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### Authors

Abramson, Rose A  
Krishnan, Sahana  
Blackwell, Margaret E  
[et al.](#)

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## **An Active Split-Phase Control Technique for Hybrid Switched-Capacitor Converters Using Capacitor Voltage Discontinuity Detection**

R. A. Abramson  
S. Krishnan  
M. E. Blackwell  
R. C. N. Pilawa-Podgurski

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# An Active Split-Phase Control Technique for Hybrid Switched-Capacitor Converters Using Capacitor Voltage Discontinuity Detection

Rose A. Abramson, Sahana Krishnan, Margaret E. Blackwell, and Robert C. N. Pilawa-Podgurski  
Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Sciences, University of California, Berkeley  
Email: {rose\_abramson, sahana\_krishnan, blackwell, pilawa}@berkeley.edu

**Abstract**—Hybrid switched-capacitor (SC) converters have gained popularity due to their efficient switch utilization and use of energy-dense capacitors, which allows them to achieve high efficiency and power density even at large conversion ratios. The Dickson converter is one such popular hybrid SC converter, as it can achieve the theoretical minimum switch stress rating for a given operating condition. However, unlike other hybrid SC topologies that can automatically achieve full soft-charging through the addition of one or more augmenting inductors, certain Dickson variants also require the use of special switching schemes to fully soft-charge all flying capacitors. This technique, denoted as split-phase switching, inserts extra sub-phases into the control scheme so that flying capacitors are disconnected or connected at staggered times. Traditionally, split-phase timing has been calculated analytically, sometimes using imprecise models. This paper instead proposes an active control technique for detecting hard-charging events on the flying capacitors, such that the split-phase timing automatically converges on soft-charging operation. The technique is validated on an 8-to-1 resonant single-inductor Dickson hardware prototype. While this method is demonstrated on a resonant fixed-ratio converter in this work, the technique can also be applied to regulating split-phase applications, as well as used to detect hard-charging events in general.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Hybrid switched-capacitor (SC) converters have become increasingly popular in applications where both high efficiency and high power density are required. Their combined use of energy-dense capacitors for power conversion and augmenting inductors for capacitor soft-charging allows for high performance designs without the inrush current losses of pure SC converters. Therefore, they are gaining popularity in high performance applications such as data center power delivery and automotive drivetrains. For example, high efficiency high step-down converters can be used as first-stage intermediate bus converters, to step the 48 V bus in data centers down to the low voltage used at the point-of-load (PoL) by the CPUs and GPUs. By increasing the conversion ratio of this first-stage, the overall performance of the power delivery network can be increased, as this allows the second stage buck converters to operate more efficiently at a lower input voltage [1]–[3]. Previous work has demonstrated several high performance large step-down hybrid SC converters used in this application [4], [5]. In addition, hybrid SC converters have also been applied to electric drivetrains, both for use with the high

voltage battery bus as well as lower voltage 48 V peripheral buses [6]–[10].

One popular SC topology is the Dickson converter, which can be implemented both as a pure SC converter [11], [12] or a hybrid SC converter [13], [14]. The Dickson converter can achieve very efficient switch utilization [15] and exhibits the theoretical minimum switch stress compared to other SC converters [16]. However, while other hybrid SC topologies can softly charge all flying capacitors through the proper placement of one or more inductors [17], [18] – thereby avoiding the large impulse currents and corresponding losses associated with hard capacitor charge redistribution – soft-charging in the Dickson converter is not as straightforward. To obtain full soft-charging, the Dickson converter requires either specific capacitor sizing (applicable to only odd-conversion ratios), such as that presented in [19] for a 7-to-1 converter, or the use of a split-phase control technique, as presented in [13]. Split-phase operation introduces two sub-phases in addition to the main two operating phases, wherein certain capacitors are independently connected or disconnected from the main network at optimal points in their discharge and charge cycle to ensure no discontinuous capacitor voltage transitions.

Previous work has presented different analytical approaches for calculating the required split-phase timings under various assumptions, such as negligible or linear inductor current ripple [13], [20]. While [21] presents a full-ripple second-order LC analysis, all of these above methods assume constant capacitance and inductance values. In practice, these assumptions may break down if operating under large-ripple conditions or if using Class II multi-layer ceramic capacitors (MLCCs) and soft-saturating magnetics, whose values derate as a function of operating conditions. As a result of these real-world impacts, the necessary timings required for full-soft charging can deviate substantially from the calculated values found using analytical methods. Furthermore, while the higher fidelity calculation methods may be able to produce more accurate results, they can become quite complex to implement in hardware as they require the use of extensive lookup tables collected across the full range of operating conditions.

This paper therefore presents an active split-phase control technique that detects hard-charging events on the flying capacitors and continuously tunes the switch gating signals to achieve soft-charging. This control technique is demonstrated on an 8-to-1 resonant Dickson converter implemented with

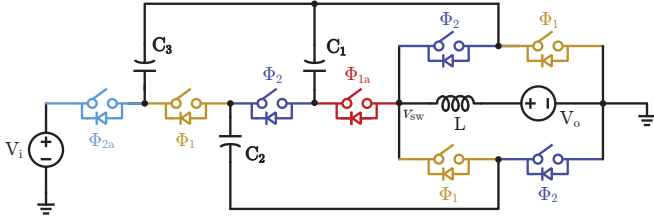


Fig. 1: Schematic drawing of a 4-to-1 single-inductor resonant Dickson converter, with operating phases labeled.  $\Phi_1$  and  $\Phi_2$  are the main operating control signals, while  $\Phi_{1a}$  and  $\Phi_{2a}$  are the split-phase control signals.

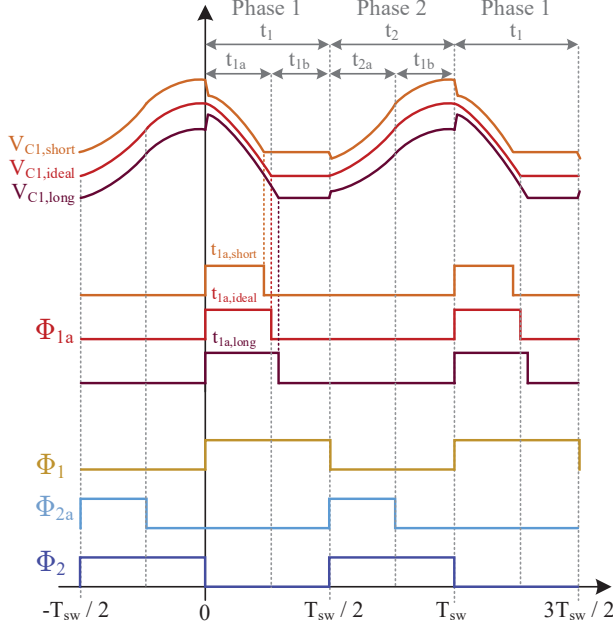


Fig. 2: Gating signals for the converter in Fig. 1. The capacitor voltage across  $C_1$  is also shown for soft-charging operation (correct timing) and hard-charging operation (too long or too short timing).

Class II MLCCs and a soft-saturating composite inductor, and is shown to converge on soft-charging split-phase timings. A similar active control method has been recently proposed specifically for regulating Dickson converters [22], wherein the capacitor voltages are sensed during the “quiet” regulating phases where the capacitor network is left open-circuited, such that no charge flows. While this allows for simplified circuitry and low-bandwidth sensing, these phases do not exist in resonant fixed-ratio converters, necessitating other detection methods such as the one presented in this work. Moreover, while this hard-charging detection technique is validated here with resonant capacitor voltage waveforms, it is general in approach and can be tuned to detect hard-charging events in a wide variety of circuit topologies and operating modes.

## II. THEORY OF OPERATION

For the sake of demonstration, the control method is described for a 4-to-1 resonant Dickson topology, but can easily be extended to  $N$ -to-1 Dickson converters. Fig. 1 shows a schematic drawing of the 4-to-1 topology, with gating signals as labeled. The converter is operated with two main phases, Phase 1 and Phase 2, with durations of  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  and gating

signals  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$ . Both phases operate with 50% duty cycle. To achieve soft-charging, two additional sub-phases, Phase 1a and Phase 2a, can be introduced with durations  $t_{1a}$  and  $t_{2a}$  and gating signals  $\phi_{1a}$  and  $\phi_{2a}$ , as shown in Fig. 2. For the 4-to-1 topology shown in Fig. 1, these sub-phases ensure that  $C_1$  and  $C_3$  are disconnected once their voltages have reached the values that satisfy the KVL loop defined by the next phase equivalent circuit, as described in [13]. If the capacitor voltages deviate from these values at the start of the next phase, hard charge redistribution will occur, resulting in increased losses. For a general  $N$ -to-1 Dickson converter with  $N - 1$  flying capacitors, only capacitors  $C_{N-1}$  and  $C_1$  will require split-phase switching, making the analysis easily extendable to higher-order conversion ratios.

In an ideal Dickson converter, Phase 1 and Phase 2 (and their corresponding sub-phases) are equivalent, such that the phase time durations satisfy  $t_{1a} = t_{2a} = t_a$  and  $t_{1b} = t_{2b} = t_b$ . This work therefore only senses the voltage of the low-side split-phase capacitor,  $C_1$ , and then modifies both  $t_{1a}$  and  $t_{2a}$  simultaneously. However, both split-phase capacitor ( $C_1$  and  $C_3$ ) voltages could be sensed to allow for independent modulation of the split-phase times, though this is not explored in this work. Finally, the converter is assumed to operate with a fixed frequency, such that only  $t_{1a}$  and  $t_{2a}$  are changed by the feedback loop, while  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  remain constant.

Fig. 2 shows characteristic capacitor voltage waveforms for  $C_1$  for both soft-charging and hard-charging operation. When the split-phase time duration  $t_{1a}$  is correctly tuned, the capacitor voltage will exhibit a smooth continuous waveform throughout the switching period, as demonstrated by  $V_{C_1,ideal}$ . However, if  $t_a$  is off in either direction, the capacitor voltage will experience sharp discontinuities as hard charge redistribution occurs when the converter enters the next operating phase. The polarity of these discontinuities corresponds to whether the previous timing was too short or too long. A steep negative slope – as demonstrated by  $V_{C_1,short}$  – corresponds to split-phase time durations  $t_{1a}$  and  $t_{2a}$  that are too short, while a steep positive slope – as demonstrated by  $V_{C_1,long}$  – corresponds to split-phase time durations that are too long. The proposed control method is designed to detect these discontinuities, and based on the polarity, appropriately increase or decrease the split-phase times.

This technique is similar to the zero-voltage-switching (ZVS) detection methods presented in [23], [24]. The methods are somewhat analogous, as here the control detects a resonant soft-charged capacitor voltage versus a discontinuous hard-charged capacitor voltage, while the ZVS control in the referenced works detects a resonant drain-to-source voltage versus a discontinuous hard-switching drain-to-source voltage. However, these ZVS detection methods are only designed for ground-referenced switches, while the proposed method can handle the floating voltages characteristic of flying capacitors in hybrid SC converters.

### A. Analog Circuitry

The control architecture is presented in Fig. 3. The analog circuitry is powered by a single supply of  $V_{cc} = 5$  V. The first stage consists of a subtractor circuit, which converts the differ-

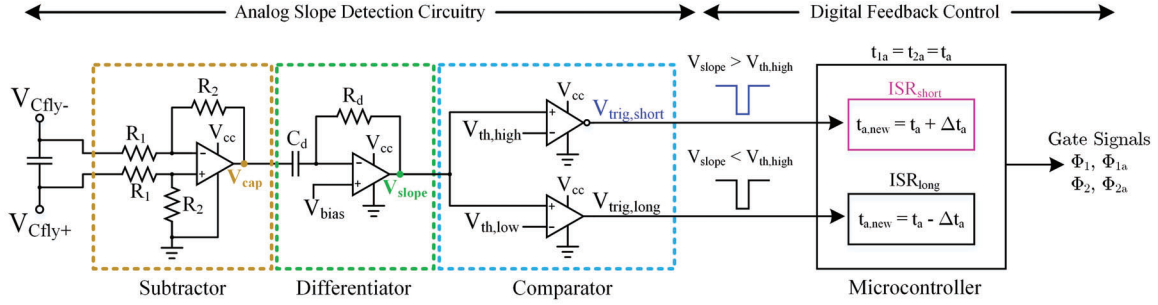


Fig. 3: Schematic of the active split-phase control circuitry, including the analog slope detect circuitry and the controller logic. The “short” timing path is color-coded to match the experimental waveforms shown in Fig. 8.

ential flying capacitor voltage to a single-ended voltage, given by  $V_{cap} = \frac{R_2}{R_1} \cdot (V_{Cfly+} - V_{Cfly-})$ . This voltage is then fed into an active differentiator circuit, whose output is proportional to the slope of the input, given by  $V_{slope} = -R_d C_d \frac{dV_{cap}}{dt} + V_{bias}$ . The signal is biased around  $V_{bias} = 2.5$  V so that it is centered between the comparator supply rails, where  $V_{bias}$  is created using a simple resistor divider powered from the  $V_{cc}$  rail.

When a hard-charging event occurs at the Phase 2-to-Phase 1 transition (as labeled in Fig. 2), the steep slope present in  $V_{Cfly}$  and  $V_{cap}$  generates a large pulse on  $V_{slope}$ . This signal is then compared to two different threshold voltages,  $V_{th,high}$  and  $V_{th,low}$ , to determine whether the hard-charging event is caused by too short or too long of split-phase timing. These thresholds are also set using simple resistor dividers supplied by the  $V_{cc}$  rail, and are only tuned during initial circuit design. The threshold levels should be set so that the detection circuit triggers the comparators correctly at low current, as the magnitude of the pulse will be at its lowest at light load.

As an example, if the split-phase timing is too short, the upward pulse on  $V_{slope}$  will go above  $V_{th,high}$ , generating a falling edge on  $V_{trig,short}$ . This then triggers an external interrupt in the microcontroller, so that the phase timing can be updated. Fig. 4 illustrates the output of each stage of the control circuitry for the case where the split-phase time duration,  $t_a$ , is too short. Similarly, if the split-phase timing is too long,  $V_{slope}$  will exhibit a downward pulse that will go below  $V_{th,low}$ , generating a falling edge on  $V_{trig,long}$  and triggering the corresponding external interrupt.

Note that while  $V_{slope}$  is fed into the positive terminal of both comparator channels, the inverted comparator output is used to generate  $V_{trig,short}$ , while the non-inverted comparator output is used to generate  $V_{trig,long}$ . This is done to simplify the hysteresis resistor network used to prevent oscillations around the trigger level (not shown in Fig. 3).

In practice, the capacitor voltage discontinuities can be larger at the Phase 2-to-Phase 1 transition compared to the Phase 1-to-Phase 2 transition (as shown in Fig. 2), in part due to parasitic effects. This results in a larger corresponding pulse in  $V_{slope}$ , which is easier to sense. However, the control could be adjusted to monitor both phase transitions to detect hard-charging events at twice the frequency, though a more conservative control approach may be to only adjust duty cycle timings once per switching cycle, such that Phase 1 and

Phase 2 remain symmetrical within one switching period.

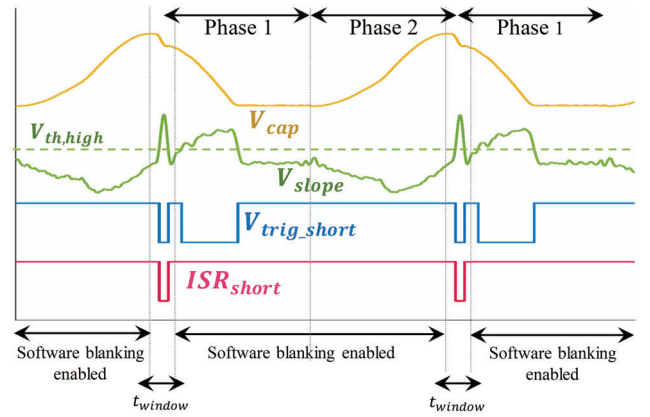


Fig. 4: Simplified control circuit waveforms, corresponding to the case where  $t_a$  is too short. The output of each control stage is plotted. A blanking window is implemented in code to isolate only the  $V_{slope}$  pulses at the Phase 2-to-Phase 1 transition.

## B. Microcontroller Feedback

Depending on which comparator channel triggers the controller, the duration of  $t_a$  will be increased or decreased. For example, a falling edge on  $V_{trig,short}$  will trigger the interrupt service routine,  $ISR_{short}$ , which will increase the split-phase time  $t_a$  by a step-size  $\Delta t_a$ . Similarly,  $ISR_{long}$  will decrease  $t_a$  by  $\Delta t_a$ , as shown in Fig. 3. This step-size can be tuned to achieve the desired trade-off between the control convergence speed and overshoot behavior.

As mentioned previously, the amplitude of the pulse on  $V_{slope}$  will increase with load current. Therefore, to increase the sensitivity of the hard-charging detection circuitry at light load, the trigger thresholds should be set as close to the level of the soft-charged  $V_{slope}$  waveform as possible. However, as can be seen in Fig. 4, at other times in the switching period  $V_{slope}$  can exceed this threshold level even when not in the presence of a hard-charging event, due to the sinusoidal shape of the capacitor voltage waveform. To account for this, the  $V_{slope}$  signal is only monitored by the controller during a time  $t_{window}$ , centered around the peak of  $V_{cap}$  at the Phase 2-to-Phase 1 transition. A software-enabled blanking window ignores any other comparator triggers, so that the controller will only modify  $t_a$  in this window, regardless of whether  $V_{slope} > V_{th,high}$  at other times during the switching

TABLE I: Power Stage and Control Components

8-to-1 Dickson Power Stage Components		
Component	Part Number	Description
Switches	IQE006NE2LM5	Si MOSFET, 25 V, 0.65 m $\Omega$
Gate Driver	LT4440-5	80 V, high-side
Inductor	IHLP5050EZERR68M01	680 nH, 54 A $I_{sat}$ , 1.7 m $\Omega$
Fly Capacitors		4 $\mu$ F derated
$C_1$	C2012X7R1V225K085AC	2 $\times$ 2.2 $\mu$ F $\pm$ 10%, 35 V X7R 0805
$C_2$	CGA513X7R1V225K160AB	2 $\times$ 2.2 $\mu$ F $\pm$ 10%, 35 V, X7R 1206
$C_3$	CGA513X7R1V225K160AB	1 $\times$ 2.2 $\mu$ F $\pm$ 10%, 35 V, X7R 1206
	C3216X5R1V475K085AB	1 $\times$ 4.7 $\mu$ F $\pm$ 10%, 35 V, X5R 1206
$C_4$	CGA513X7R1V225K160AB	3 $\times$ 2.2 $\mu$ F $\pm$ 10%, 35 V, X7R 1206
$C_5$	C3216X5R1H106K160AB	2 $\times$ 10 $\mu$ F $\pm$ 10%, 50 V, X5R 1206
$C_6$	C3216X5R1H106K160AB	2 $\times$ 10 $\mu$ F $\pm$ 10%, 50 V, X5R 1206
	CGJ4J3X7R1E105K125AB	1 $\times$ 0.68 $\mu$ F $\pm$ 10%, 50 V, X5R 1206
$C_7$	C3216X5R1H106K160AB	3 $\times$ 10 $\mu$ F $\pm$ 10%, 50 V, X5R 1206

Control Board Components		
Component	Part Number	Description
Subtractor op-amp	AD8091	145 V/ $\mu$ s, 110 MHz
Differentiator op-amp	AD8091	145 V/ $\mu$ s, 110 MHz
Comparator	AD8611	Ultrafast 4 ns Single-Supply
Controller	F28379D	Delfino Experimenter Kit

Control Biasing Components	
Component	Value
Voltage divider resistor, $R_1$	49.9 k $\Omega$ , 0.1%
Voltage divider resistor, $R_2$	4.99 k $\Omega$ , 0.1%
Filter resistor, $R_d$	4.99 k $\Omega$ , 0.1%
Filter capacitor, $C_d$	3 $\times$ 220 pF

period. Fig. 4 illustrates this software blanking window for the case where the split-phase timing is too short. The threshold  $V_{th,high}$  is set near the base of the upward pulse on  $V_{slope}$ , allowing for the circuitry to detect hard-charging events across a wide load range. Extra filtering, such as additional high-pass filters, can be added to push down the noise floor of  $V_{slope}$  to allow for easier detection of hard-charging events. However, this can further attenuate the amplitude of the pulse and also requires more circuit stages, presenting a trade-off for the designer.

The control uses a hysteretic approach to converge onto the split-phase timing that results in soft-charging. Because  $V_{th,high} \neq V_{th,low}$ , when converging on split-phase timing from a hard-charging condition, the converter will enter a hysteresis band defined by these thresholds, preventing oscillatory behavior and allowing the control to more easily maintain a steady state timing.

### III. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The hard-charging detection circuitry was validated on an 8-to-1 resonant Dickson converter, as shown in Fig. 5. The converter was designed with a derated flying capacitance of 4  $\mu$ F and an inductance of 680  $\mu$ H, while the switches were

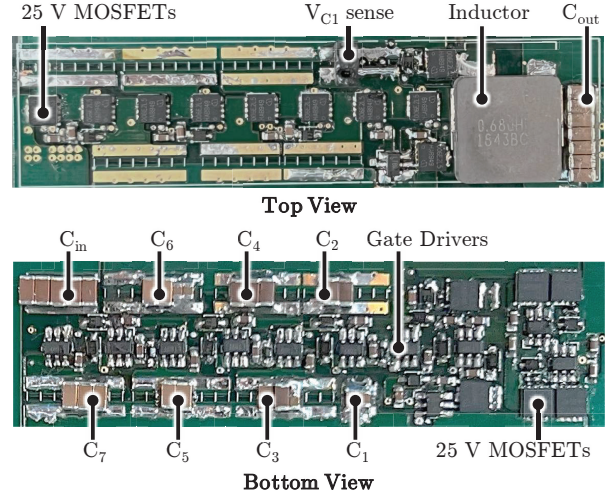


Fig. 5: Annotated photograph of the 8-to-1 Dickson power stage, with main components labeled. Dimensions: 2.8 in (7.0 cm) x 0.7 in (1.8 cm).

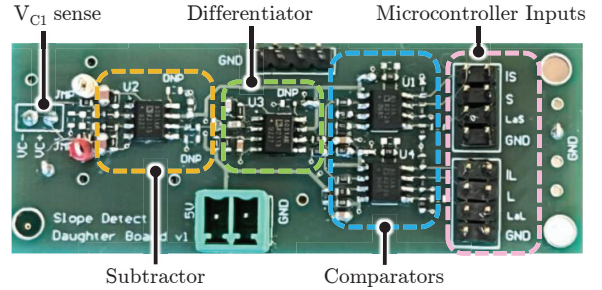


Fig. 6: Annotated photograph of the single-sided control daughterboard. Dimensions: 2.8 in (7.0 cm) x 1.1 in (2.8 cm).

implemented with 25 V Si MOSFETs. The hard-charging detection circuitry was implemented as a daughterboard mounted on top of the 8-to-1 Dickson converter. Fig. 6 shows an annotated photograph of the daughterboard, highlighting the individual stages of the control circuitry. Table I gives a full list of the main components for the 8-to-1 Dickson power stage and the control daughterboard, as labeled in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6. The experimental setup was tested at an input voltage of 48 V and an unregulated output voltage of 6 V, up to an output current of 10 A (60 W), as summarized in Table II. The total power draw of the control circuitry from the  $V_{CC}$  rail was 90 mW across the load range. The threshold levels  $V_{th,high}$  and  $V_{th,low}$  were tuned during initial circuit design, and were implemented using 0.1 V hysteresis to prevent comparator oscillation.

#### A. Control Circuit Tradeoffs

The daughterboard was designed for control validation, and therefore used separate ICs for each stage. However, total board area could be significantly reduced by combining both the subtractor and differentiator stages as well as the comparator stages into single ICs, reducing the total number of discrete ICs from four to two.

TABLE II: Operating Parameters

Parameter	Description	Value
<b>Power Stage</b>		
$V_{in}$	Input Voltage	48 V
$V_{out}$	Output voltage	6 V
$I_{load,max}$	Full load current	10 A
$f_{sw}$	Switching frequency	67.5 kHz
<b>Control Biasing</b>		
$V_{bias}$	Bias voltage	2.5 V
$V_{th,high}^*$	High threshold	2.58 V
$V_{th,low}^*$	Low threshold	2.43 V
$P_{ctrl}$	Control power	90 mW

\*with 0.1 V hysteresis

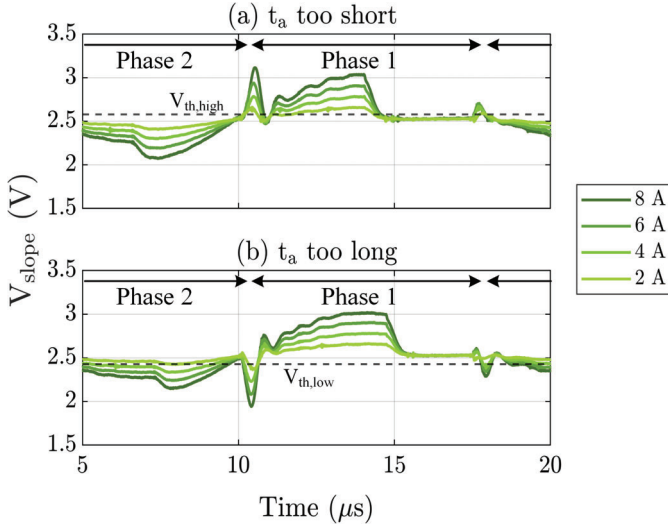


Fig. 7: Experimental  $V_{slope}$  waveforms across several values of  $I_{load}$ , for (a) “too short”  $t_a$  and (b) “too long”  $t_a$ . At the Phase 2-to-Phase 1 transition, a short  $t_a$  results in an upwards pulse on  $V_{slope}$ , while a long  $t_a$  results in a downwards pulse. The comparator trigger thresholds  $V_{th,high}$  and  $V_{th,low}$  are also plotted.

While the subtractor op-amp should have a high enough slew rate to faithfully replicate the steep discontinuities on the capacitor voltage waveform, the slew rate requirement on the differentiator may not be as stringent depending on the converter operating parameters. Therefore, the designer could choose to use different op-amp ICs for the subtractor and differentiator stages to reduce the total power draw of the control circuitry. These specifications can be set to achieve the desired trade off between power consumption and filter performance.

### B. Experimental Validation

Experimental  $V_{slope}$  waveforms are plotted in Fig. 7 for a range of load currents,  $I_{load}$ . Fig. 7 (a) shows the case where the split-phase time  $t_a$  is too short, and  $V_{slope}$  sees an upwards pulse at the phase transitions. The magnitude of the pulse increases with load current. Fig. 7 (b) shows the case where the split-phase time  $t_a$  is too long, and  $V_{slope}$  sees a downwards pulse at the phase transitions. As mentioned previously, the pulse at the Phase 1-to-Phase 2 transition

can have a lower magnitude compared to the pulse at the Phase 2-to-Phase 1 transition, due to deadtime dynamics. The comparator threshold levels,  $V_{th,high}$  and  $V_{th,low}$ , are also plotted, and are set as close to the base of the pulse as possible to allow the control to trigger at low current. Spurious triggering at other points in the switching period is prevented by the control windowing described in Section II. B.

Fig. 8 shows experimental waveforms for the converter before, during, and after convergence to a soft-charging state when operating at 48 V input, 6 V output, and 5 A load current. The converter is initialized with too short of a  $t_a$  value, resulting in downward step discontinuities on the capacitor voltage,  $V_{cap}$ . Once the control is enabled, the circuitry detects the resulting large upward pulse on  $V_{slope}$ , causing  $V_{trig,short}$  to be pulled low and  $ISR_{short}$  to be triggered. The ISR increases the split-phase times  $t_{1a}$  and  $t_{2a}$  by a step size  $\Delta t_a$  until the converter reaches a timing that results in smooth, soft-charged capacitor voltage waveforms. The software blanking window ignores any comparator triggering outside of the phase transition window,  $t_{window}$ . After convergence, the controller continues to ignore comparator falling edges outside of  $t_{window}$ , and will remain in this steady-state condition unless perturbed.

Similarly, Fig. 9 shows experimental waveforms before, during, and after convergence when the converter is initialized with too long of a  $t_a$  timing, again at 48 V input, 6 V output, and 5 A load current. This improper timing results in an upward step discontinuity on  $V_{cap}$ , which triggers  $ISR_{long}$  once the control is enabled. The converter is similarly able to converge on the correct split-phase timing, resulting in smooth capacitor voltages.

The converter was also tested with various load steps while operating under closed-loop control, to test the ability of the control loop to re-converge on soft-charging timing when perturbed. Fig. 10 shows a load step from 25% to 75% of full load (i.e. 2.5 A to 7.5 A). As  $I_{load}$  ramps up, the split-phase timing becomes too long for the new load condition, resulting in  $ISR_{long}$  triggering for a time  $t_{control} = 85.5 \mu s$  after the load step. At this point,  $V_{cap}$  no longer exhibits hard-charging, and the converter takes an additional  $126.5 \mu s$  to reach a new steady state, resulting in a total settling time  $t_{settle} = 212 \mu s$  (approximately 14 switching cycles).

Fig. 11 shows a similar load step from 75% to 25% of full load (i.e. 7.5 A to 2.5 A). As  $I_{load}$  ramps down, the split-phase timing is initially too short, triggering  $ISR_{short}$ . The control slightly overshoots, resulting in  $ISR_{long}$  triggering briefly. After  $128 \mu s$ , the capacitor voltage converges to smooth waveforms, and the converter then takes an additional  $44 \mu s$  to reach its new steady state condition, for a total settling time of  $t_{settle} = 172 \mu s$  (approximately 12 switching cycles).

The above hardware waveforms demonstrate that the control loop can converge on the correct split-phase timing required for soft-charging in the case of 1) incorrect timing initialization, and 2) load perturbations, thereby allowing the converter to achieve soft-charging across a wide range of operating conditions.

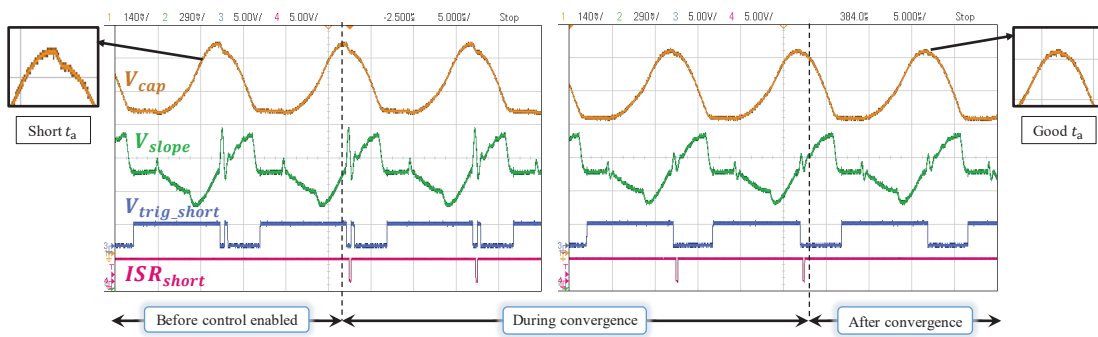


Fig. 8: Experimental waveforms for the converter operating at 48 V input, 6 V output, and 5 A load current. The converter is initialized with a split-phase time  $t_a$ , which is shorter than that required for soft-charging. After control is enabled, the converter converges on smooth capacitor voltage waveforms.

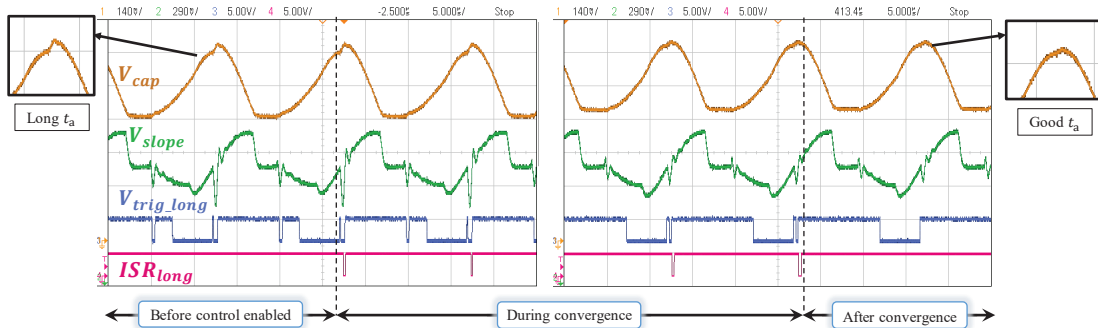


Fig. 9: Experimental waveforms for the converter operating at 48 V input, 6 V output, and 5 A load current. The converter is initialized with a split-phase time  $t_a$ , which is longer than that required for soft-charging. After control is enabled, the converter converges on smooth capacitor voltage waveforms.

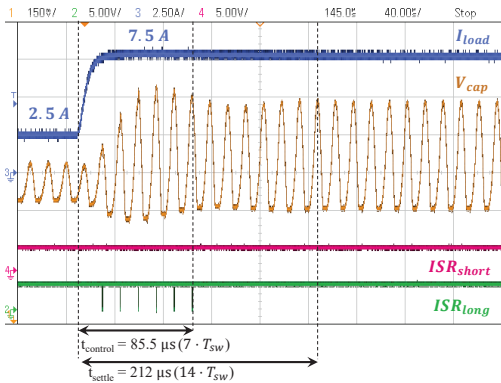


Fig. 10: System waveforms for a load step of 2.5 A to 7.5 A. The control takes  $85.5 \mu\text{s}$  to converge on soft-charged split-phase timing. The converter takes a total of  $212 \mu\text{s}$  (approximately 14 switching periods,  $T_{\text{sw}}$ ) to settle to its new steady state condition.

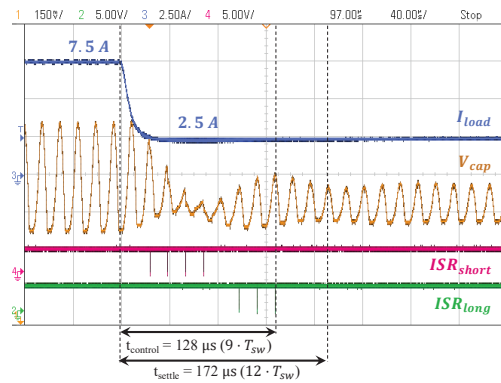


Fig. 11: System waveforms for a load step of 7.5 A to 2.5 A. The control actively takes  $128 \mu\text{s}$  to converge on soft-charged split-phase timing. The converter takes a total of  $172 \mu\text{s}$  (approximately 12 switching periods,  $T_{\text{sw}}$ ) to settle to its new steady state condition.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

Certain Dickson converter variants require the use of split-phase switching to soft-charge all flying capacitors. While the split-phase timing can be calculated analytically, in practice this can be complex or inaccurate due to component tolerances and variable operating conditions. This paper discusses the design and validation of an active control circuitry which detects hard-charging events in the capacitor voltage waveforms and tunes the split-phase timing accordingly to achieve soft-charging. The control was validated on an 8-to-1 resonant

Dickson converter prototype, and was able to correctly detect improper split-phase timing and converge on soft-charging operating conditions. Furthermore, when operating under closed-loop control, the converter was able to maintain soft-charging timing even under changing load conditions. This method can account for component value deviations in Class II capacitors or soft-saturation magnetics, and enables operation over a wider range of conditions. In addition, the technique can also be applied to a variety of converter topologies and operating modes, wherever hard-charging may occur.



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