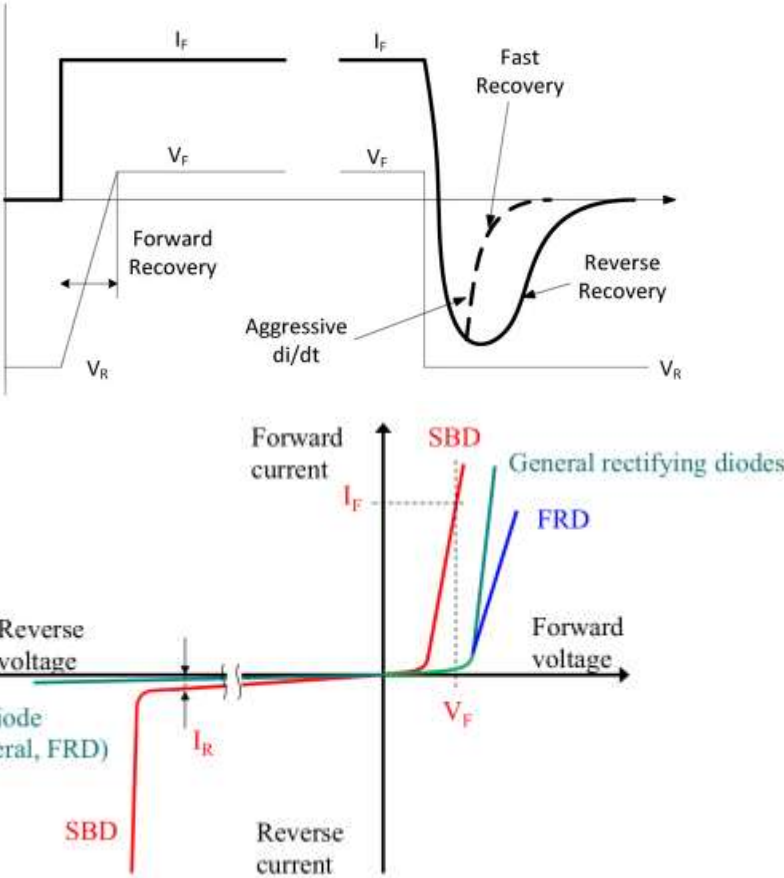
Conduction loss increases with forward current ( or “working current”)

Switching loss increases with switching frequency



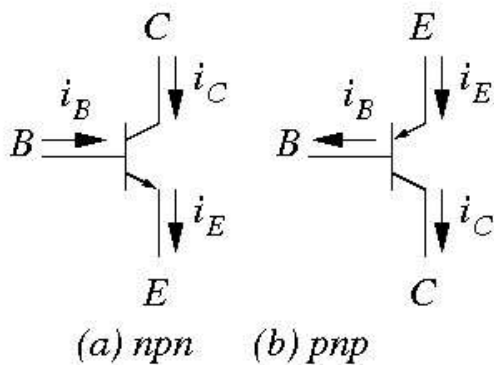
# How to choose

- Rectifier Diode
  - Normal recovery or soft recovery ( $S > 1$ )
  - $T_{rr} \sim \mu s$
  - Normally used in rectifier
- Fast Recovery Diode
  - $T_{rr} < 1 \mu s$ , Super fast recovery diode  $< 0.1 \mu s$
  - Serves as a freewheeling diode for switching devices, maintaining inductive load operation
- Schottky Barrier Diode
  - Formed by metal-N-type semiconductor junction, only majority carriers participate in conduction
  - No recovery charge
  - Low  $V_f$
  - Limited to low-voltage applications



	General Rectifying Diode	Fast Recovery Diode	Schottky Barrier Diode	SiC SBD
VA rating	5000V & 3000A	3000V & 1000A	100V & 300A	1200V & 40A
Reverse Recovery Time	Long	Short	Very Short	Very Short
Shutdown Time	$\approx 25\mu s$	$\approx 0.1 \sim 5\mu s$	$< 10ns$	$< 15ns$
Switching Frequency	Long	Short	Very Short	Very Short
Forward Voltage	0.7 ~ 2.1V	0.8 ~ 1.6V	0.4 ~ 0.6V	1.5 ~ 2.2V

# BJT (Bipolar Junction Transistor)



Power BJT always works in saturation and cutoff

$i_C$ : Collector Current

$i_B$ : Base Current

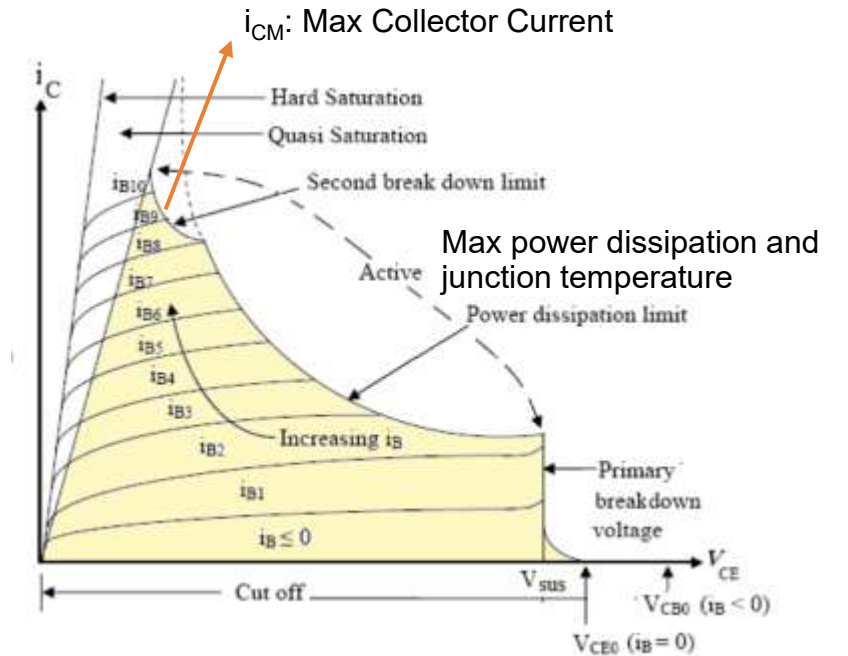
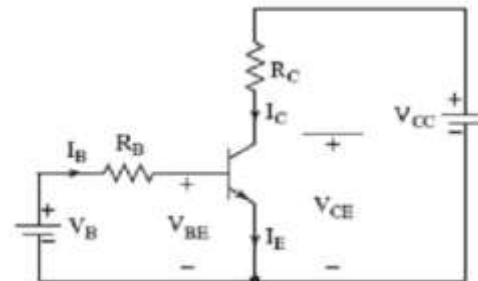
$V_{CE}$ : Collector-Emitter Voltage

$V_{BE}$ : Base-Emitter Voltage

$V_{SUS}$ : Avalanche Breakdown Voltage

$V_{CE0}$ : Breakdown Voltage when  $i_B = 0$

$V_{CB0}$ : Breakdown Voltage when  $i_B < 0$



- Cutoff

- $i_C = 0, V_{CE} = V_{CC}$

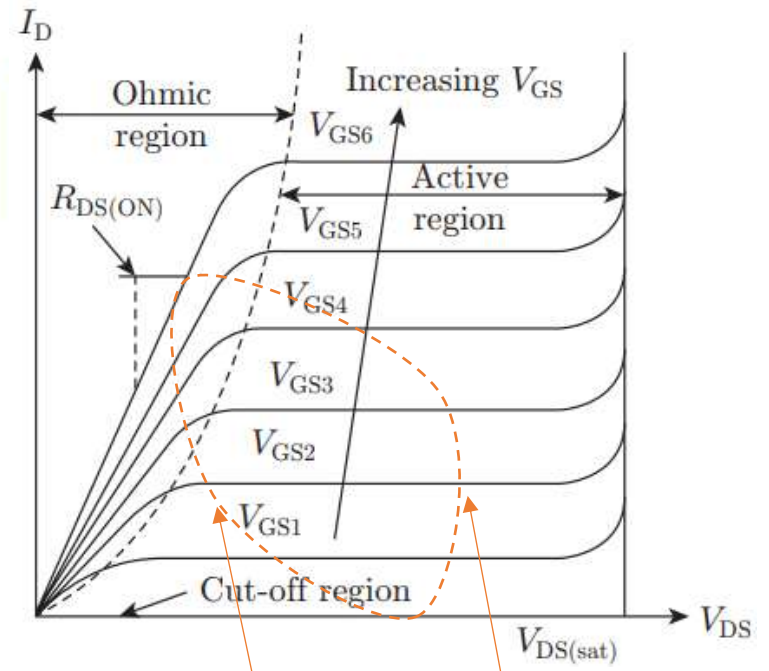
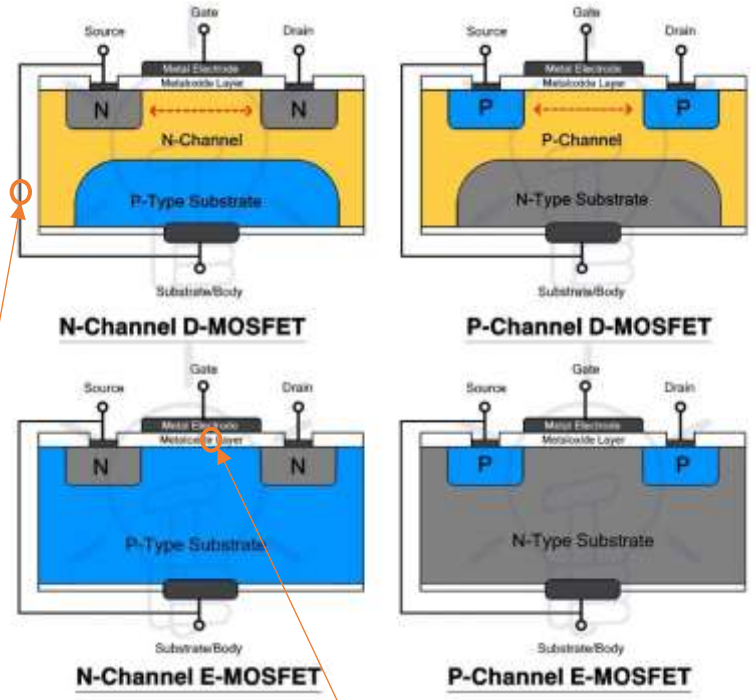
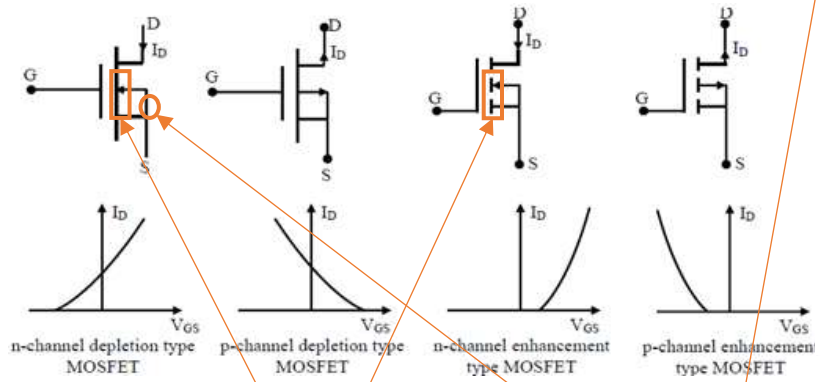
- Active

- $i_{C(MAX)} = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{CE}}{R_C} = \beta i_{B(MAX)}$

- Saturation

- $i_C = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C}, V_{CE} = 0$

# MOSFET (Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor Field-Effect Transistor)

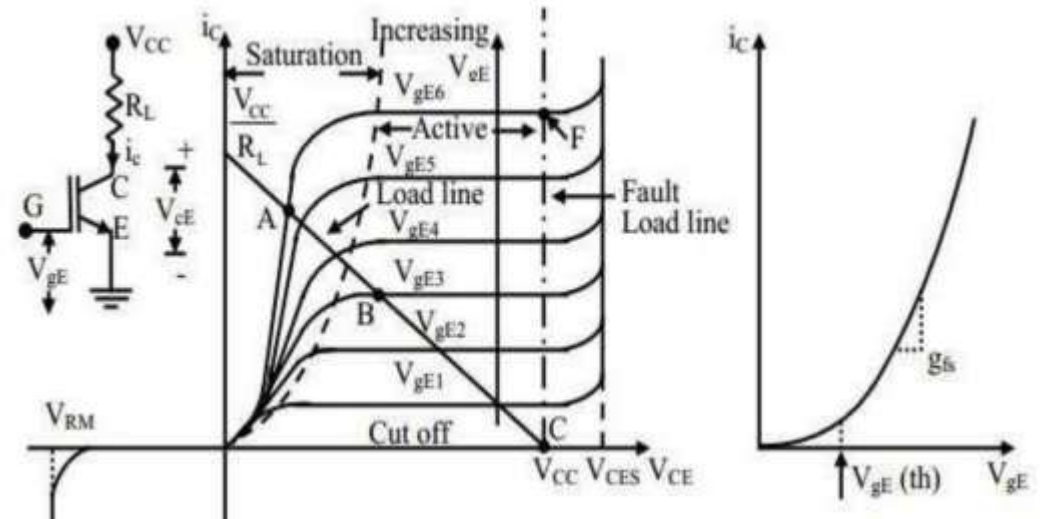
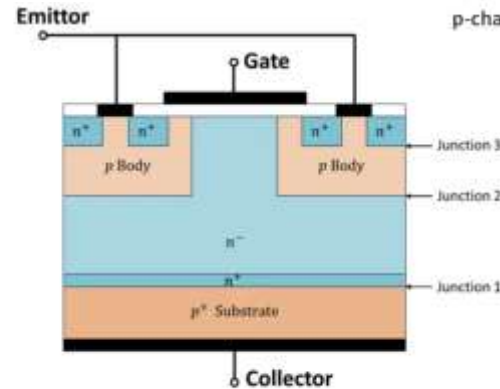
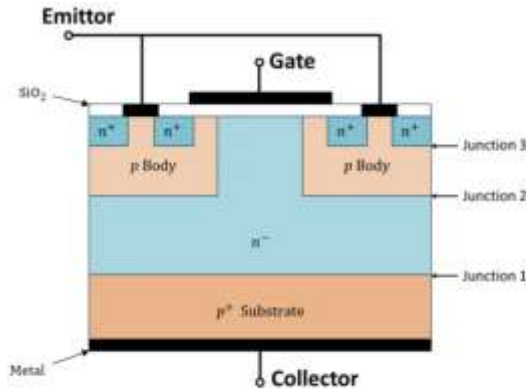
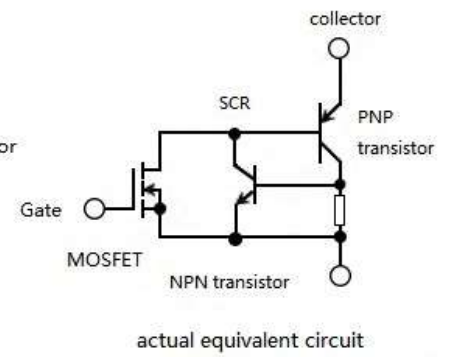
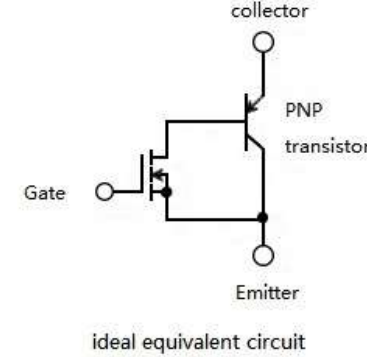
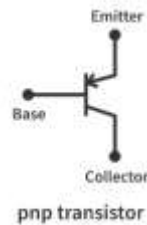
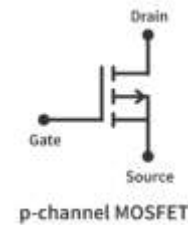
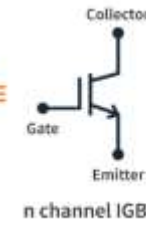
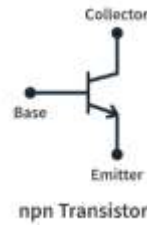
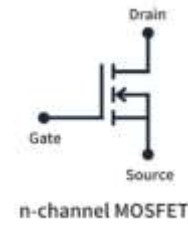


No direct contact between Gate and Body

Turn on      Turn off

The status of default conductive channel  
Source is connected to Body

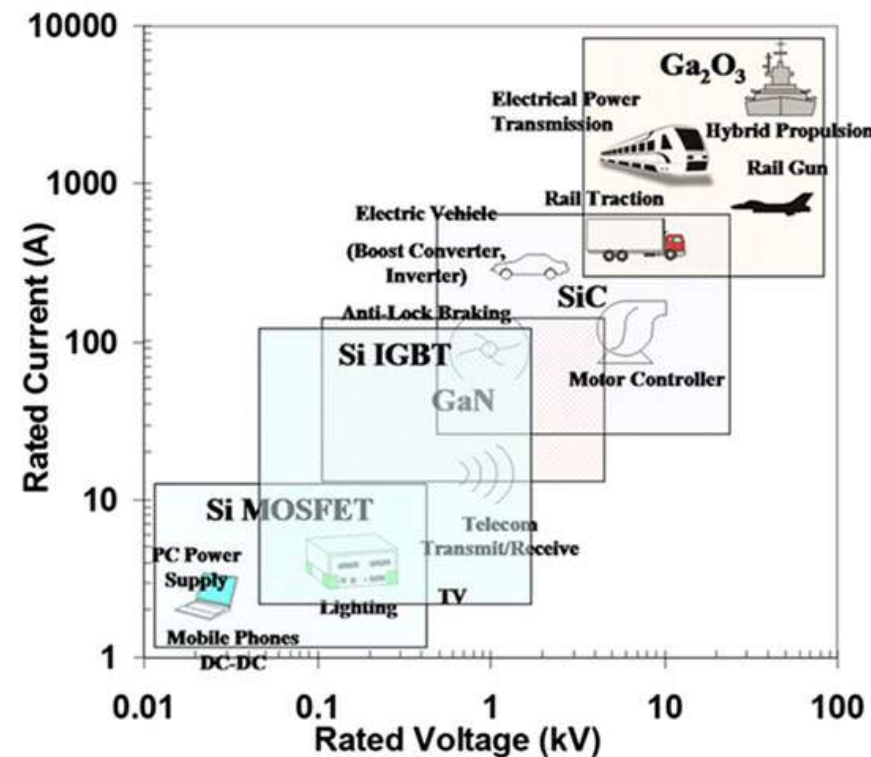
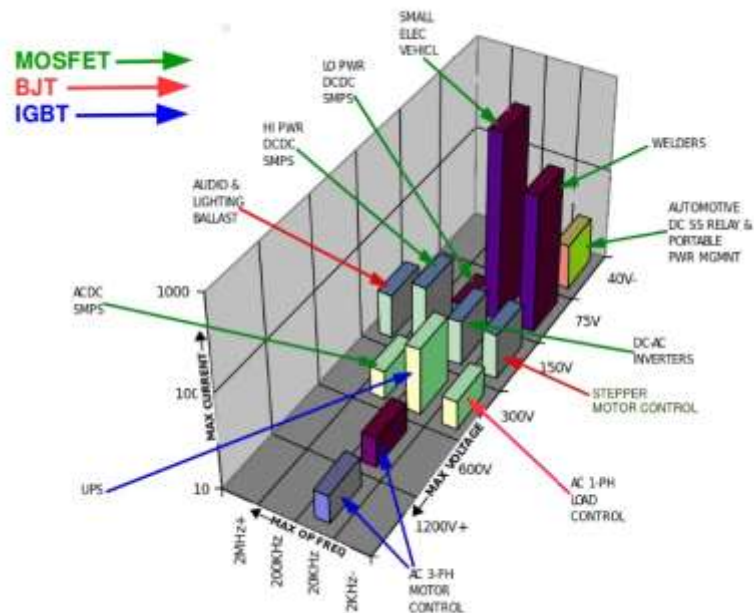
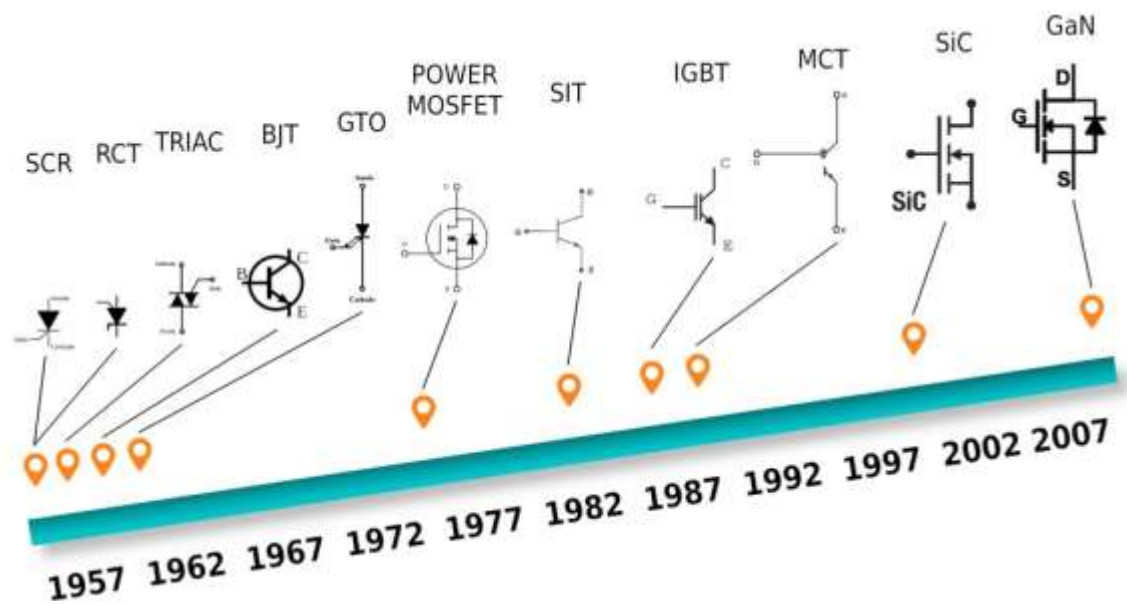
# IGBT (Insulated Gate Bipolar Transistor)



Larger current than MOSFET + smaller loss than BJT ?



# Summary



Metric	Development Focus	Traditional Si Devices	Wide-Bandgap Devices (SiC/GaN)
Blocking Voltage	Higher	≤ 6.5kV (IGBT)	1.2kV (GaN), 10kV (SiC)
Conduction Loss	Reduce RON	VCE ≈ 2V (IGBT)	< 1V
Switching Frequency	Minimize ESW	kHz range (IGBT)	MHz range (GaN)
Temperature Range	Higher	≤ 175°	≥ 200°
Power Density	Integrated packaging	Low	High
Reliability	Extend MTTF	High	Improving
Cost	Scale-driven reduction	≈ \$ 0.1/W	≈ \$ 0.5/W

# Machine Protection

## MPS Failure Sources:

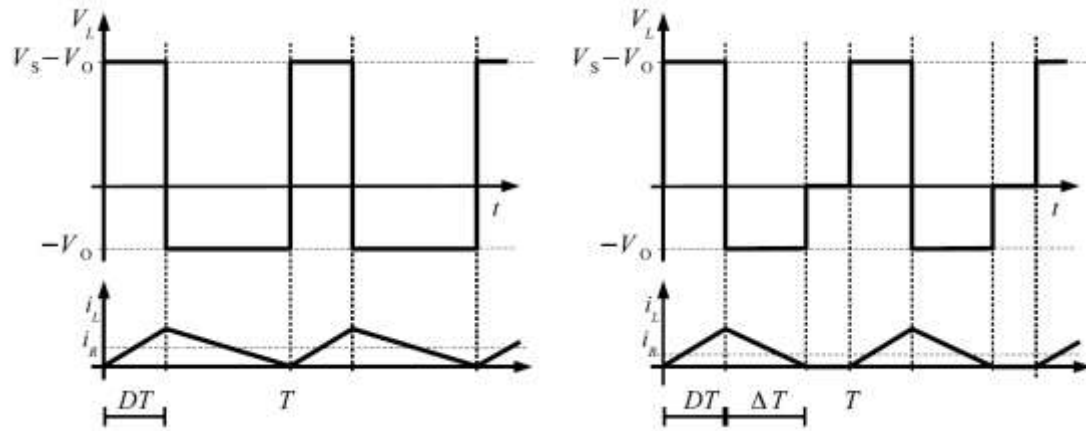
- Heat
  - Resistors
  - Inductors, transformers
  - Capacitors ESR
  - Switches
- OC and OV
  - Driver failure
  - Shoot through
  - Inappropriate deadtime
  - Load or wiring
  - Oscillation
- Water leakage
- Grid fluctuation
  - Phase loss or imbalance
  - Spikes
- External Interlock
  - Load magnets
  - External machine & radiation interlocks

- Carefully thermal design and simulation
- Providing adequate margin in capacitor voltage and ripple current rating, switching devices voltage rating and frequencies.
- Temperature sensors in critical spots
- Full-capacity testing
- Optimize PCB design to reduce drive losses and switching time
- Desing, simulation and optimization of filters and compensation
- Optimize cooling channel to reduce flow resistance
- Design drainage channels in case of leakage
- Hybrid cooling techniques
- Phase-loss relays and snubber circuits
- Hardware protecting circuits for rapid response to interlocks
- .....

In power electronics, hardware protection is the last line of defense—it must work when everything else fails.

# Special Issues about Accelerator MPS

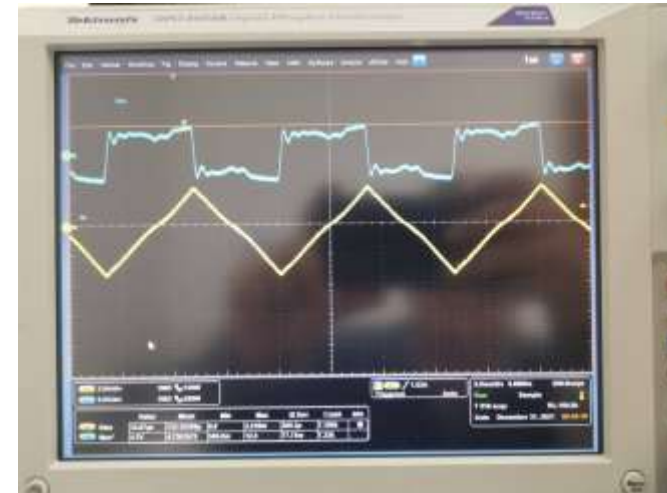
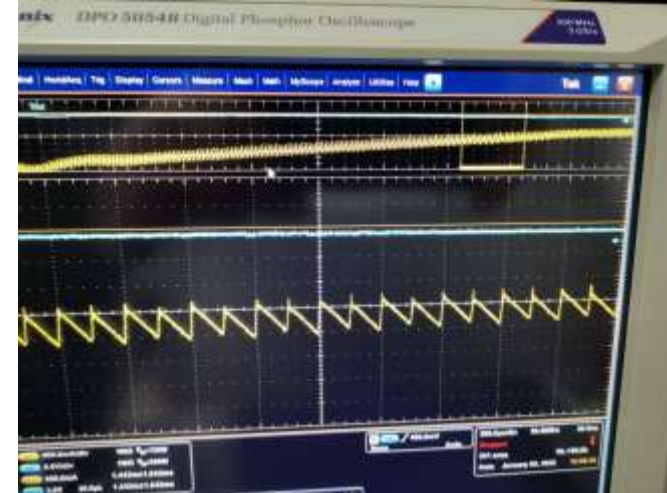
Current discontinuous



$D \downarrow$  or  $R \uparrow \rightarrow$  Inductor current reaching zero

Transfer function changes

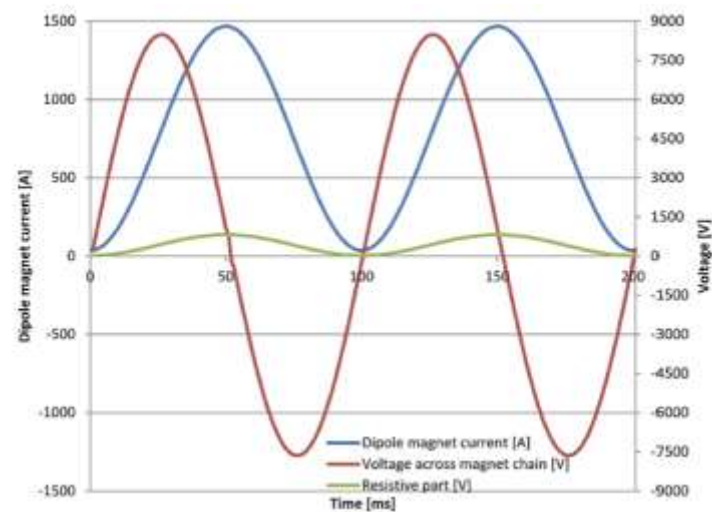
Need consideration when  $i_L$  has to pass through zero



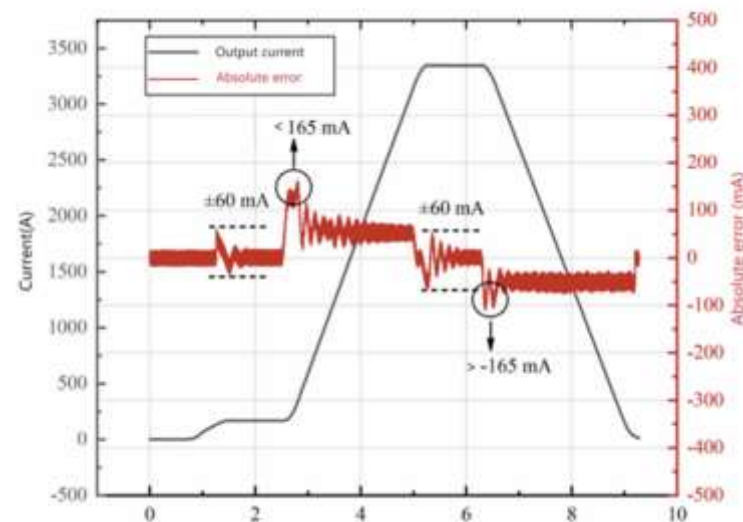


# Dynamic & Waveform

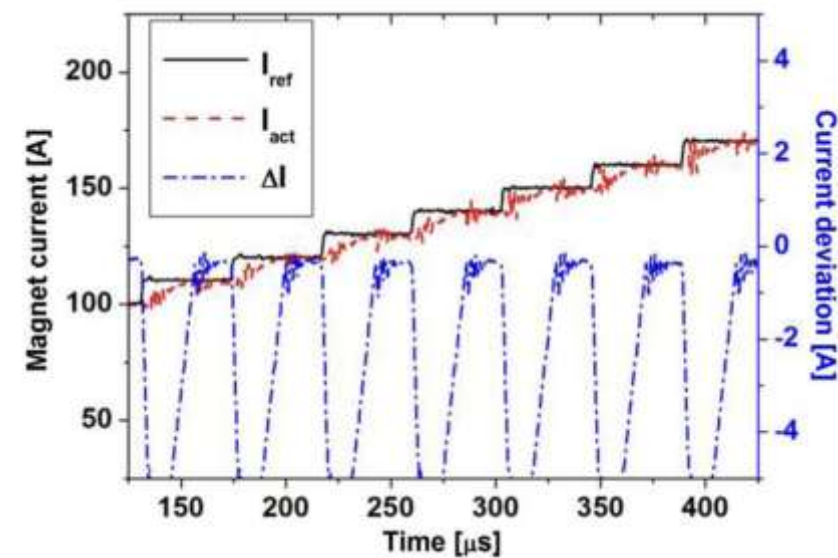
Dynamic current requirements



Booster MPS



Pulse MPS

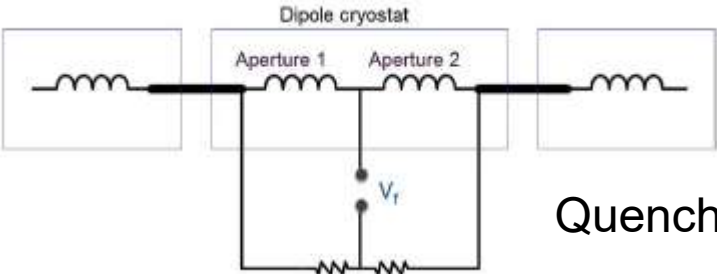
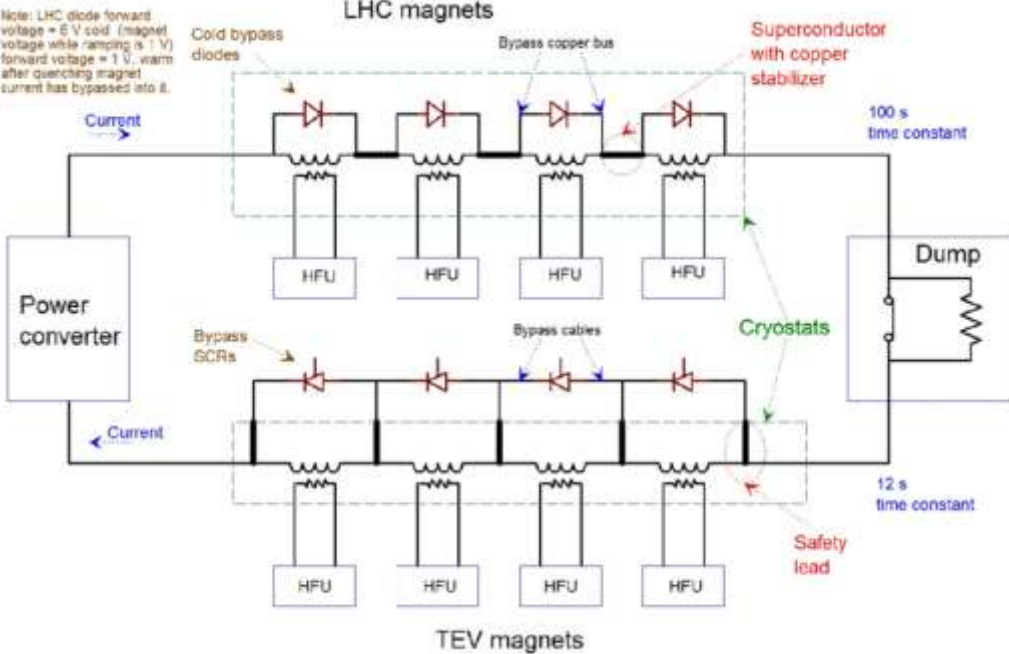
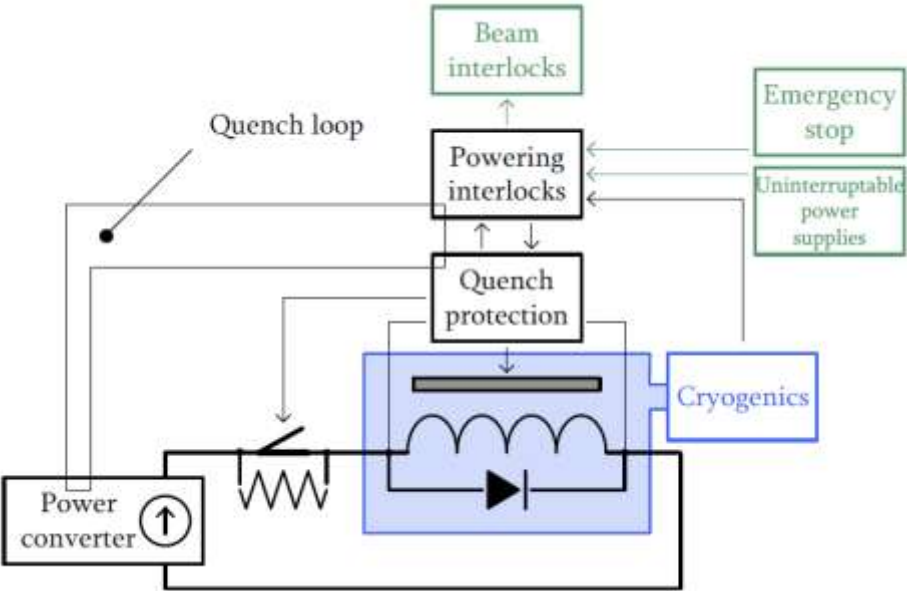


Scanning MPS

Resonant or Digital Controlled Waveform

HV + LV architecture

# Quench Protection



Quench detection:  $|V_f| > 0.1V$

Sept. 2008, helium leak caused by “bad solder joint” in copper stabilizer

# Radiation

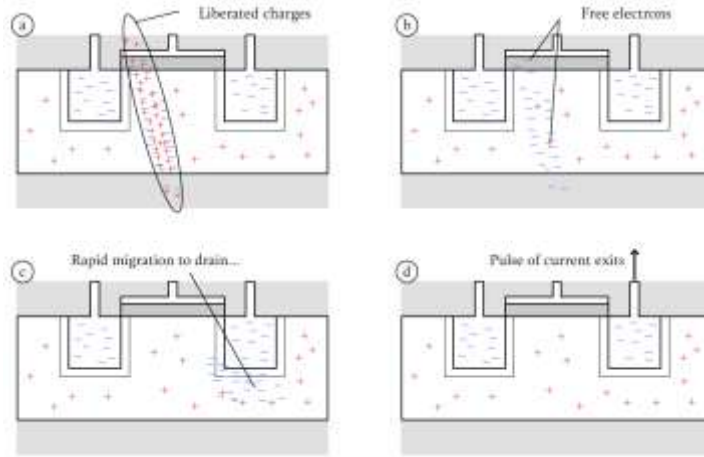
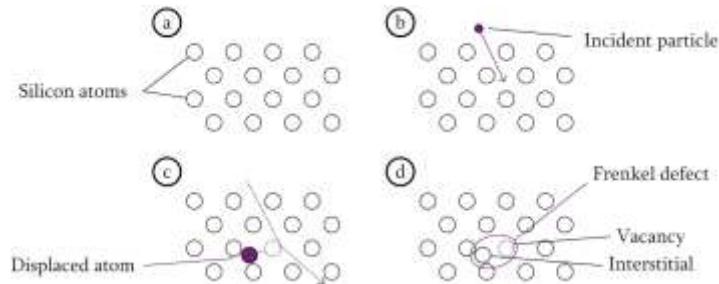


TABLE II  
GAMMA IRRADIATION OF HIGH GAIN NPN TRANSISTOR 2N 3565

TID (krads) at dose rate of 88.23 krad/hr.	Duration of Exposure (Hours/Min.)	Gain before Irradiation of Sample Lot (I)	Gain before Irradiation of Sample Lot (II)	Gain after Irradiation of Sample (I)	Gain after Irradiation of Sample (II)	Average gain after Irradiation of Sample (I) & (II) in (%)
2.94	2 minutes	183	188	179	182	97.3
8.82	6 minutes	170	185	164	178	96.345
25.0	17 minutes	216	208	173	164	79.475
50.0	34 minutes	225	232	157	168	71.095
100.0	68 minutes	236	235	145	127	57.72
300.0	3.24 hours	251	241	83	88	34.805
500.0	5.40 hours	253	254	50	70	23.66
750.0	8.30 hours	269	270	49	51	18.555
4000.0	45.20 hours	325	322	41	47	13.610
6500.0	73.40 hours	209	213	18	10	6.655
10100.0	124.40 hours	305	337	Nil	Nil	0.0

Transistor gain decay

## Single event effects



## Displacement damage

Type	Input voltage	Output current	First phase				Second phase			
			Vout at start of acquisition (V)	Vout at end of first acquisition (V)	N-dose at end of first acquisition (n/cm <sup>2</sup> )	Output Voltage difference (V)	Vout at start of acquisition (V)	Vout at end of first acquisition (V)	N-dose at end of first acquisition (n/cm <sup>2</sup> )	Output Voltage difference (V)
Delta AC/DC 75SX5	230Vac	9.75A	4.9960	5.0093	0.197 10 <sup>12</sup>	0.0133	5.0103	7.0503	1.947 10 <sup>12</sup>	2.04
CEA DC/DC C0000071003	48Vdc	4.5A	4.8959	4.8989	0.197 10 <sup>12</sup>	0.0030	4.9027	4.8932	1.947 10 <sup>12</sup>	-0.0095
Melcher DC/DC 48IMR-25-05-2	48Vdc	3.75A	4.9724	4.9800	0.197 10 <sup>12</sup>	0.0076	4.9824	7.6484	1.947 10 <sup>12</sup>	2.666
Lambda DC/DC RM-30-48-5	48Vdc	4.5	4.9128	4.9101	0.197 10 <sup>12</sup>	-0.0027	4.9134	6.1780 OVP-> Trip	0.953 10 <sup>12</sup> Trip N-dose	1.2646
Artesyn DC/DC BXA4048S05SM	48Vdc	6	4.9760	4.9825	0.197 10 <sup>12</sup>	0.0065	4.9892	6.1899	1.947 10 <sup>12</sup>	1.2007
Syko DC/DC SRI-U-50-05-60	48Vdc	4.5	5.0899	5.0745	0.197 10 <sup>12</sup>	-0.0154	5.0754	6.7050	1.947 10 <sup>12</sup>	1.6296
Traco DC/DC TED 0511	5Vdc	300mA	5.0515	4.9421	0.197 10 <sup>12</sup>	-0.1094	5.0583	5.5404	1.947 10 <sup>12</sup>	0.4821

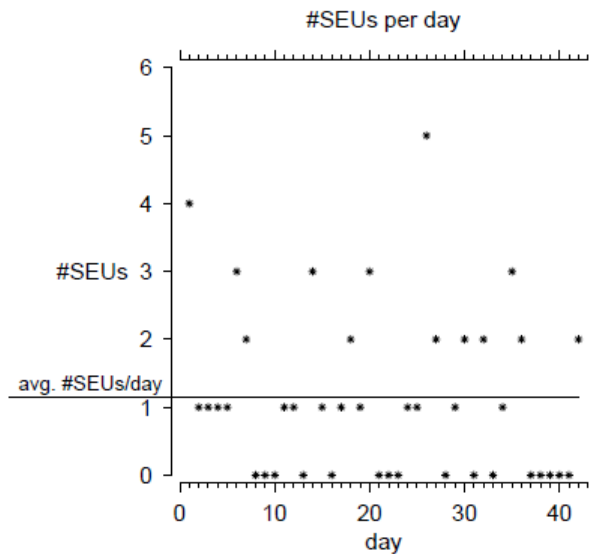
Tests carried out by PH/ESS team (Chris Parkman, Bruno Allongue)

Rectifier output voltage drift

# Controller Failure



Figure 4. TESLA Test Facility II tunnel



- Local radiation harden
- Away from high radioactive region
- Distributive PS design
- Hardware watch-dog to reboot CPU
- Controllable control power supply
- Must consider harden if:
  - Total ionizing dose (TID) > 10 Gray/year (1krad(Si)/year)
  - 1MeV equivalent neutron fluency >  $10^{11}/\text{cm}^2/\text{year}$

# EMC & EMI

## CM noise (wire → ground)

- High  $dv/dt$  on MOSFETs or IGBTs (can reach 20kV/ $\mu$ s to 50kV/s)
- Parasitic capacitance on transformers/inductors
- Negative impedance: (input voltage drops → input current rises)

## DM noise (wire → wire)

- Current ripples in inductors ~ filter capacitors → loop
- Reverse recovery current in rectifier diodes

## CM noise (Limitation methods)

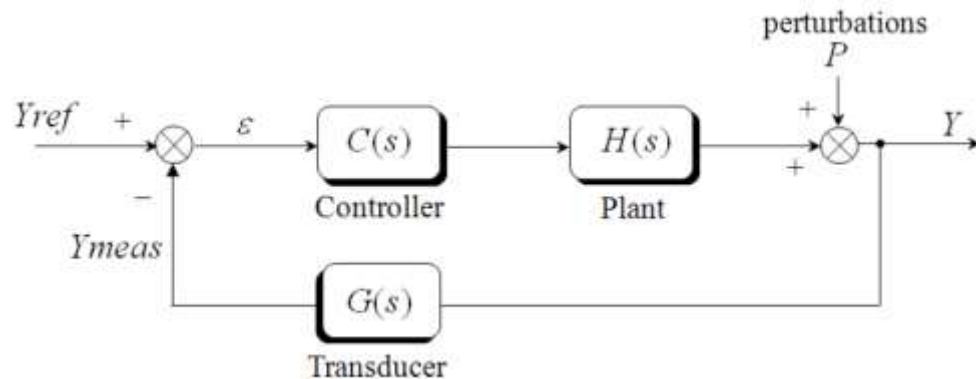
- CM filters in input/output
- Avoid multiple connections between PGND and AGND
- Choose low-parasitic-capacitance switches
- Larger input capacitor and well-designed output filter
- Cable shielding
- Larger grounding area and lower grounding impedance

## DM noise

- DM choke
- Smaller loop area
- ZVS/ZCS to reduce switching noise
- Use Schottky diodes if possible ( $T_{rr}$  very low)

# Theory of PS Control

## Basic concept of close-loop



$$TF_{ol} = \frac{Y}{Y_{ref}} = C(s)H(s)$$

$$TF_{cl} = \frac{Y}{Y_{ref}} = \frac{C(s)H(s)}{1 + C(s)H(s)G(s)}$$

Controller dynamically adjusts its output according to the error between the value we want and the value we see.

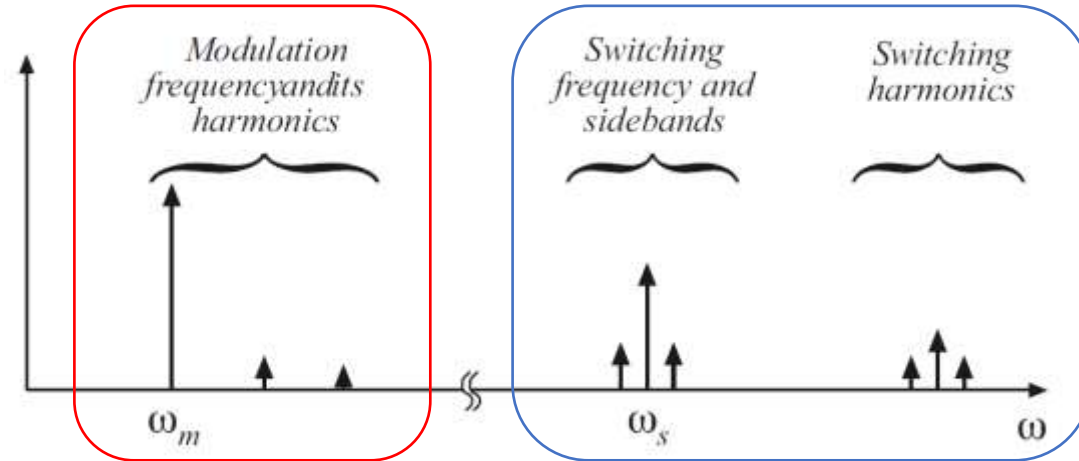
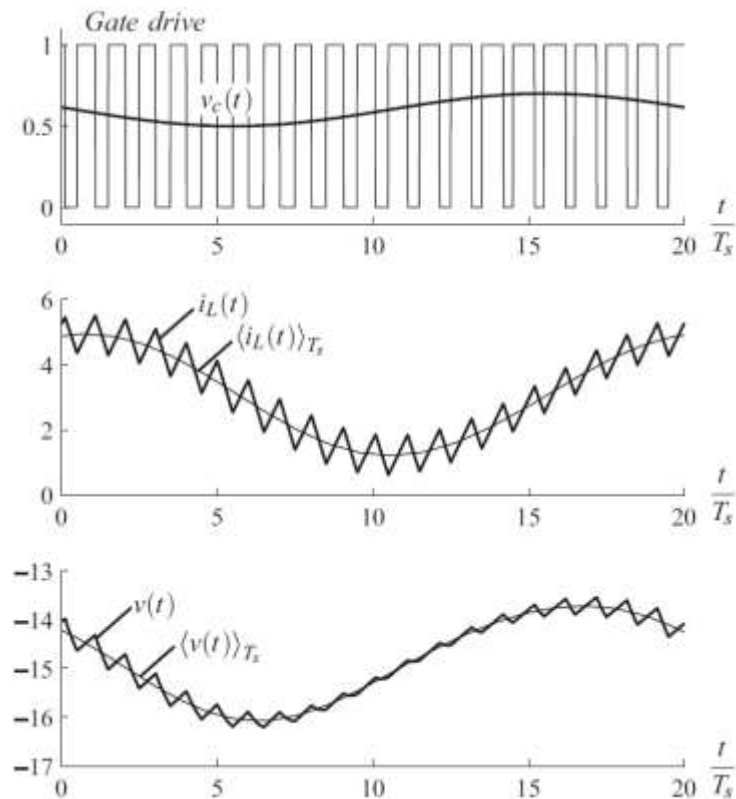
In SMPS (Switching Magnet Power Supply):

- $Y_{ref}$ : the current value given by operators, external systems or controller itself
- $Y$ : the current that excites the magnet
- $Y_{meas}$ : the current measured by transducer (typically a DCCT)
- Controller: An analog or digital arithmetic unit that calculating a control output signal by the error between  $Y_{ref}$  and  $Y_{meas}$ .
- Plant: several devices that transfer the signal from controller to the current (e.g. Gate drivers transferring the PWM signal to gate voltage, switching devices, filters and magnet loads)
- Transducer: Sensors that measure the current (or voltage and current) and ADC channels
- Perturbations: come from line vibration, rectification harmonics, EM noise, load variations, temperature...



# Control Design in MPS – AC small signal modeling

Modeling is a trade-off between insight and complexity



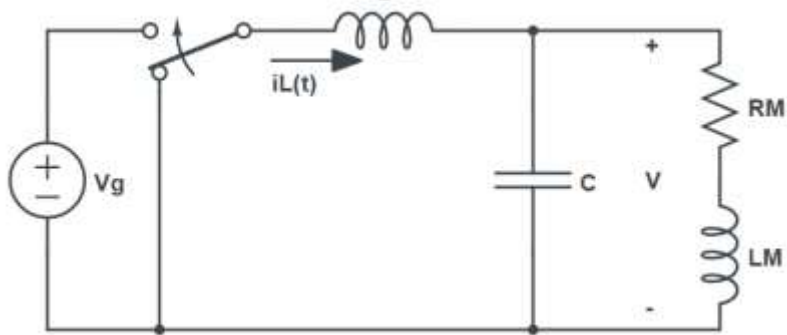
Modeling to predict the low-frequency component

Switching ripples can be neglected



# Transfer function

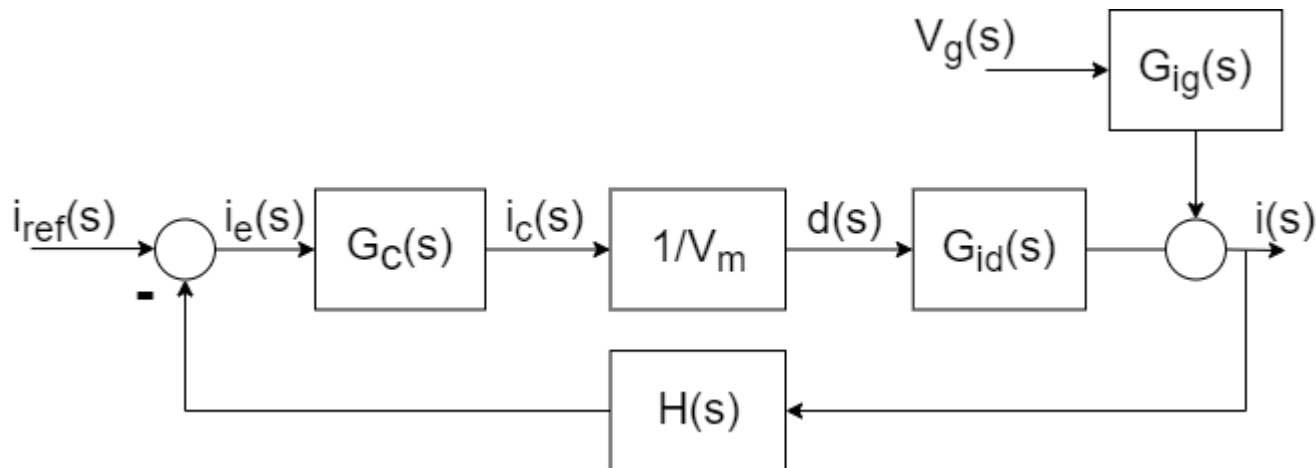
$$D(t) = D + \hat{d}(t)$$



$$V_g(t) = V_g + \hat{v}_g(t)$$

$$\hat{d}(t) = 0 \Rightarrow G_{ig}(s) = \frac{i(s)}{V_g(s)} = \frac{D}{s^3 L C L_M + s^2 L C R_M + s(L + L_M) + R_M}$$

$$\hat{v}_g(t) = 0 \Rightarrow G_{id}(s) = \frac{i(s)}{d(s)} = \frac{V_g}{s^3 L C L_M + s^2 L C R_M + s(L + L_M) + R_M}$$



Now you can plot Bode diagrams to analyze its open-loop behavior and try adding compensation to form  $G_c$ , which will be implemented into the controller.

# Difficulty in finding roots

Get the roots of n-th order polynomial

$$P(s) = 1 + \alpha_1 s + \alpha_2 s^2 + \cdots + \alpha_n s^n$$



$$P(s) = (1 + \tau_1 s)(1 + \tau_2 s) \cdots (1 + \tau_n s)$$



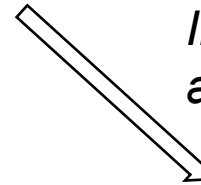
$$\alpha_1 = \tau_1 + \tau_2 + \cdots + \tau_n$$

$$\alpha_2 = \tau_1(\tau_2 + \cdots + \tau_n) + \tau_2(\tau_3 + \cdots + \tau_n) + \cdots$$

$$\alpha_3 = \tau_1\tau_2(\tau_3 + \cdots + \tau_n) + \tau_2\tau_3(\tau_4 + \cdots + \tau_n) + \cdots$$

$\vdots$

$$\alpha_n = \tau_1 \tau_2 \cdots \tau_n$$



*In a well-designed PS, time constants are well separated.*

$$\alpha_1 \approx \tau_1$$

$$\alpha_2 \approx \tau_1 \tau_2$$

$\vdots$

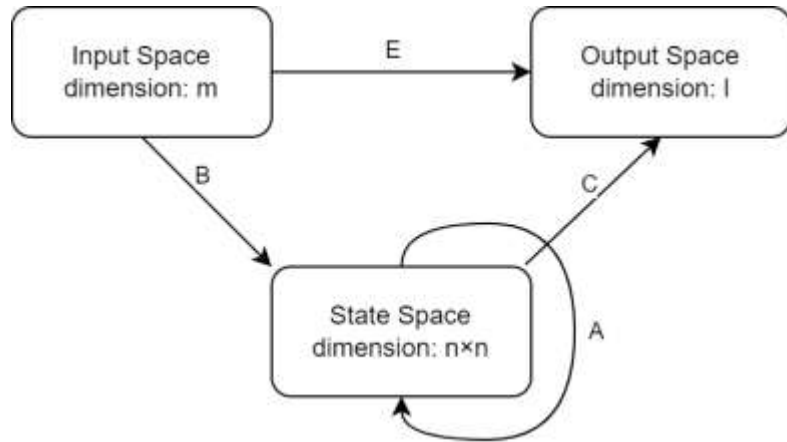
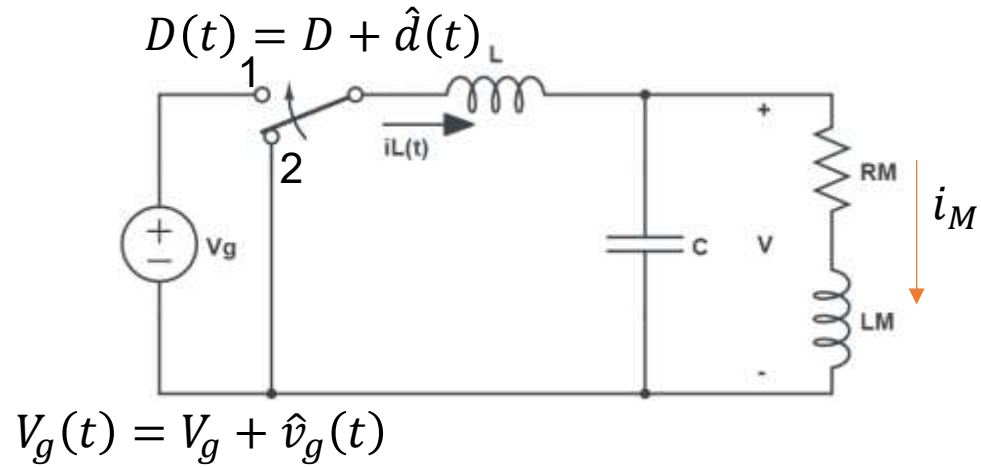
$$\alpha_n \approx \tau_1 \tau_2 \cdots \tau_n$$

$$P(s) \approx (1 + \alpha_1 s) \left( 1 + \frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1} s \right) \cdots \left( 1 + \frac{\alpha_n}{\alpha_{n-1}} s \right)$$

$$\text{when } |\alpha_1| \gg \left| \frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1} \right| \gg \cdots \gg \left| \frac{\alpha_n}{\alpha_{n-1}} \right|$$

*If not, leave the terms in quadratic form*

# State space approach



1

$$L \frac{di_L}{dt} = V_g - V$$

$$C \frac{dV}{dt} = i_L - i_M$$

$$L_M \frac{di_M}{dt} = V - i_M R_M$$

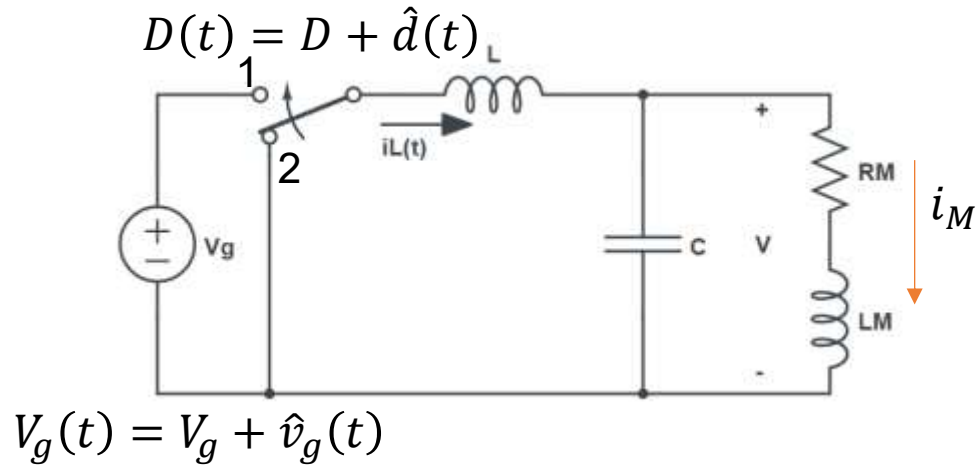
$$\begin{bmatrix} i'_L \\ V' \\ i'_M \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\frac{1}{L} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{C} & 0 & -\frac{1}{C} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{L_M} & -\frac{R_M}{L_M} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_L \\ V \\ i_M \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{L} \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} V_g$$

$A_1 \quad X \quad B_1 \quad U$

$$i_M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_L \\ V \\ i_M \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} V_g$$

$Y \quad C_1 \quad E_1$

# State space approach



2

$$\begin{bmatrix} i_L' \\ V' \\ i_M' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\frac{1}{L} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{C} & 0 & -\frac{1}{C} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{L_M} & -\frac{R_M}{L_M} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_L \\ V \\ i_M \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} V_g$$

$$i_M = [0 \quad 0 \quad 1] \begin{bmatrix} i_L \\ V \\ i_M \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} V_g$$

$$A = DA_1 + D'A_2$$

$$B = DB_1 + D'B_2$$

$$C = DC_1 + D'C_2$$

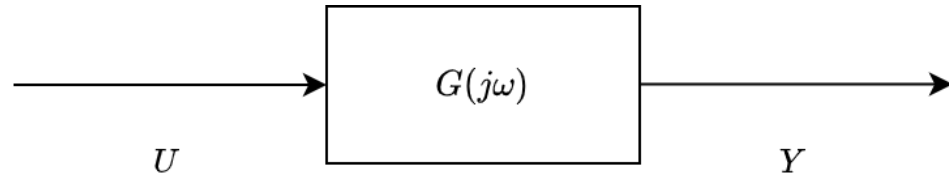
$$E = DE_1 + D'E_2$$

$$\hat{X}' = A\hat{X} + B\hat{U} + [(A_1 - A_2)X + (B_1 - B_2)U] \hat{D}$$

$$Y = C\hat{X} + E\hat{U} + [(C_1 - C_2)X + (E_1 - E_2)U] \hat{D}$$

The eigen values of matrix A = Roots of transfer function polynomial = Poles of system

# Bode diagram – basic concept and a simple example



$$\frac{Y}{U} = G(j\omega) = \|G(j\omega)\| \angle G(j\omega)$$

$$\|G\|_{\text{dB}} = 20 \log_{10} (\|G\|)$$

*dBV, dBA, dBmA, dBμA, dBΩ, ...*

$$G(s) = \frac{1}{1 + \alpha s}$$

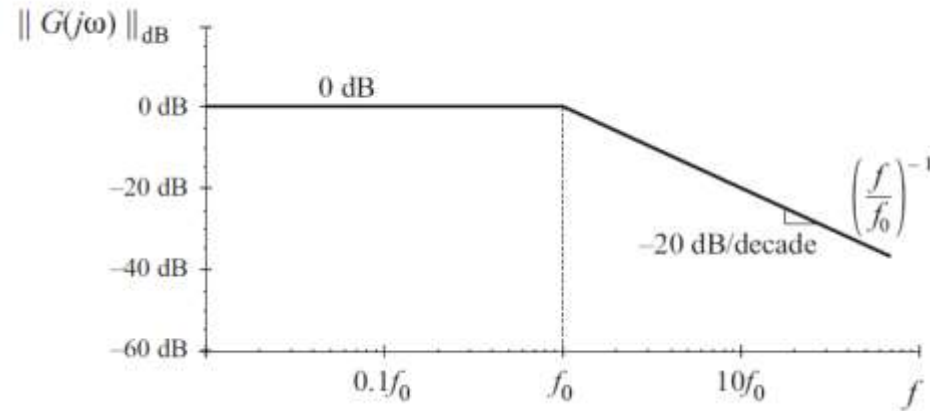
$$G(j\omega) = \frac{1}{1 + j\omega\alpha} = \frac{1}{1 + j\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)} \quad \text{assume } \omega_0 \text{ is real}$$

$$\text{Re}(G(j\omega)) = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)^2}$$

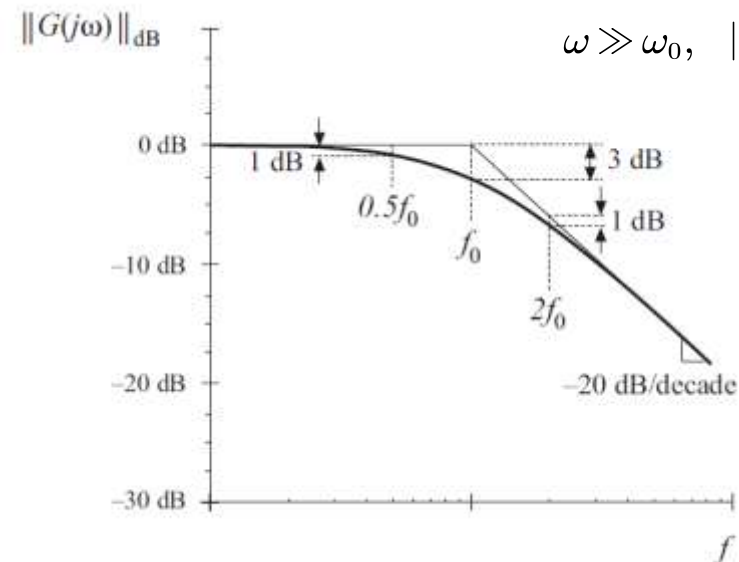
$$\text{Im}(G(j\omega)) = \frac{-\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}}{1 + \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)^2}$$

$$\|G(j\omega)\| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)^2}}$$

$$\angle G(j\omega) = -\arctan\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)$$



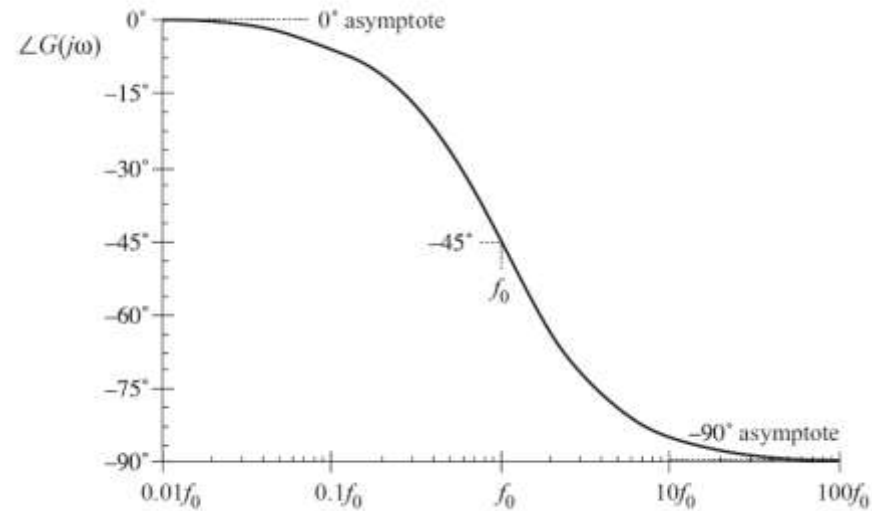
$$\begin{aligned} \omega \ll \omega_0, \quad \|G(j\omega)\| &= 1, \quad \|G(j\omega)\|_{\text{dB}} = 0 \\ \omega \gg \omega_0, \quad \|G(j\omega)\|_{\text{dB}} &= -20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\omega}{\omega_0} \right) \end{aligned}$$



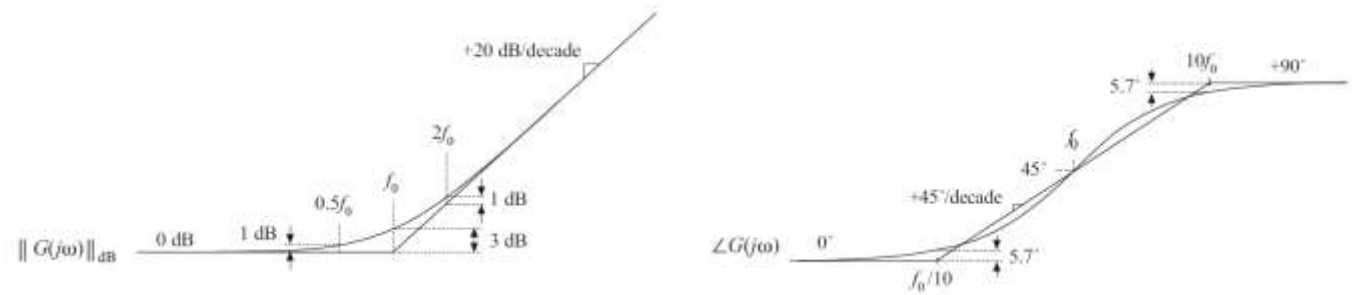
$$\omega = \omega_0, \quad \|G(j\omega)\|_{\text{dB}} = -20 \log_{10} \sqrt{2} = -3(\text{dB})$$

# Bode diagram – basic concept and a simple example

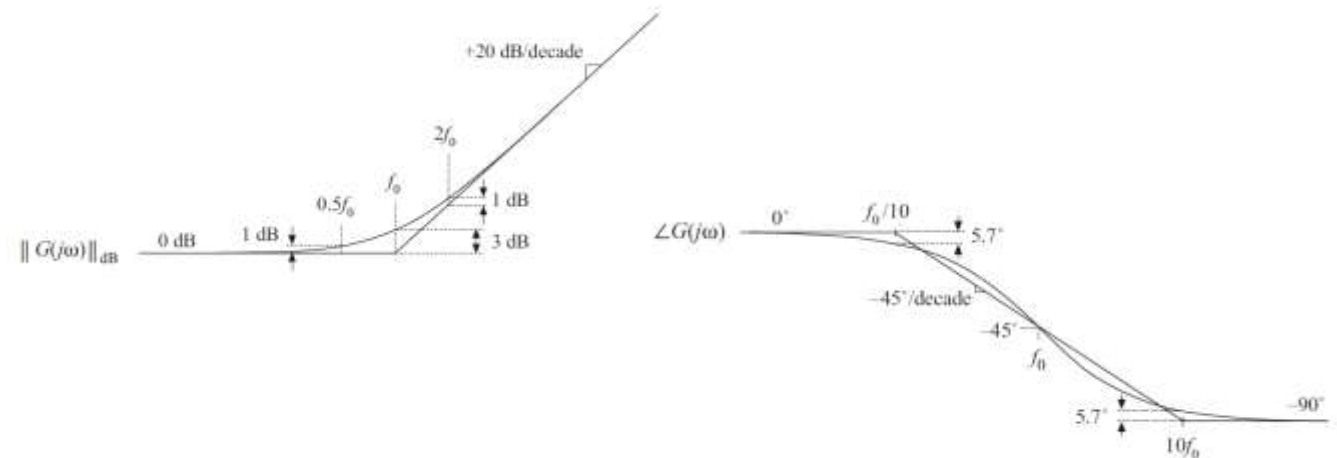
$$\angle G(j\omega) = -\arctan\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)$$



$$G(j\omega) = 1 + j\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right) \quad \angle G(j\omega) = \arctan\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)$$



$$G(j\omega) = 1 - j\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right) \quad \angle G(j\omega) = -\arctan\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)$$



# Bode diagram – combination

$$G(j\omega) = \frac{G_0}{\left(1 + j\frac{\omega}{\omega_1}\right)\left(1 + j\frac{\omega}{\omega_2}\right)}$$

$(\omega_2 \gg \omega_1)$

$$\omega \ll \omega_1, \|G(j\omega)\| = 20\log_{10}|G_0|$$

$$\omega_1 < \omega < \omega_2, \text{ similar to one pole}$$

$$\omega \gg \omega_2, \text{ 2 poles function together}$$

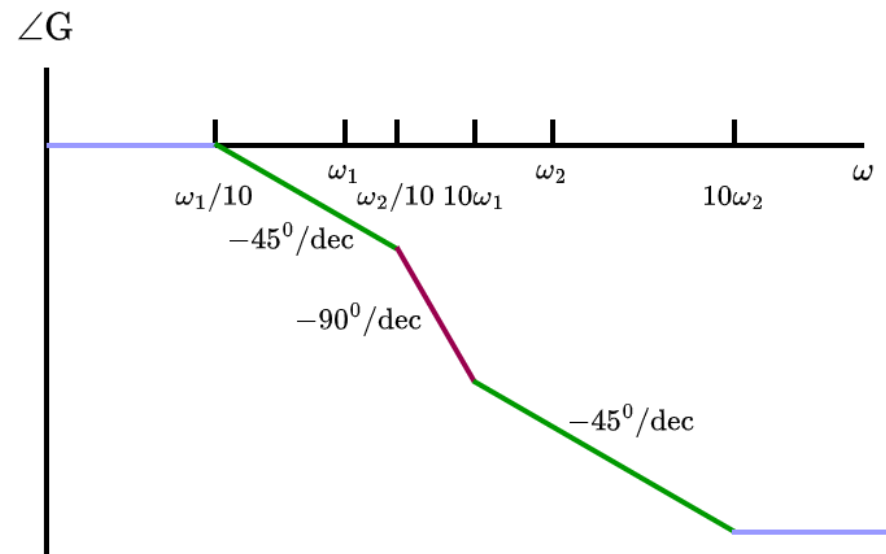
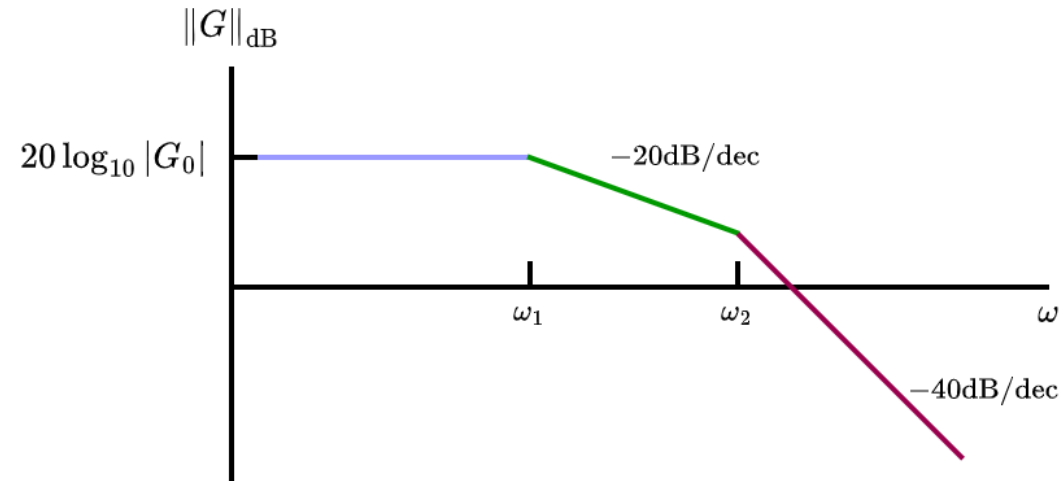
$$\omega < 0.1\omega_1, \angle G = 0^\circ$$

$$0.1\omega_1 < \omega < 0.1\omega_2, \text{ 1st pole functions}$$

$$0.1\omega_2 < \omega < 10\omega_1, \text{ 2 poles function together}$$

$$10\omega_1 < \omega < 10\omega_2, \text{ 2nd pole functions}$$

$$\omega > 10\omega_2, \text{ leaves the pole functioning region}$$





# Bode diagram – complex poles

$$G(j\omega) = \frac{1}{1 + \alpha_1(j\omega) + \alpha_2(j\omega)^2}$$

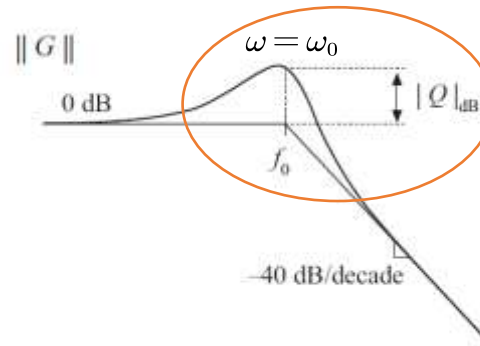
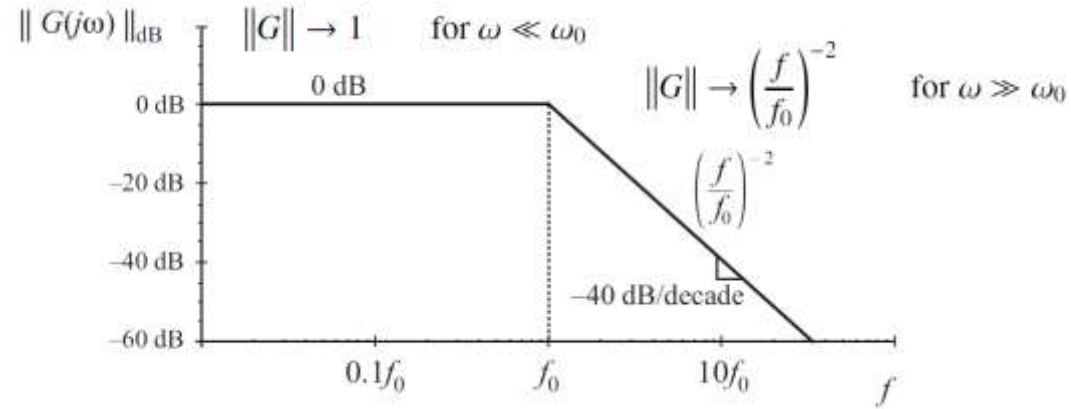
$$\left(\frac{1}{\omega_0}\right)^2 \doteq \alpha_2$$

$$\frac{1}{Q\omega_0} \doteq \alpha_1$$

$$G(j\omega) = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{Q} \frac{j\omega}{\omega_0} + \left(\frac{j\omega}{\omega_0}\right)^2}$$

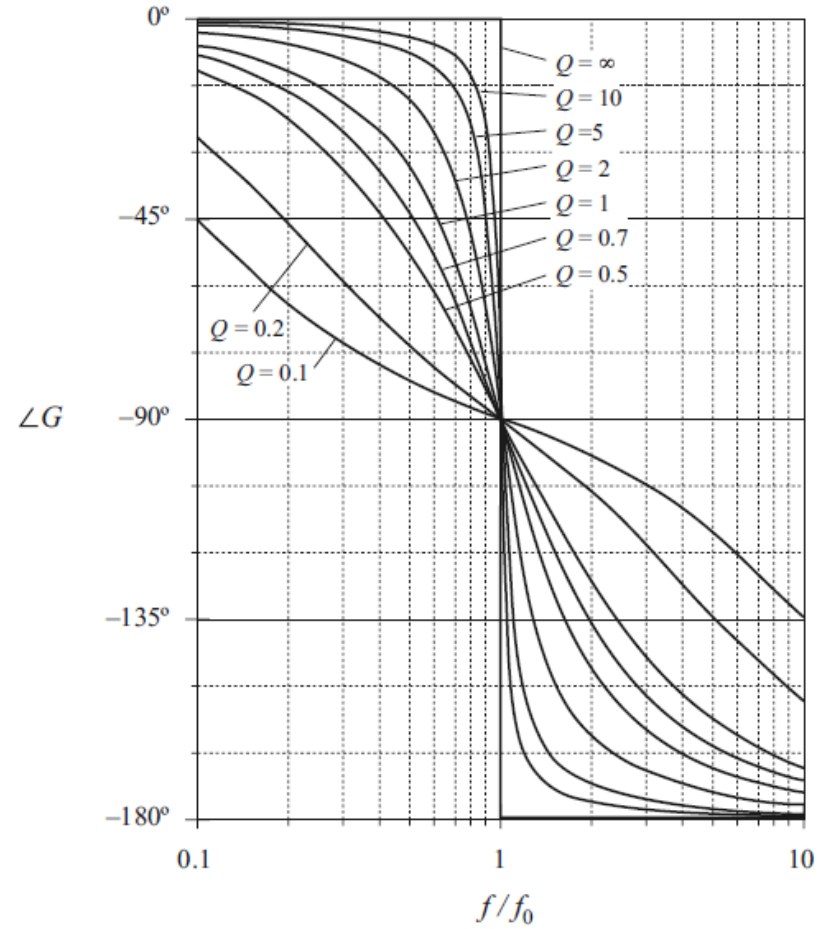
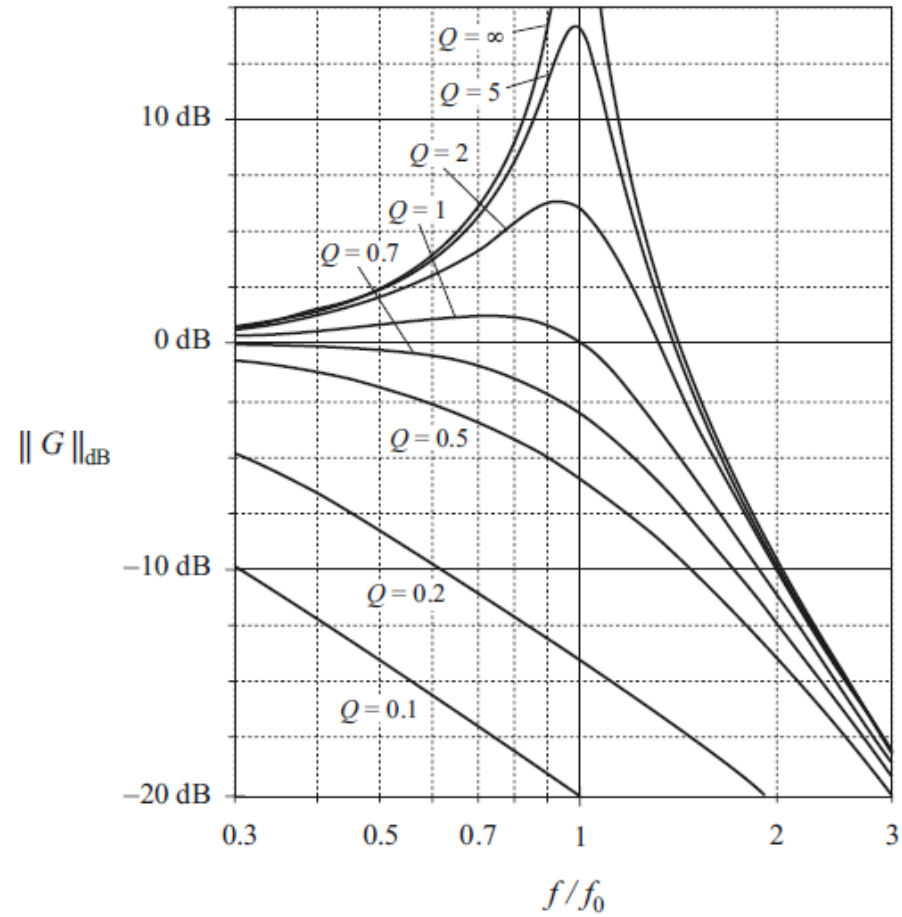
$$\|G(j\omega)\| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\left(1 - \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)^2\right)^2 + \frac{1}{Q^2} \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)^2}}$$

$$\angle G(j\omega) = -\arctan\left(\frac{\frac{1}{Q} \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)}{1 - \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)^2}\right)$$

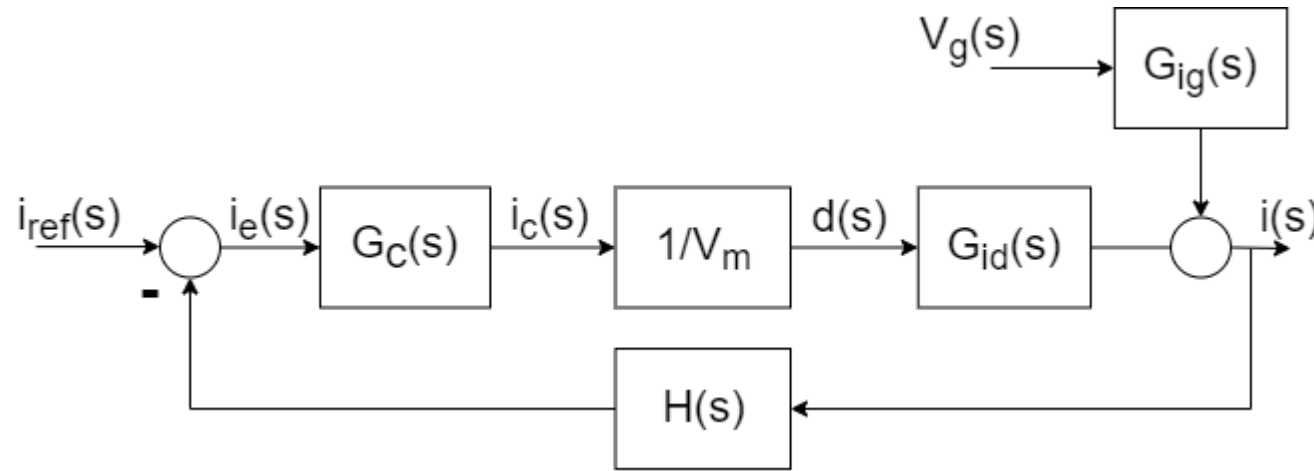


*This feature has a profound impact in PS design. If noises came from Vg or D (or other sources), their spectrum in this region, the system will **AMPLIFY** their power, to form resonant voltage/current in output.*

# Bode diagram – complex poles



# Close-loop



We want:

$i(s)$  not affected by vibration of  $V_g(s)$ ;  
 $i(s)$  following  $i_{ref}(s)$  constantly.

$$T(s) = H(s)G_C(s)G_{id}(s)/V_m \quad \text{"loop gain"}$$

$$G_{ig}(s) = \left. \frac{\hat{i}(s)}{\hat{V}_g(s)} \right|_{\hat{d}=0} \quad G_{id}(s) = \left. \frac{\hat{i}(s)}{\hat{d}(s)} \right|_{\hat{V}_g=0}$$

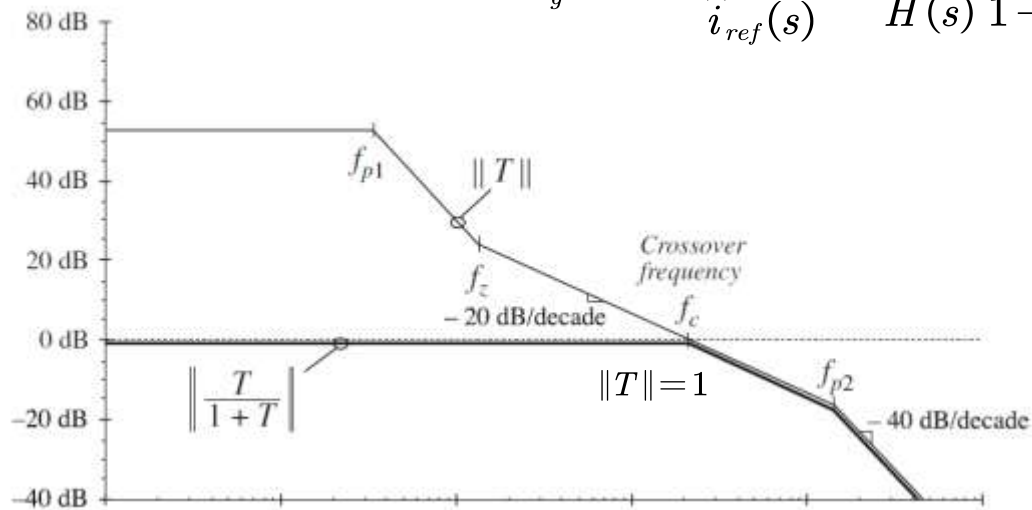
$$\hat{i}_{ref}=0 \Rightarrow \frac{\hat{i}(s)}{\hat{V}_g(s)} = \frac{G_{ig}(s)}{1+T(s)} \quad \hat{V}_g \text{ reduced by } \frac{1}{1+T(s)}$$

$$\hat{V}_g=0 \Rightarrow \frac{\hat{i}(s)}{\hat{i}_{ref}(s)} = \frac{1}{H(s)} \frac{T(s)}{1+T(s)} \quad \frac{\hat{i}(s)}{\hat{i}_{ref}(s)} \Big|_{DC} \approx \frac{1}{H(0)} \quad i(s) \text{ only affected by sensor}$$

# Close-loop

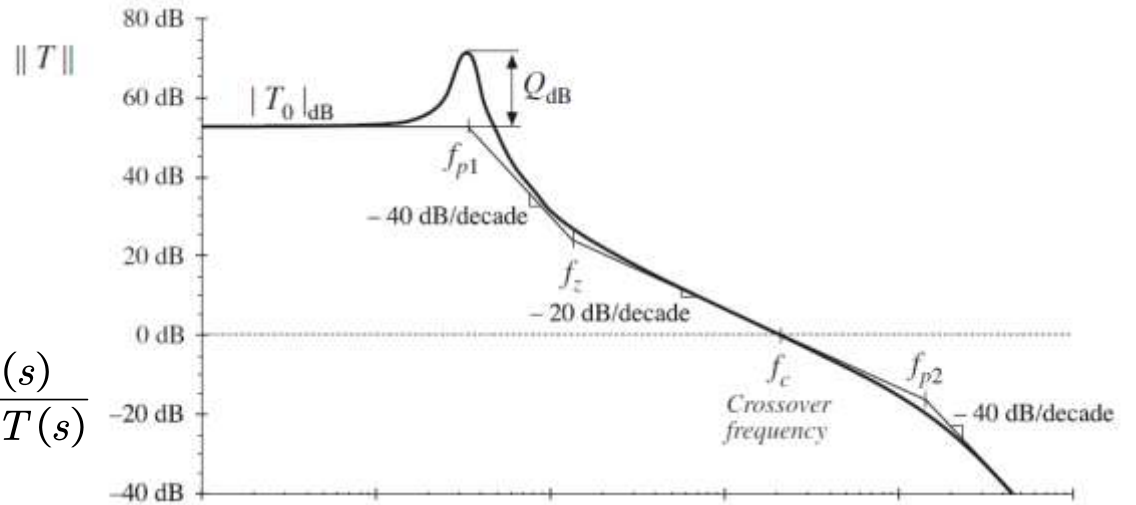
$$T(s) = T_0 \frac{\left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_z}\right)}{\left(1 + \frac{s}{Q\omega_{p1}} + \left(\frac{s}{\omega_{p1}}\right)^2\right)\left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{p2}}\right)}$$

$$\hat{V}_g = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\hat{i}(s)}{\hat{i}_{ref}(s)} = \frac{1}{H(s)} \frac{T(s)}{1 + T(s)}$$



$$\|T\| \gg 1, \quad \frac{\hat{i}(s)}{\hat{i}_{ref}(s)} = \frac{1}{H(s)} \quad i(s) \text{ can follow } i_{ref}(s)$$

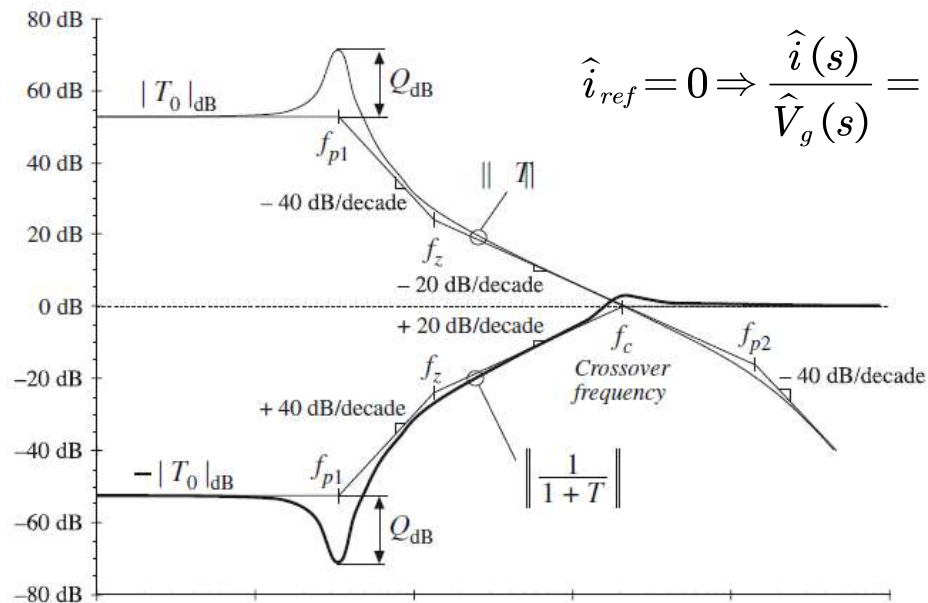
$$\|T\| \ll 1, \quad \frac{\hat{i}(s)}{\hat{i}_{ref}(s)} = \frac{T(s)}{H(s)} = G_C(s)G_{id}(s)/V_m \quad \text{Can not}$$



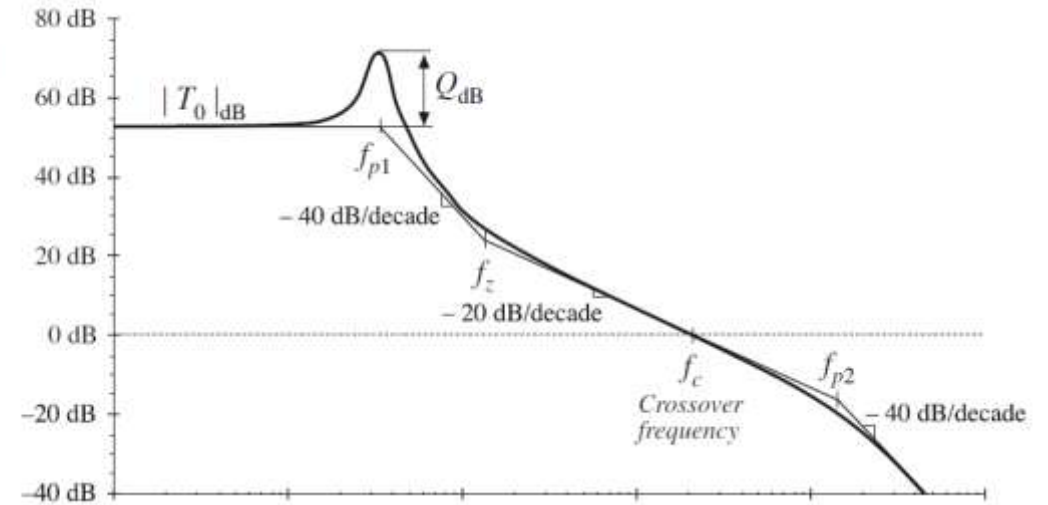
*Just by closing loop with unified  $H(s)$ , the output can follow its reference below the crossover frequency. Beyond that, the change in reference is damped so the output can not follow.*

# Close-loop

$$T(s) = T_0 \frac{\left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_z}\right)}{\left(1 + \frac{s}{Q\omega_{p1}} + \left(\frac{s}{\omega_{p1}}\right)^2\right)\left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{p2}}\right)}$$



$$\hat{i}_{ref} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\hat{i}(s)}{\hat{V}_g(s)} = \frac{G_{ig}(s)}{1 + T(s)}$$



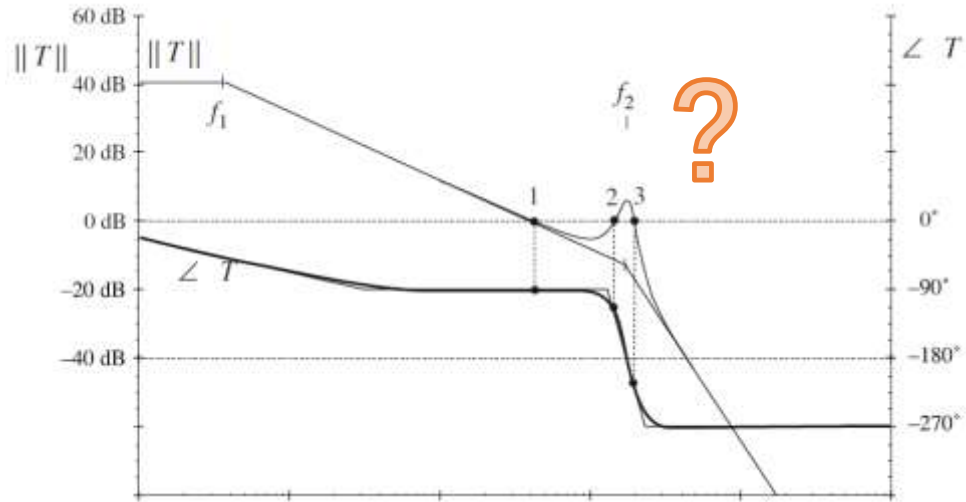
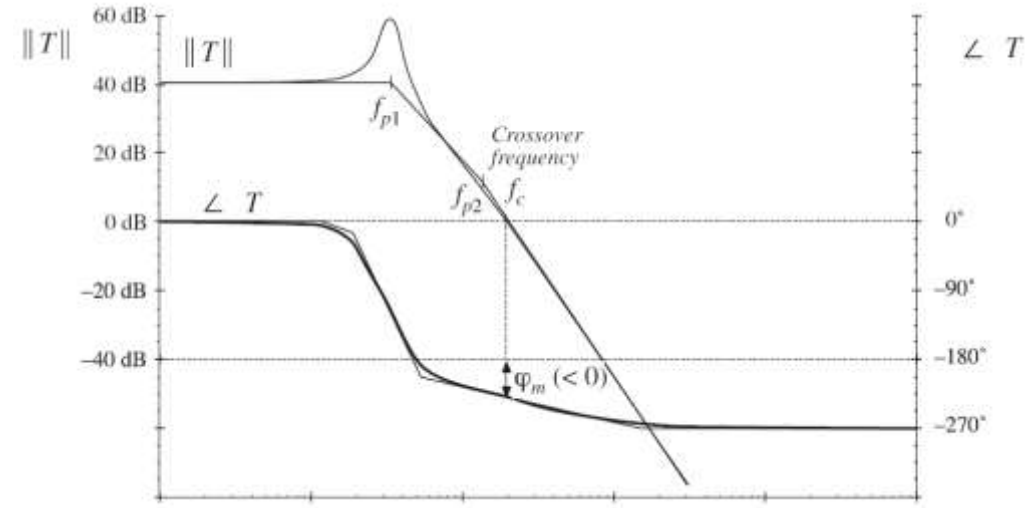
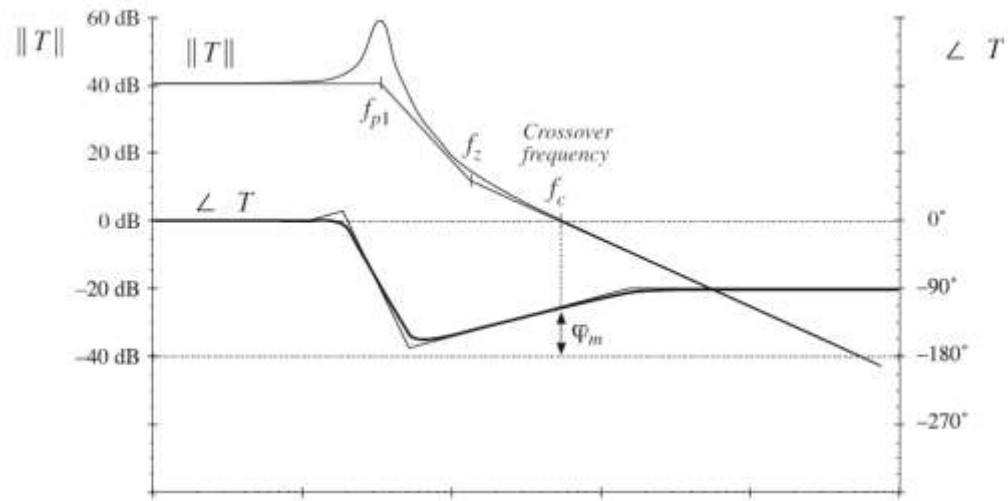
By closing loop, vibrations under frequency  $f_c$  are reduced, but high frequency vibrations just go through without damping.

$$\|T\| \gg 1, \frac{\hat{i}(s)}{\hat{V}_g(s)} = \frac{1}{T(s)} G_{ig}(s) \quad \text{Vibration in } V_g \text{ damped}$$

$$\|T\| \ll 1, \frac{\hat{i}(s)}{\hat{V}_g(s)} = G_{ig}(s) \quad \text{No damping}$$



# Stability – phase margin

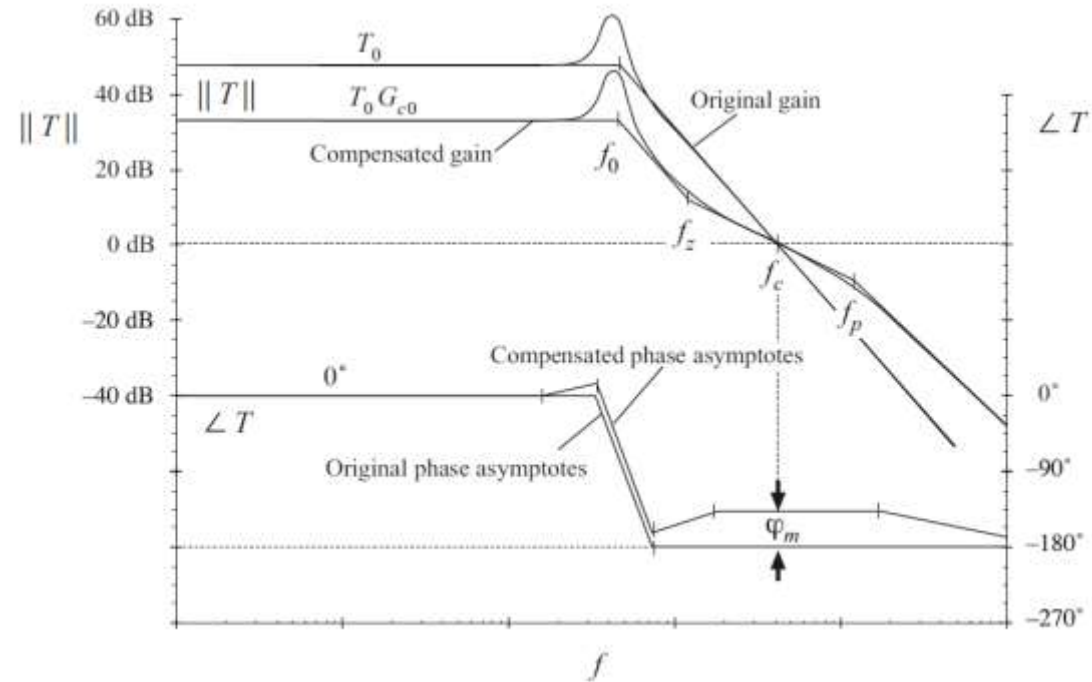
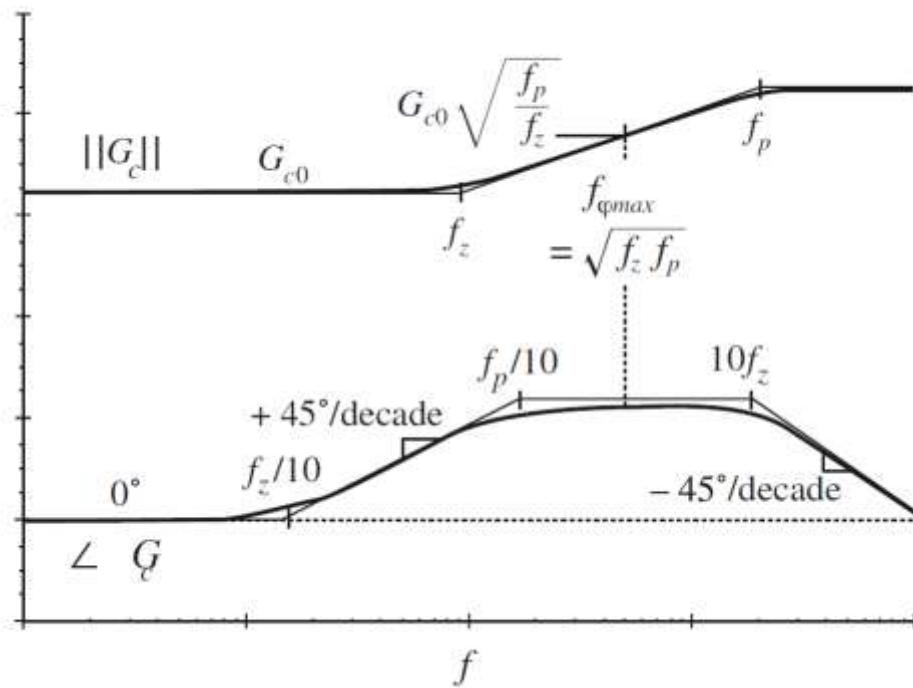


*Go to Nyquist criterion*

Only apply phase margin when:  
No multiple crossovers;  
No poles at origin.

## Regulation – PD in Gc

$$G_c(s) = G_{c0} \frac{\left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_z}\right)}{\left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_p}\right)}$$

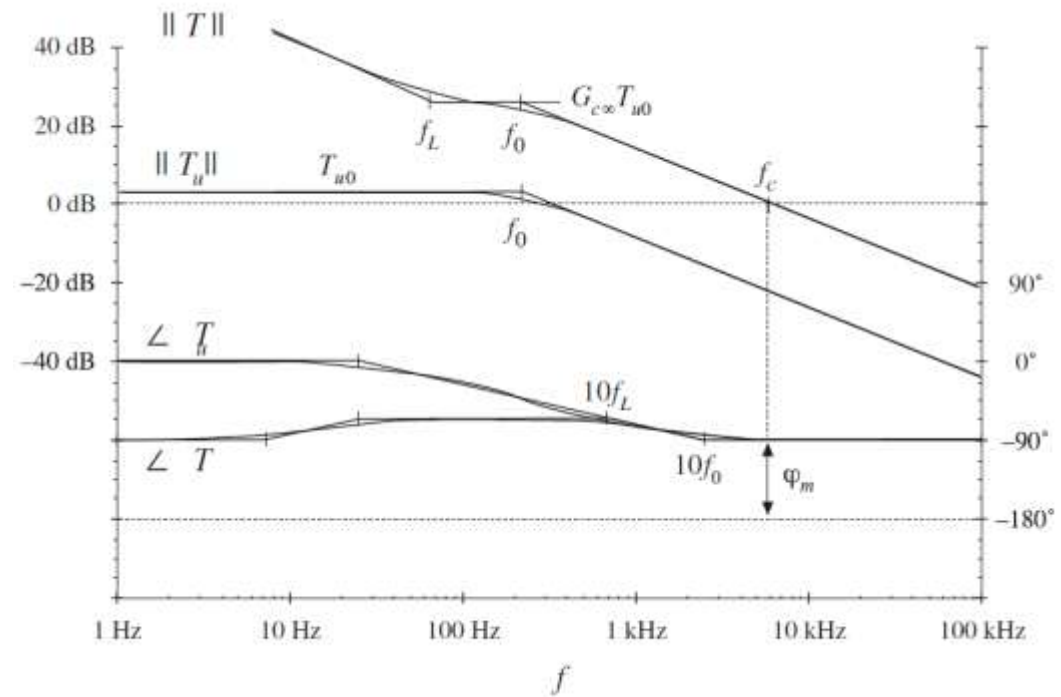
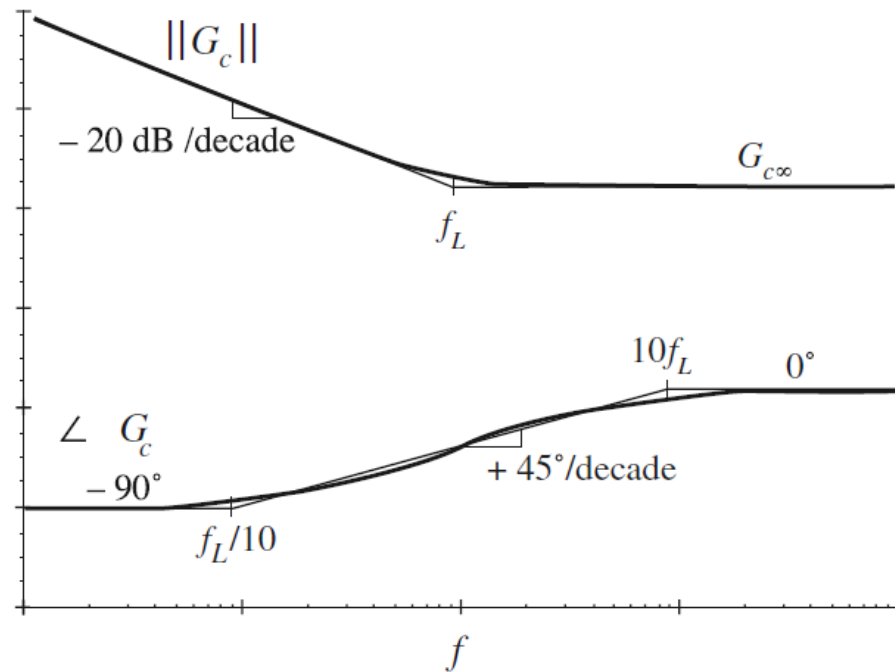


Increase phase margin;  
Reduce tracking error.

Make system more sensitive to high frequency noises;  
Reduce low frequency gain.

# Regulation – PI for $G_c$

$$G_c(s) = G_{c\infty} \left( 1 + \frac{\omega_L}{s} \right)$$



Reduce/eliminate DC and low-frequency error.

Enlarge overshoot;  
 Reduce phase margin;  
 Wind-up.

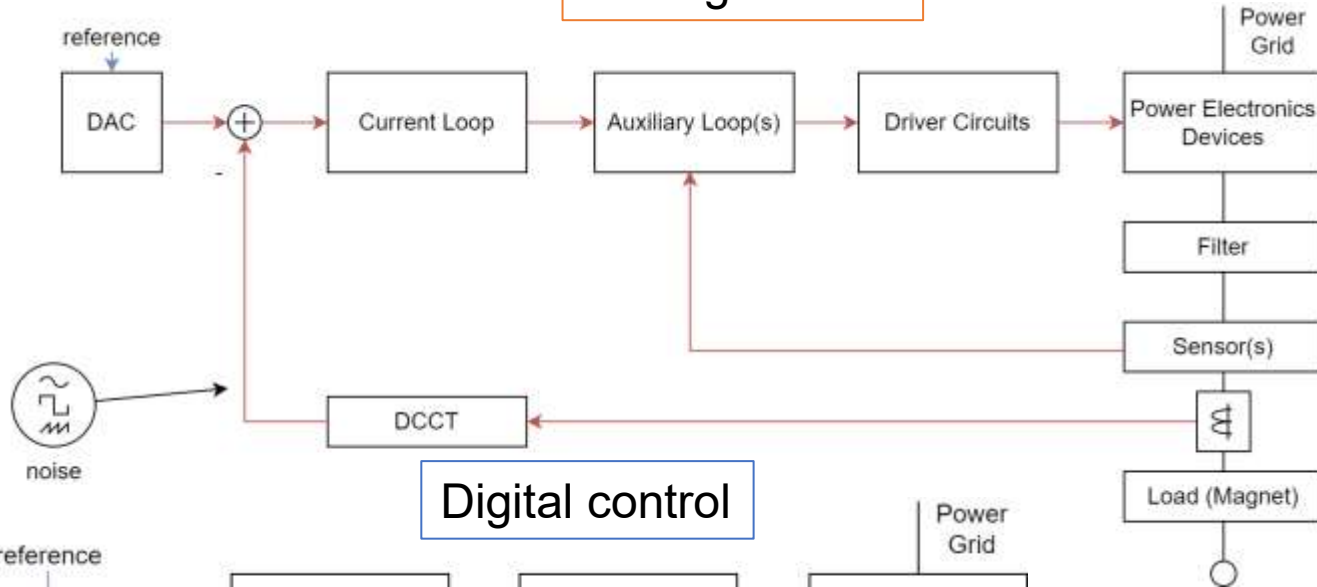
# Summary

- AC small signal modeling
  - Out-to-Vg-TF;
  - Out-to-D-TF.
- TF analysis
  - Draw gain-loop bode diagram
  - Analyze the low-frequency gain, crossover frequency and phase margin, and high frequency gain...
  - Implant proper regulators as  $G_c$  to compensate the above diagram
- Evaluation
  - Simulation and examine the results

# Control Hardware and Software

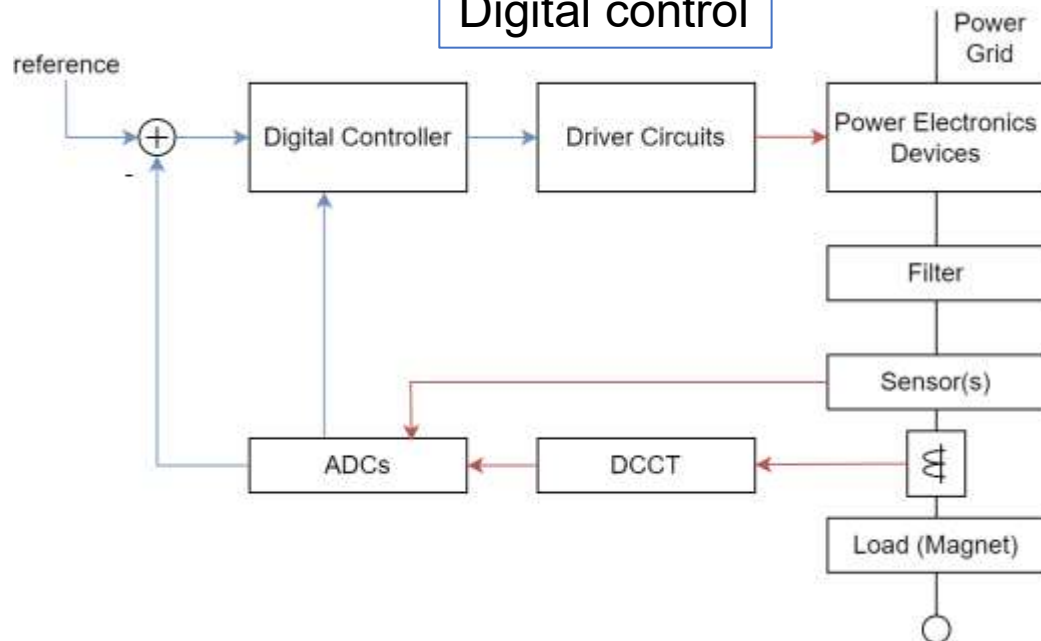
## Analog vs Digital

### Analog control



- Noise preventing
- Simplicity
- Adjustability
- Versatility
- Maintenance
- Flexibility
- Speed

### Digital control

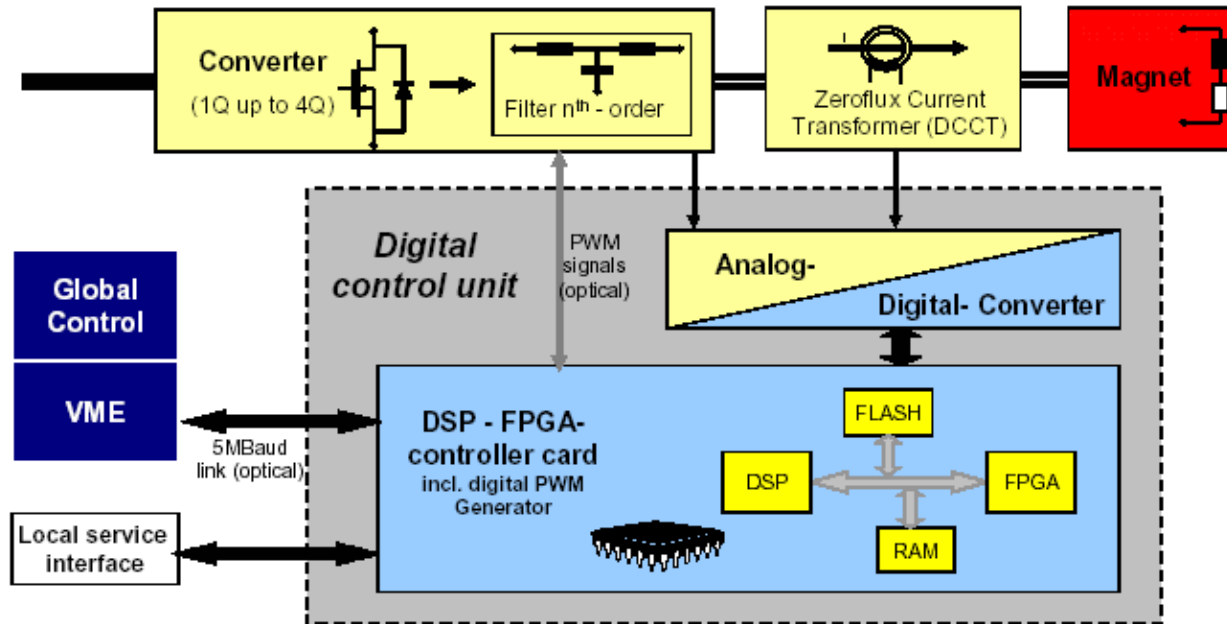


*While digital controlling exceeds in everything else, analog controlling is good at SPEED.*



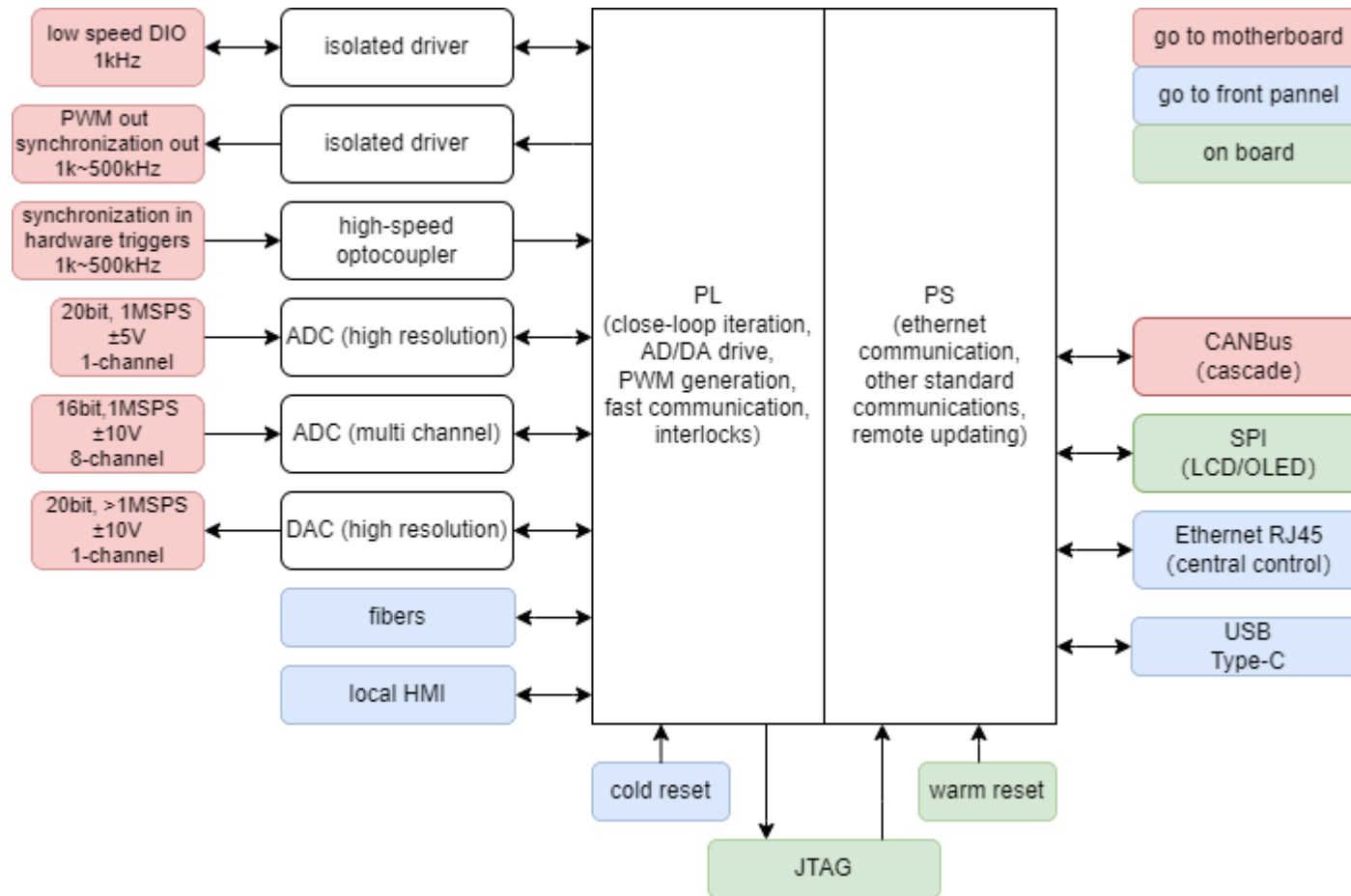
# Digital Controller Structure

Digital Power Supply control structure

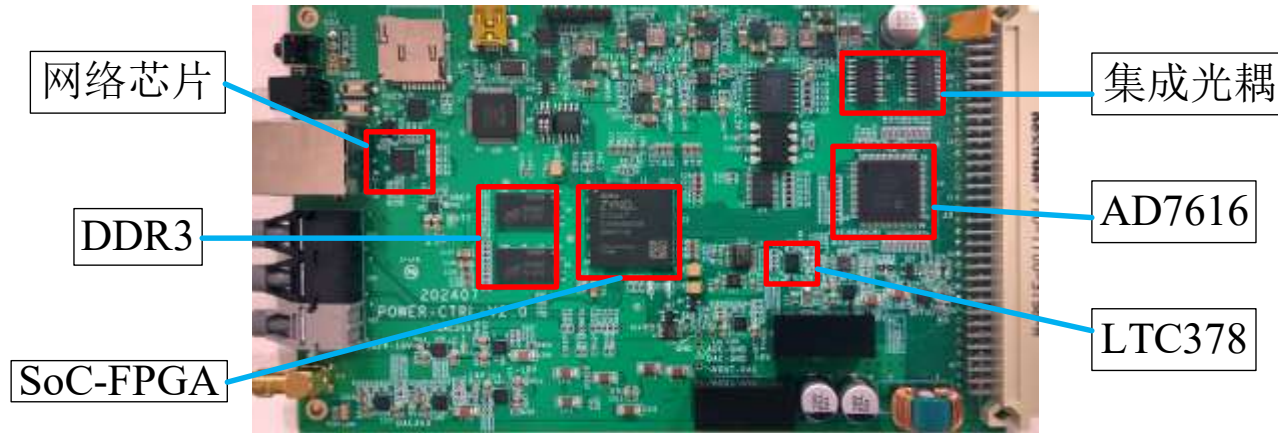


- Memory control
- IO control
- PWM generator
- Local and remote interface
- Analog to digital control
- Close-loop control

# Processor and Peripherals



# Key Devices



- High resolution AD
  - 1ppm  $\Rightarrow 10^{-20}$
  - Switching freq. 100kHz  $\Rightarrow$  Controller DUC > 100kHz  $\Rightarrow$  Sample rate > 200kHz (approx.)

Bandwidth > 10kHz, Stability < 20ppm

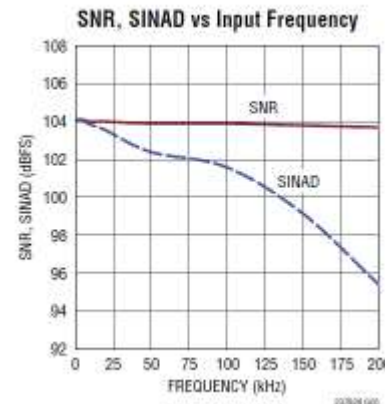


*There is a sine wave of 10kHz within 20ppm/ $FS_{PS}$ , you need to recognize it.*

By properly choosing DCCT and I/V transmission,  $FS_{PS} \sim FS_{AD} (\pm 5V)$ .



*At 20kHz, AD must have a real resolution better than  $10 \times 10^{-5}V$ .*



$$ENOB = \frac{SINAD_{dB} - 1.76}{6.02} \approx 16.8 \text{ bit}$$

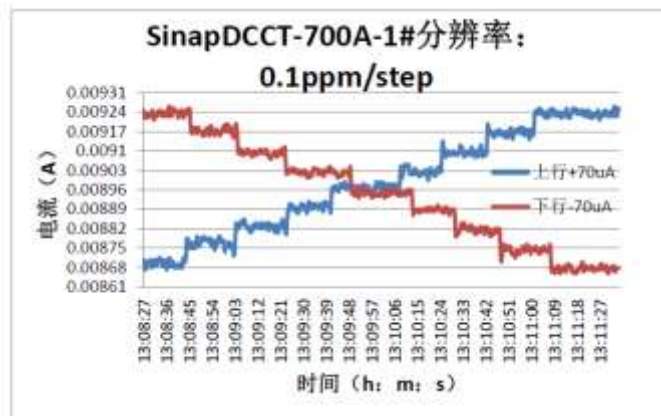
$$RR@20k = 2^{-16.8} \times FS_{AD} = 8.76 \times 10^{-5} (V)$$

If not, try another ADC or over sampling techniques

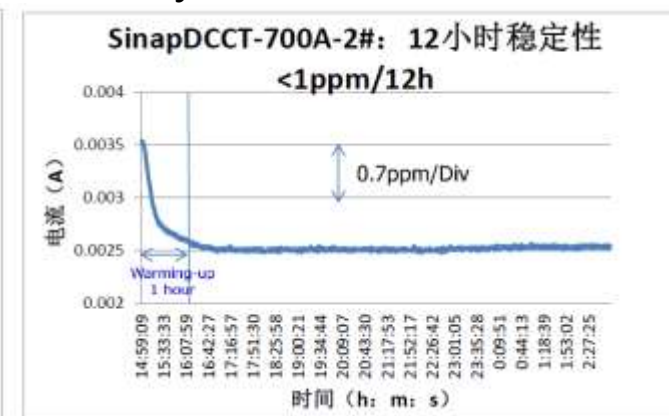
# Key Devices



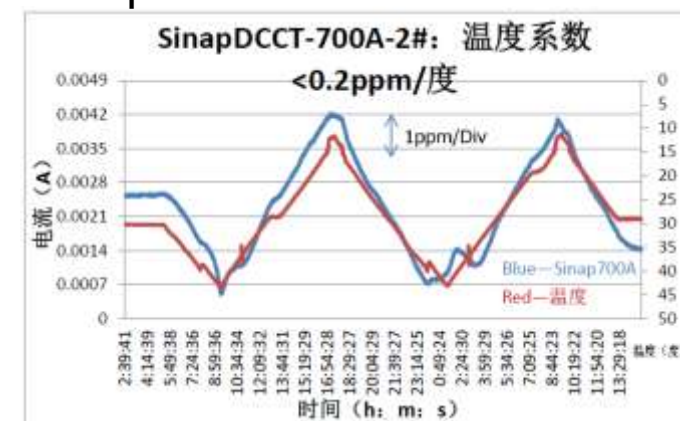
## Resolution



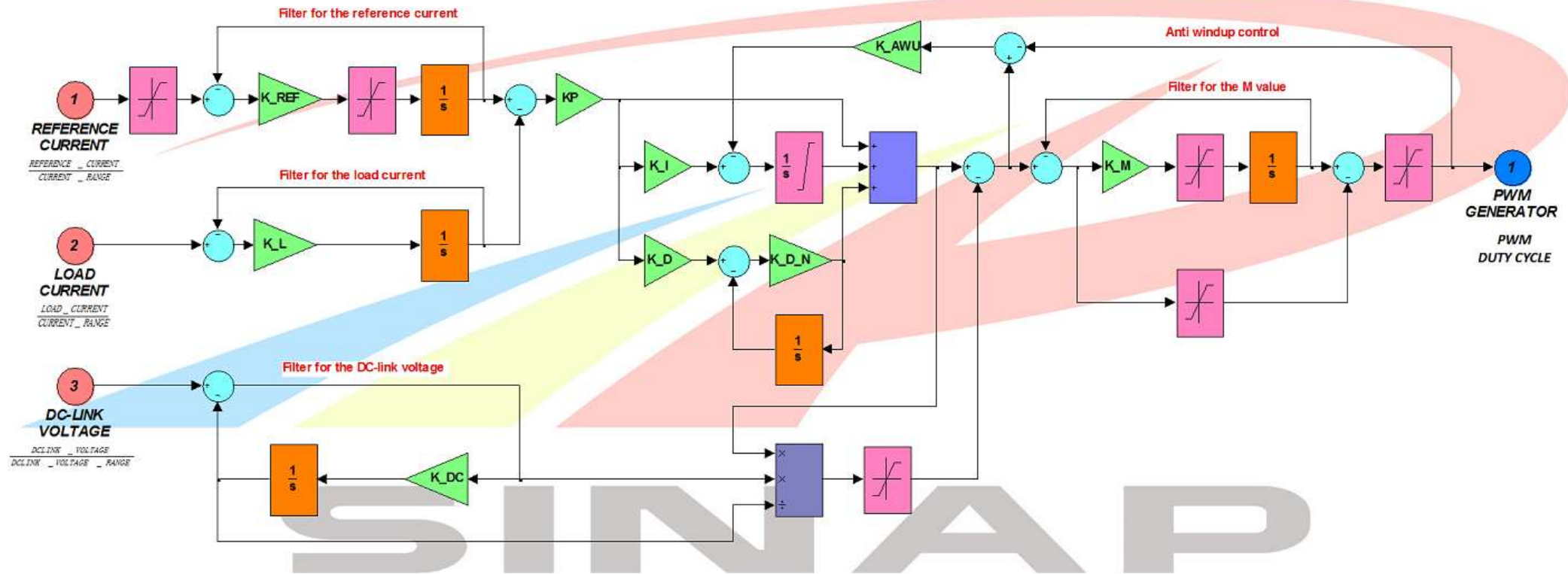
## Stability



## Temperature coefficient

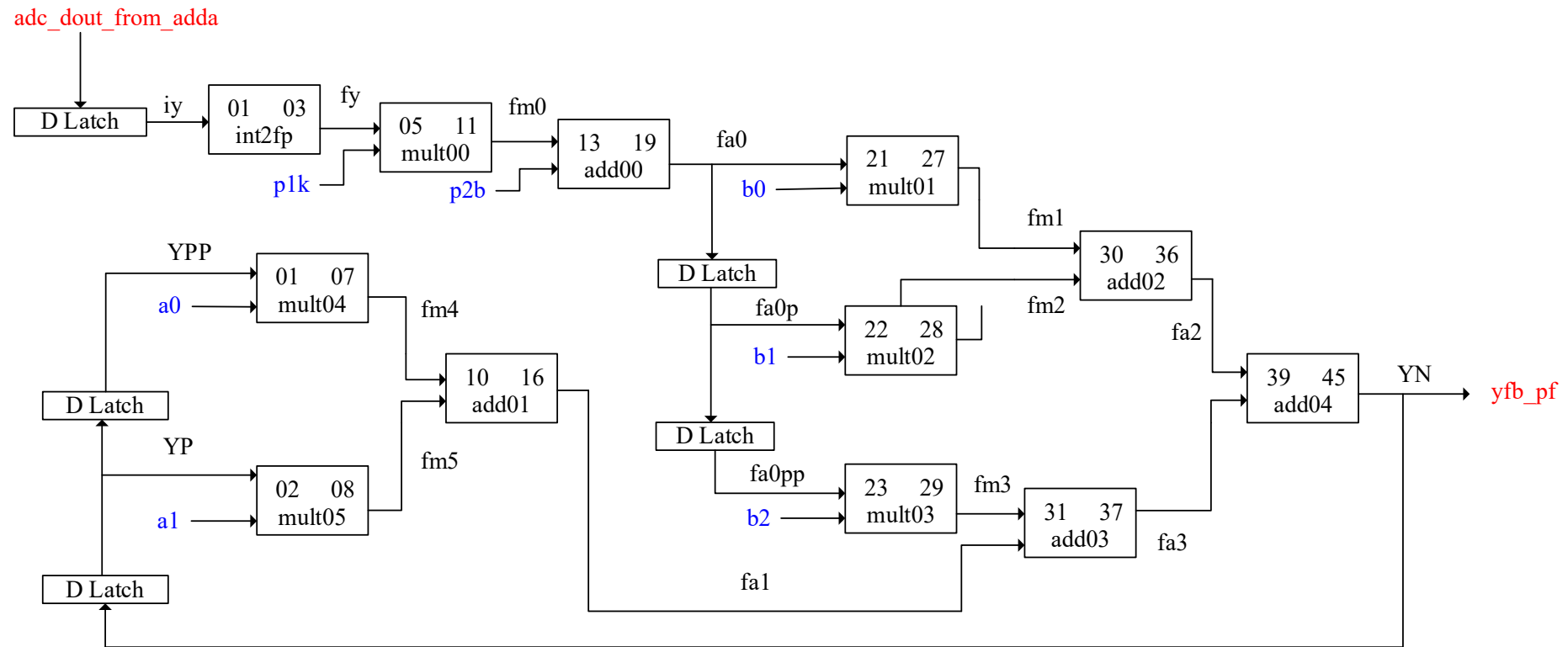


## Close Loop Architecture



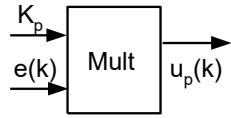
# HDL of Difference Equations

$$y(n) = b_0x(n) + b_1x(n-1) + b_2x(n-2) - a_1y(n-1) - a_2y(n-2)$$

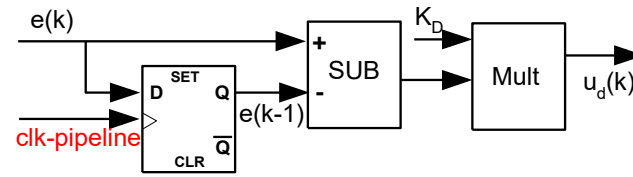




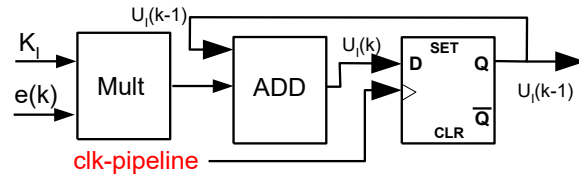
# HDL of PID



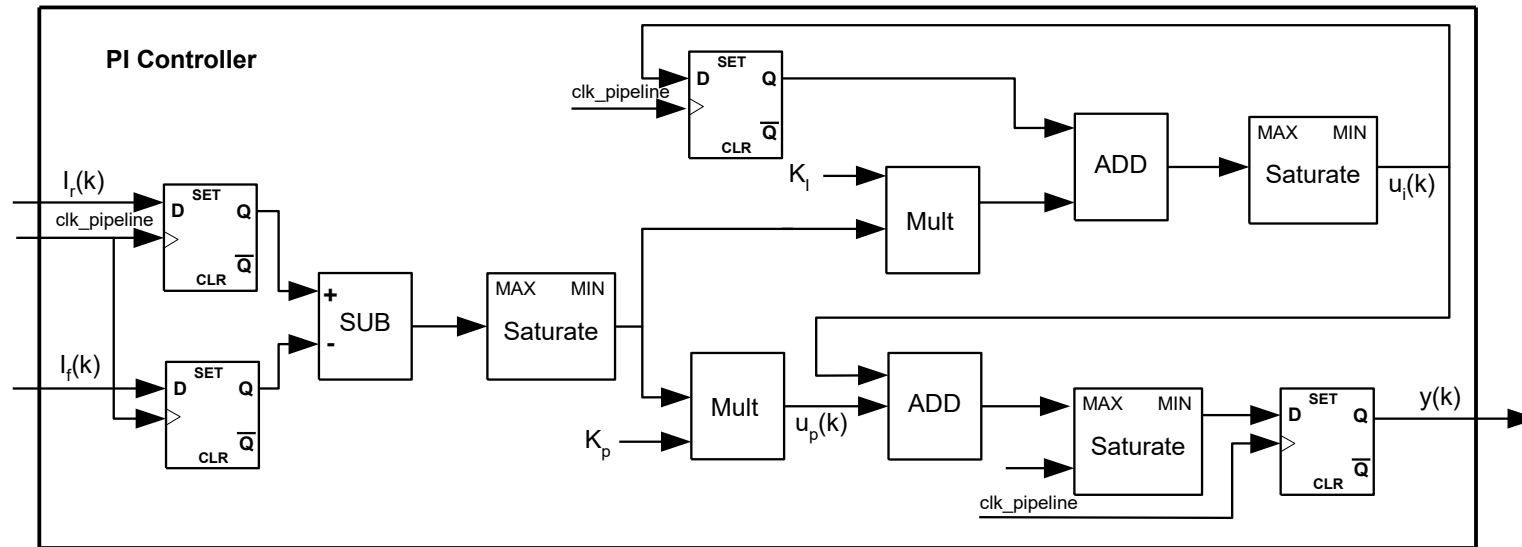
P



D



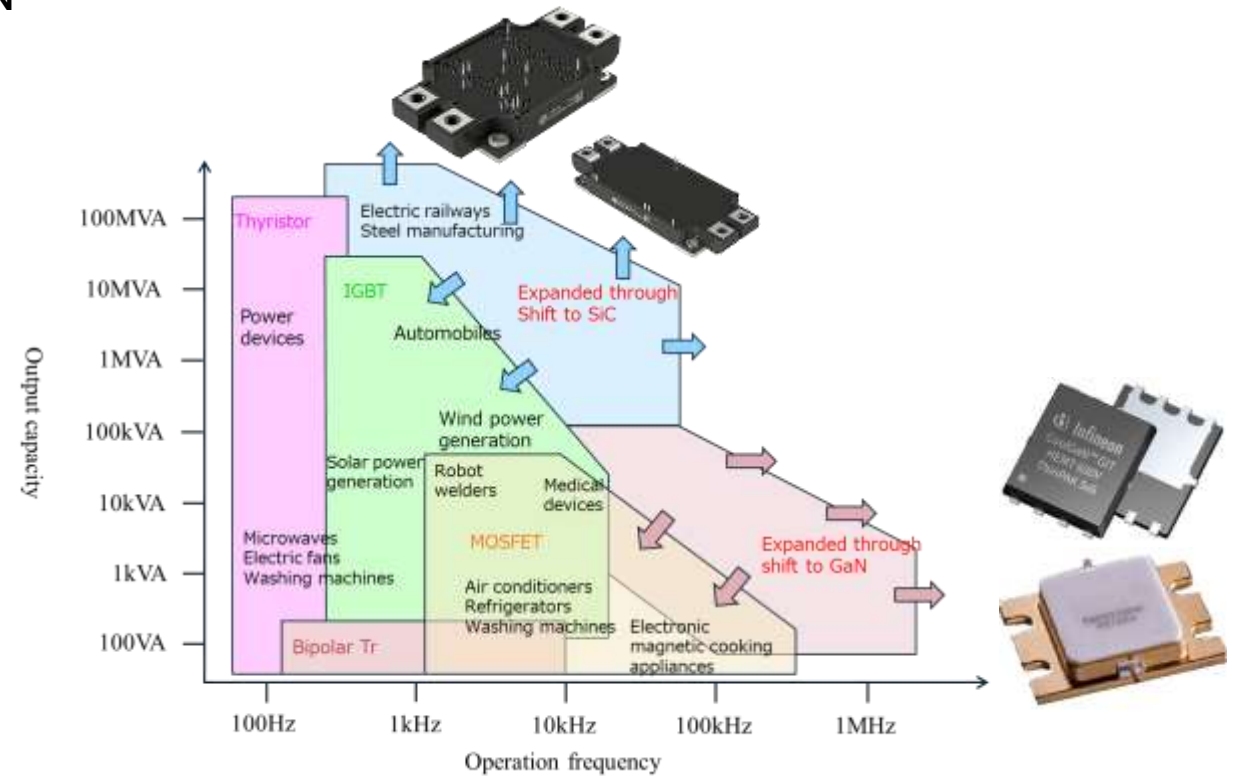
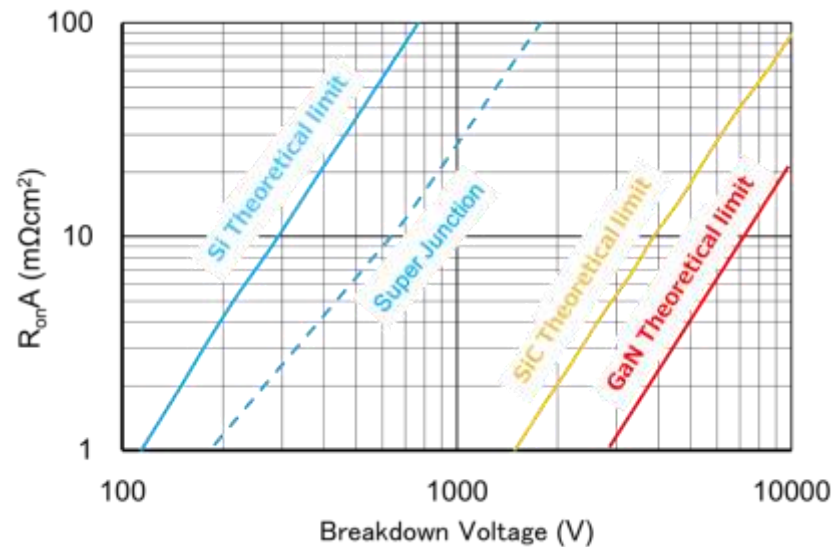
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# Challenges and Developments

## Power Electronics Devices

Wide band gap semiconductors like SiC, GaN

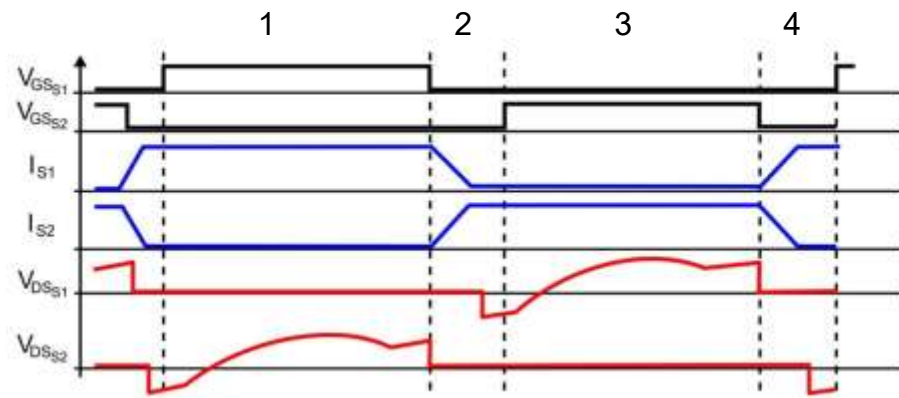
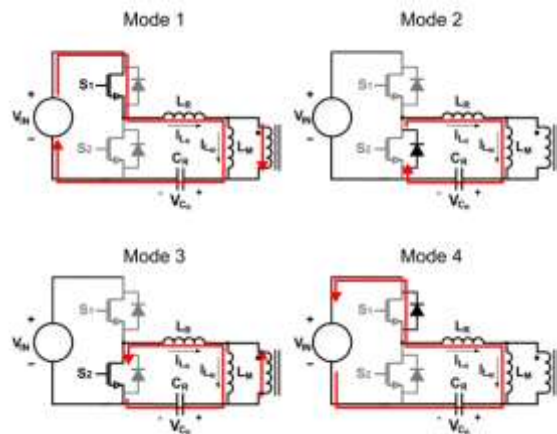
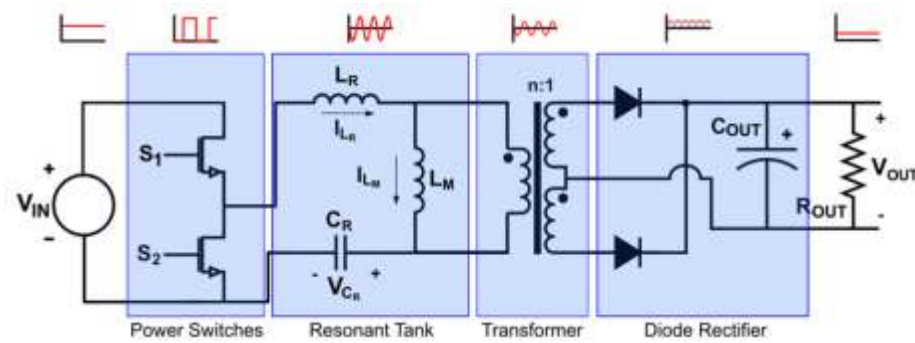


Lower  $R_{on}$  => lower loss

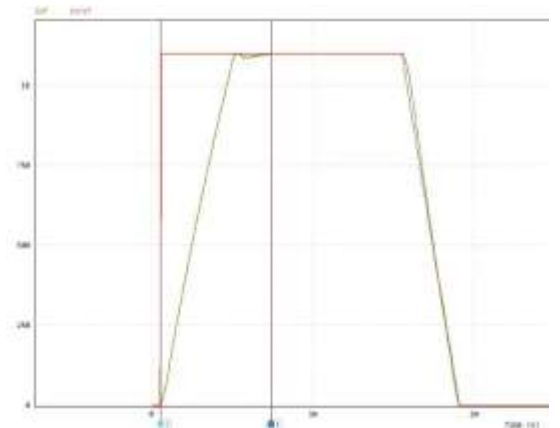
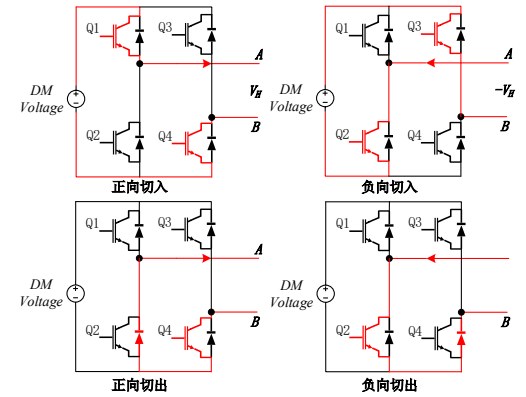
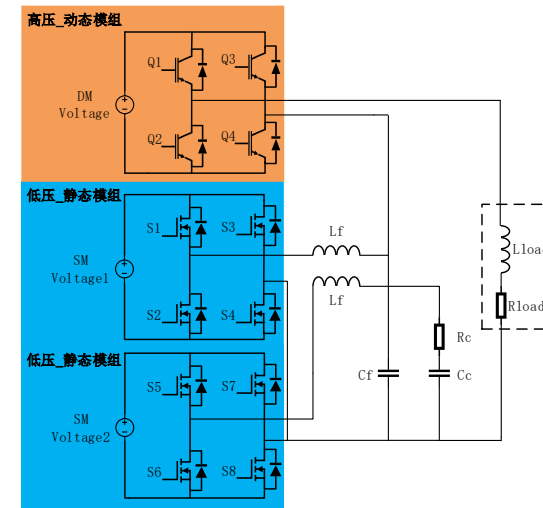
Higher thermal conductivity => more heat withstand

# Topology

Soft-switching technique,  
LLC resonant converter

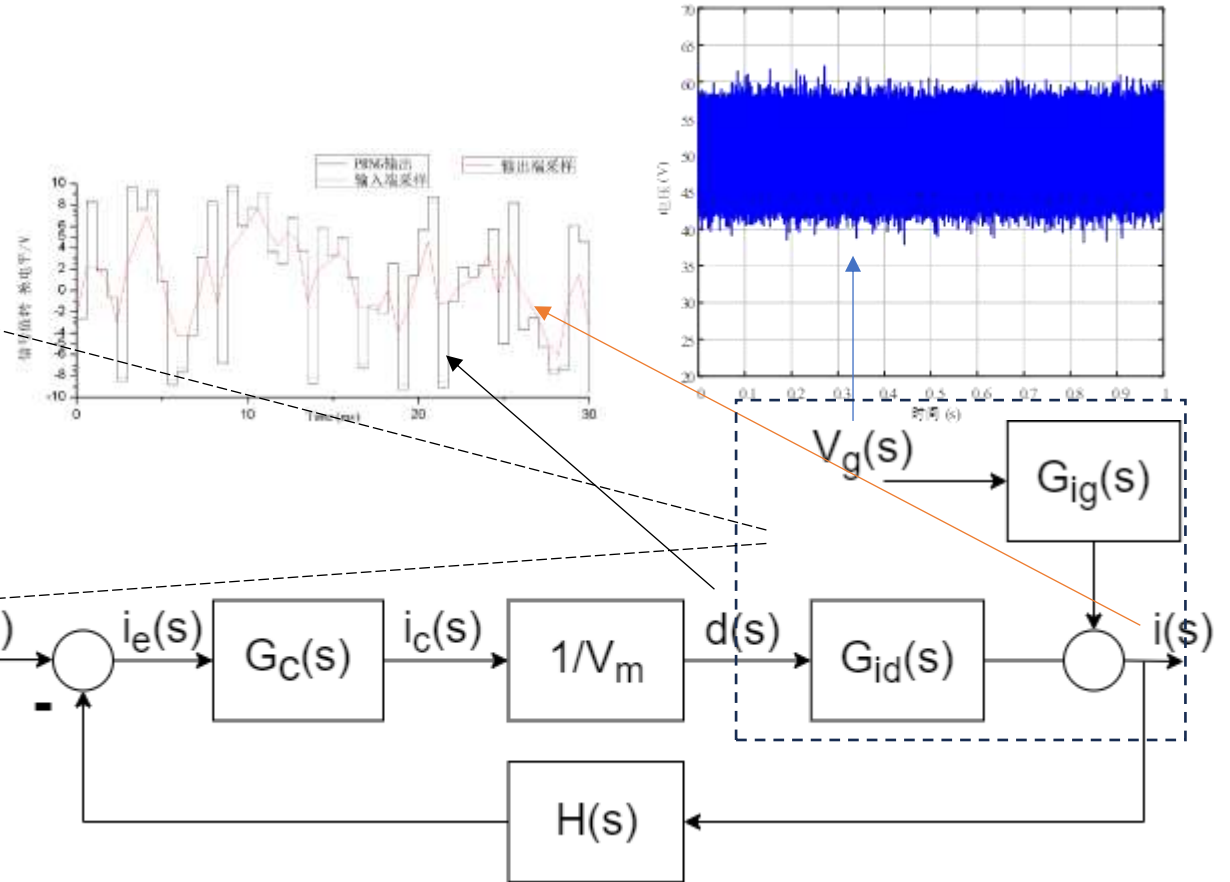
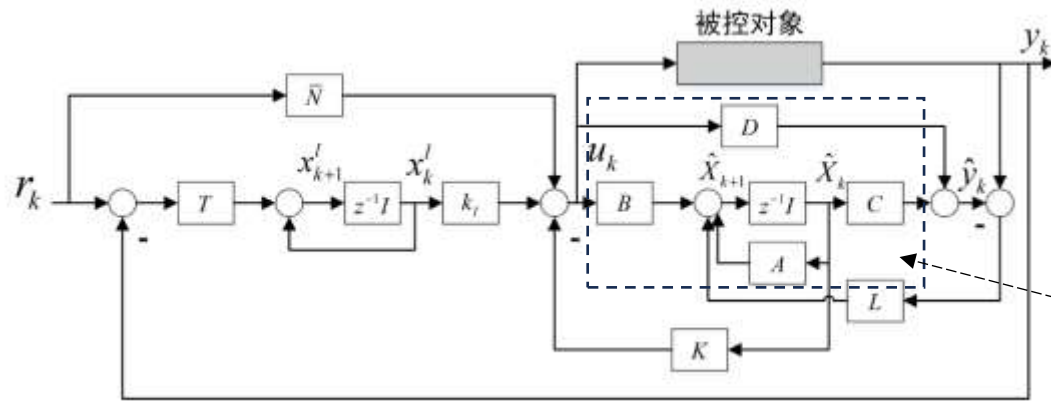


Super-fast scanner

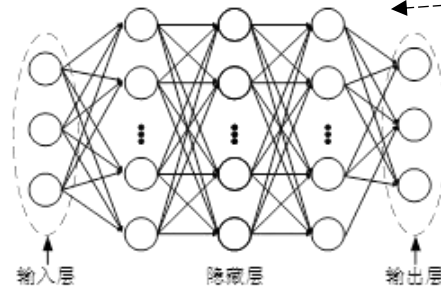


# Modeling and Control Algorithm

State space feedback and  
observer identification



Self-adaptive  
Non-linear  
MIMO



# Digital Intelligence

Intelligence in:

- Design
  - Unified auto-design and simulation scheme
- Modeling
  - “white box” + “black box” => closer circuit modeling to actual devices + better insight of data-based models.
- Controlling
  - State space feedback + observer
  - Optimal control
  - Non-linear control
- Running
  - On-line identification + on-board digital-twin
  - Failure snapshot + source locating + life forecasting
  - High-level AI-assisted evaluation + distributive analysis

THANKS FOR LISTENING



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