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MAR

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BY MICHAEL A. BRIERE

This is an exciting time in power electronics. Everything is about to change. The introduction of commercially viable GaN-based power devices in the 20 to 600 V application range will provide truly revolutionary performance/cost value to a variety of systems from lighting to motor drives and Class D-audio to ac-dc and dc-dc power supplies. This opportunity has been a long time in the making.

Ever since the discovery of the spontaneous formation of a two dimensional electron gas (2DEG) in the highly polarized AlGa_N-Ga_N material system hetero-interface by M. Asif Khan in 1991, the potential for superior power devices has been clear. The intrinsic advantages of this material system based HEMTs of high electron mobility and saturation velocity ($> 1600 \text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs}$, $> 2.5 \cdot 10^7 \text{ cm/s}$ respectively), high carrier density (10^{13} cm^{-2}), together with the high electric field stand off capability of the AlGa_N and Ga_N materials ($> 1 \text{ MV/cm}$), provide the possibility of power switches with 10 to > 100 times lower on-resistance than compa-

ultimate performance possible within the multilayered hetero-epitaxial AlInGa_N material system, or to provide devices for small niche applications, rather it has been on optimizing the performance to cost ratio within a manufacturable and reliable device technology platform.

The first issue to resolve involved the choice of substrate. A cursory review of the alternatives will show that only silicon substrates provide the necessary combination of cost, size, quality and volume of supply needed to support the broad power electronics market (currently $> \$ 10 \text{ B}$ annual semiconductor content using > 10 Million six inch wafer equivalents per year). The technological challenge of growing uniform high quality AlInGa_N epitaxial layers on silicon substrates, made especially complex due to significant mismatches in both the lattice constants and their thermal coefficient of expansion, has to be met. The requisite control

of film thickness and compositional uniformities, epitaxial defects and macroscopic wafer warpage has been achieved on 150 mm silicon wafers through significant engineering efforts.

Next, the device design and fabrication process required additional significant attention. Here the first principle applied is that the fabrication process must be compatible with large volume silicon wafer manufacturing lines. This allows for the use of modern, highly capable equipment, as well as an overhead cost infrastructure competitive with the incumbent silicon based devices, a

pre-requisite for widespread adoption. This requirement, often abbreviated as “CMOS compatibility”, requires that such III-V device stalwarts such as gold metallurgy, e-beam lithography and lift-off processes be abandoned. In addition, complex and highly costly processes involving re-growth of AlInGa_N epitaxial layers for channel, drift or contact formation are likewise avoided. Standard in-process and post process control methodologies must be applied to establish a high volume production platform. The device design and construction must not compromise on performance, quality or reliability metrics established by the incumbent silicon based technologies. This requires that off-state leakage be kept below $1 \mu\text{A/mm}$ gate length, significantly less than the 1 mA/mm often employed in the GaN-based device field to date. Similarly, on to off state current ratios must be greater than one million to be comparable to state-of-the-art silicon based power devices. This requires the use of low leakage epitaxial layers, as well as insulated gates, replacing the much more common Schottky metal-semiconductor structures.

Device ruggedness in application conditions must also remain un-compromised with respect to expectations established by the incumbent silicon based technology. Large forward biased safe operating area is an important indication of such robustness. Device stability under accelerated stress conditions for extended periods of time is essential for acceptance in the power electronic community. To date, over 10,000,000 device hours of reliability data has been collected on the low voltage devices released to production by IR in early 2010, with up to 10,000 hours per device. No premature device failures have been found to date and parametric stability has been excellent. An example is shown in Figure 1, where the gate dielectric is stressed at -50 V , well above its device rating of -8.5 V for over 3,000 hours at 150°C without deleterious effect. It is imperative that such catastrophic failure mechanisms such as the “inverse piezo-electric effect”, found

Continued inside of back wrap

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able silicon based devices. In addition, the low parasitic capacitances of these intrinsically lateral devices allow for much lower switching times, an advantage leveraged in the fabrication of RF switches, as well as more efficient power devices.

The GaN-based power device program at International Rectifier, referred to as GaNpowIR®, has involved a long, costly and intense effort to turn, what has been to a large extent, an intellectual curiosity into a practical, commercially viable technology platform broadly applicable to the power electronic community. The focus has not been on achieving the

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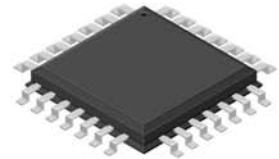
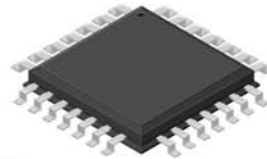
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CPUs IN FPGAs: MANY FACES TO A TREND

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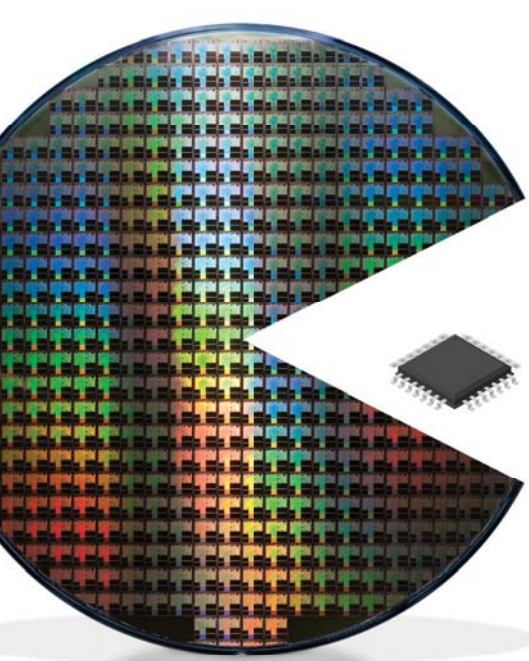
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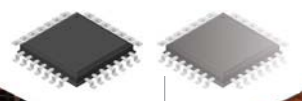
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CPU in FPGAs: many faces to a trend

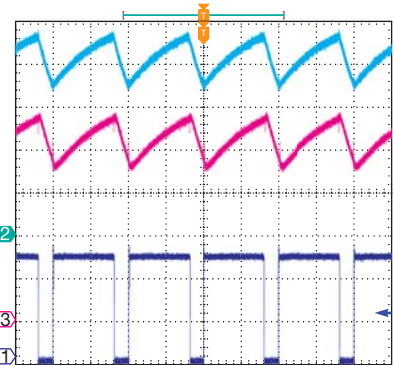
30 Whether as synthesizable soft cores or hard cores on the die, CPUs are showing up in more FPGA designs, bringing with them important challenges for designers.

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Build accurate Spice models for low-noise, low-power precision amplifiers

20 Understand Spice-model constructions to appreciate ac and dc performance.

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CHANNEL 1 5V CHANNEL 2 2V
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Monitor PWM load current with a high-side current-sense amplifier

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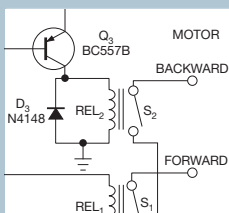
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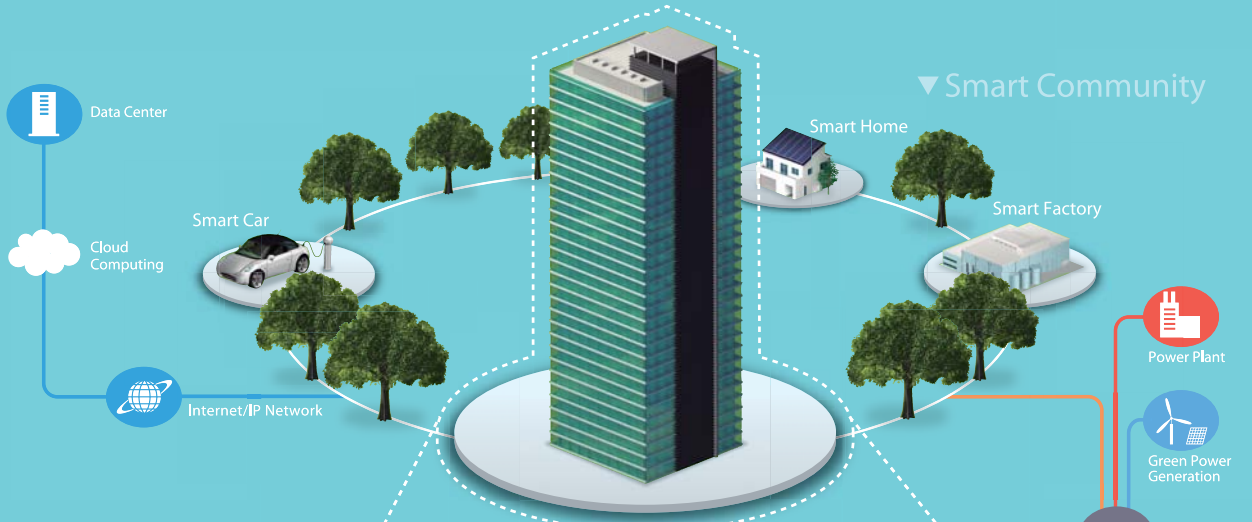


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46 Zener diode protects FPGA inputs

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50 Relay driver switches two relays with one pin



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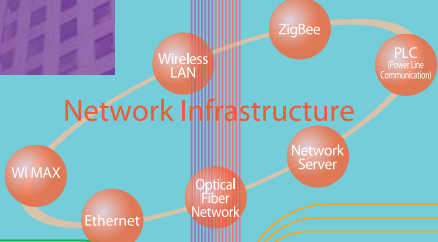
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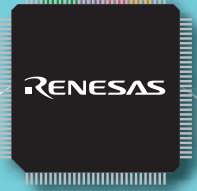
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V _{gate} Clamp (V)	10.7	10.7	14.5	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7
Min. On Time (ns)	Program. 250-3000		750	Program. 250-3000		850	
Enable Pin	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No
Channel	1		2		1		2
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BY BRIAN DIPERT, SENIOR TECHNICAL EDITOR

Windows on ARM: for Intel, probably no cause for alarm

During Microsoft's January International CES (Consumer Electronics Show) keynote address, Steve Ballmer, the company's chief executive officer, and Michael Angiulo, corporate vice president of its planning, hardware, and PC-ecosystem team, announced that the next-generation Windows OS would run on both x86 and ARM CPU architectures. In a sense, this announcement was no surprise. I disagree, however, with the pundits who reacted to the announcement by proclaiming that Intel—and AMD, and don't forget Via—were now dead. Many of these “experts” inaccurately drew parallels between Microsoft's announcement and Apple's several-year-old transition from PowerPC to x86 for OS X and subsequently to ARM for the OS X-derived iOS. In both Apple case studies, a wholesale migration from one CPU architecture to another took place, whereas the Microsoft case involves an expansion from one architecture to two.

Why does this distinction matter? Consider consumer desktop and mobile systems, which account for most of the x86 sales volume each year. The fundamental hardware costs of ARM- and x86-based systems are comparable if not identical to each other. Assuming that cellular/broadband carrier or other service-provider subsidies don't factor into the equation, prices for the two CPUs' respective systems will be similar, as well.

As a consumer, why on earth would I choose an ARM-based variant with limited native-software support versus an x86-based alternative that continues to tap into an extensive backward-compatible code ecosystem? And, if I were a developer, why would I bother compiling and supporting an ARM-flavored version of my app or, for that matter, a “universal” variant for the limited ARM customer base? ARM's situation shows little likelihood of success in today's consumer—or enterprise—desktop- and mobile-client scenarios.

Microsoft went to great pains to point out that the code running on ARM-based hardware during the CES keynote demos was binary-compiled, not virtualized. But Ballmer and Angiulo also went to great pains to reiterate that AMD and Intel will continue as strong partners of Microsoft. Microsoft could provide dynamic binary-translation capabilities in Windows 8 for running x86 binaries on ARM hardware.

Such work-arounds are inherently imperfect, however, so why is Microsoft bothering with the ARM port at all? Servers, which are sensitive to power consumption and relatively insensitive to performance, are a possible reason. The required code support is less in this case than in the consumer market, and current draw and heat dissipation are ongoing concerns. But the enterprise is a conservative and slow-moving application area.

Looking at the suppliers' road maps, you might wonder why Microsoft is bothering to break away from its x86-ex-

clusive embrace. I've long said that Intel won't be able to seriously compete with ARM on ARM's own turf until at least the third turn of the Atom tick-tock cadence. That prediction is coming to pass right on schedule. First-generation Atom on a 45-nm process essentially created the low-cost notebook—that is, the netbook. Second-generation Atom, also on a 45-nm process, has established a beachhead in tablets. Intel's now-mature 32-nm process is the basis for the upcoming third-generation Atom silicon spin. The next-generation 22-nm process will also inevitably yield highly integrated and power-sensitive Atom-based products. Meanwhile, AMD is translating its Fusion aspirations into product reality, and Via has migrated its dual-core Nano CPU into 40-nm-based monolithic-die form. By the time Windows 8 appears, the low-power x86 story should be in solid shape.

Perhaps, then, the more accurate question to ask is, Why is Microsoft breaking away from its ARM-exclusive embrace? With a nod to Tony King-Smith, vice president of marketing at Imagination Technologies, who gave me this idea, I believe a code-base simplification move is under way: the eventual obsolescence of Windows CE in favor of a unilateral corporate focus on modularized Windows 8 across all product segments in which Microsoft plays.

So, consider this potential future scenario: Microsoft broadens Windows 8 beyond x86 to ARM to catch the eye of mobile-electronics-equipment developers that might otherwise standardize on some other operating system and application suite. By the time Microsoft releases Windows 8, x86 CPU suppliers will be ready with silicon that's good enough from performance and power-consumption standpoints versus ARM alternatives. And developers go with x86 instead of the ARM processors they'd previously used. Wouldn't that be ironic?**EDN**

[Read an expanded version of this column on the Brian's Brain blog at www.edn.com/110303eda.](http://www.edn.com/110303eda)

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High-performance DSP-IP cores are ready for LTE-Advanced

Tensilica's new ConnX BBE64-128 DSP-IP (intellectual-property) cores for SOC (system-on-chip) design extend the BBE (baseband-engine) family to more than 100 billion MAC (multiply/accumulate)-operations-per-sec performance to meet requirements for the emerging LTE (long-term evolution)-Advanced standard. Tensilica manufactures the ConnX BBE64-128 DSP core for LTE-Advanced in a high-performance, 28-nm process technology to deliver more than five times the required computing power of LTE. The LTE-Advanced specification requires an increase in peak data rate from 150 Mbps to 1 Gbps, with an increase in channel bandwidth from 20 MHz to 100 MHz.

Tensilica based the BBE64-128 on a multi-slot VLIW (very-long-instruction-word) architecture that enables 128 MAC operations per cycle for maximum throughput and minimum energy consumption. It also performs common MIMO (multiple-in/multiple-out) functions, FIR (finite-impulse-response) filtering, and channel-estimation functions for LTE-Advanced. Modeless switch to Tensilica's smaller standard 16- and 24-bit instructions enables high code density for nonvector algorithms. The BBE64-128 also includes a single-cycle, 16-way complex radix-4 and radix-8 FFT (fast Fourier transform) and DFT (discrete Fourier transform) for efficiency on arbitrarily sized transformations in LTE OFDM (orthogonal-frequency-division-multiplexing) algorithms.

The company based the ConnX BBE64-UE for LTE-Advanced handset applications on a smaller feature set to minimize energy consumption and latency. It excludes some of the features of the BBE64-128, such as the option to run 128 MAC operations/cycle, to achieve

higher efficiency. The BBE64-UE processor can reach approximately 300,000 GMACs/sec/W, and Tensilica manufactures the core in a low-leakage, 28-nm-process technology.

With Tensilica's automated tools, you can optimize your design for specific applications by adding custom instructions, and you can add special memory interfaces, special per-SIMD (single-instruction/multiple-data) lane look-ups, or other required functions. The customizable processor architecture allows you to tailor functions, turn them on or off, and add them during SOC design.

Tensilica's design process automatically generates the compiler for the BBE64 core to match the configuration options you choose and features full native DSP-data support, including integer, fractional, real, and complex. It automatically infers complex instructions, accelerates and vectorizes legacy code from ConnX BBE16, accelerates legacy code for industry-standard intrinsic functions, vectorizes loops with complex conditional operations, and performs ANSI C operators on vector-data types. An "analysis cockpit" provides for program analysis, including a vectorization assistant.

A complete evaluation kit for the ConnX BBE64-128 and ConnX BBE-UE cores should become available for early-access customers in the fall.

—by Mike Demler

► Tensilica,
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TALKBACK

"I have a big-brother version that I have had for over 20 years. I opened it once because of a strange smell. That poor mouse."

—Reader Dick Kolman, in EDN's Talkback section, at <http://bit.ly/fh5HGW>. Add your comments.

The Tensilica ConnX BBE64 DSP-IP cores support LTE-Advanced infrastructure and handset applications.



Generator produces pulses to 330 MHz; functions, noise to 500 MHz

Agilent Technologies has expanded its pulse/function/arbitrary-noise-waveform generator family to help design and test engineers improve the efficiency and precision of testing higher-speed, higher-bandwidth, analog-, digital-, and mixed-signal devices. Engineers must improve quality yet must get to market faster with products whose features differentiate them from those of competitors. These conflicting requirements necessitate expanded test capabilities during development. The Agilent 81160A provides innovative functions and streamlined setup

to help you more quickly complete expanded test protocols.

The generator eliminates the need for cumbersome multi-



The 14-bit-resolution, 2.5G-sample/sec-data-rate 81160A extends the frequency range of the manufacturer's pulse/function/arbitrary-noise-waveform generator family to 330 MHz for pulses and 500 MHz for functions and noise.

instrument setups for stress-testing devices. The 81160A provides versatile waveforms as well as signals with an intrinsic

jitter of 7 psec rms. The instrument targets use in general-purpose bench tests and advanced serial-data stress tests. It gener-

ates 330-MHz pulses, optionally generates pulse patterns, and generates 500-MHz functions and arbitrary-noise waveforms with a 2.5G-sample/sec data rate and 14-bit vertical resolution. Selectable crest factors for white gaussian noise allow you to determine how much distortion to apply to a device during stress testing to meet various serial-bus

standards. Glitch-free timing-parameter adjustments let you change the frequency without dropouts or glitches and enable

continuous operation without rebooting or resetting the device under test. Arbitrary bit patterns allow simple pattern settings to emulate capacitive loading of the channels and eliminate the need for complex measurement setups to test designs to their limits. Noise waveforms' maximum duration—that is, the period during which patterns do not repeat—is 20 days, yet you can exactly and repeatedly reproduce brief portions of such waveforms to quickly investigate unusual behavior of the system under test.

The suggested US entry price for a single-channel version of the 81160A 330-MHz (pulse)/500-MHz (function/arbitrary-noise) generator is \$16,900. A two-channel version costs \$20,000.

—by Dan Strassberg
▶ **Agilent Technologies,**
www.agilent.com/find/81160.

Analog, NI team up on simulation tool

Analog Devices Inc and National Instruments recently announced their collaboration on a new release of NI's Multisim component-evaluation tool with added features to provide engineers with an easy-to-use environment for the simulation of linear circuits using Analog Devices' components. The free component-evaluation tool is

available on Analog Devices' Web site.

This edition of the tool allows engineers to design larger, more complex circuits and easily import their own models into the tool. By matching more than 1000 of Analog Devices' amplifiers, switches, and voltage references to more than 550 of National Instruments' simulation models, designers

have free access to the simulation environment, allowing them to easily experiment with circuit designs and reduce system-development time and cost.

"Finding the right solution for a linear circuit often means sorting through many products and specifications," says Steve Sockolov, director of the Precision Signal Conditioning

Group at Analog Devices. "We offer innovative ways to help customers quickly find what they need."

The NI Multisim Component Evaluator—Analog Devices Edition provides engineers the ability to build simulatable circuits to evaluate a library of Analog Devices' operational amplifiers, switches, and voltage references. It also provides Spice-parser improvements, updated BSIMs (Berkeley Short-Channel IGFET Models), support for advanced parameters and enhanced digital-simulation accuracy, improved design communication with on-page connectors, and a new WYSIWYG net-naming system.

—by Paul Rako
▶ **Analog Devices,**
www.analog.com.
▶ **National Instruments,**
www.ni.com.

DILBERT By Scott Adams



Lighting platform brings building-block approach to LED lighting

Some companies are chasing after the retrofit market of LEDs that fit into incandescent lighting systems, but Tyco Electronics instead targets the next generation of LED-lighting systems, designing them from the ground up to exploit the advantages of solid-state lighting. With its new Nevalo lighting system, Tyco is betting that a modular

approach will prove to be the winning one.

By concentrating on new lighting wins, the Nevalo system need not fit into current form factors of light bulbs, luminaires, or tubes and instead introduces a building-block approach to lighting design. The Nevalo platform includes light modules, drivers, optics, wiring systems, and software tools to evaluate thermal management and price and performance budgeting.

The Nevalo system includes more

than 60 LED-light modules ranging from 300 to 3400 lumens in form factors for common lighting applications; optics in total internal reflection and reflector styles; drivers with constant-current output, dimming-control capabilities, and temperature monitoring; and a new ribbon-based, four-wire wiring-configuration system keyed and color-coded for ease of manufacturing. The system includes circuit-protection devices and heat sinks that match the LED-light modules to help provide appropriate ther-



(a) Track light fixture

mal management and life expectancy. The LED-light-module subsystem comprises a PCB (printed-circuit board), including LEDs, thermal-interface material, a socket for circular applications, and matching optics. By mixing and matching the components, designers can create down lights, sconces, and track-lighting equivalents. Prices for system-development kits range from \$249 to \$399.

—by Margery Conner

► Nevalo, www.nevalo.com.



(b) The Nevalo lighting system for lighting applications such as track lights (a) offers modularized optics, LEDs, power management, and thermal units for solid-state lights (b).

Molybdenite provides advantages over silicon, graphene

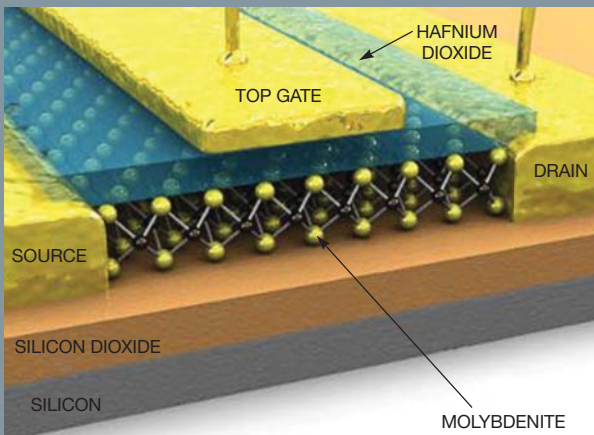
Researchers at Switzerland's EPFL (École Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne) are touting molybdenite, or MoS₂, for use in electronics (Reference 1). Using the material would enable manufacturers to develop smaller and more energy-efficient electronic chips. The mineral is abundant in nature, but no one

had previously studied it for use in electronics.

"It's a 2-D, very thin material and easy to use in nanotechnology," says Andras Kis, a professor at EPFL. "It has real potential in the fabrication of very small transistors, LEDs, and solar cells." Molybdenite is also less voluminous than silicon, a 3-D material. "In a 0.65-nm-thick sheet of molybdenite, the electrons can move around as easily as in a 2-nm-thick sheet of silicon," Kis says. "But it's not currently possible to fabricate a sheet of silicon as thin as a monolayer sheet of molybdenite."

Researchers also claim that molybdenite can yield transistors that consume 100,000 times less energy in a standby state than traditional silicon transistors. Manufacturers must use a semiconductor with a gap to turn a transistor on and off, and molybdenite's 1.8-eV (electron-volt) gap is ideal for this purpose. This gap also gives it an advantage over graphene, which lacks this gap. —by Suzanne Deffree

► École Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne, www.epfl.ch.



Manufacturers can use molybdenite to create an ultra-low-power FET by acting as its channel on a silicon-on-insulator substrate.

REFERENCE

1 Radisavljevic, B, et al, "Single-layer MoS₂ transistors," *Nature Nanotechnology*, January 2011, <http://bit.ly/iH8lrR>.

03.03.11

Processor touts 3G HSDPA, Android

Broadcom's new BCM2157 HSDPA (high-speed-downlink-packet-access) baseband processor integrates simultaneous 3G (third-generation) HSDPA connectivity at downstream

media technology and video applications with resolution as fine as 432x320-pixel HVGA (half-size video-graphics array), a 5M-pixel camera, and the ability to encode and decode H.264 video at 30 frames/sec.



The BCM2157 integrates a baseband processor for 3G HSDPA cellular communications with an application processor for low-cost Android smartphones.

rates as fast as 7.2 Mbps with advanced smartphone features for mass-market mobile handsets. The BCM2157 modem also supports WCDMA (wide-band-code-division-multiple-access) and EDGE (enhanced

Broadcom manufactures the BCM2157 in a low-power, 65-nm CMOS process. Support for mobile-hot-spot functions enables handsets to share a 3G connection with as many as eight simultaneous devices or users through Wi-Fi. Two SDIO (secure-digital-input/output) ports provide for connections to off-chip wireless-LAN transceivers and SD (secure-digital) MMC (multimedia cards).

The device also provides a USB (Universal Serial Bus) 2.0 port, along with audio amplifiers for driving 100-mW headsets, dual digital microphones, and a built-in five-band audio equalizer. The audio DSP supports Broadcom's M-Stream technology with the GSM (global-system-for-mobile)-communications SAIC (single-antenna-interference-canceling) stan-

dard. An on-chip PWM (pulse-width modulator) drives a vibrator to notify users of received calls.

The BCM2157 modem supports 3G dual SIM (subscriber-identification-module)/dual-standby technology and AMR-WB (adaptive multirate wide-band) for HD (high-definition) voice calls over 3G networks. Dual-SIM is not in the Android standard, but it is a growing requirement in parts of the world that lack number portability. With two SIM cards, subscribers can migrate between carriers and receive calls on different numbers.

The BCM2157 supports Android version 2.2 Froyo but not the Adobe Flash-player 10.1 feature of that version of Google's operating system, which requires more advanced processors. The device also integrates Broadcom's proprietary InConcert technology, which supports interoperability of devices in the 2.4-GHz frequency range, coordinat-

ing transmissions to optimize throughput in Bluetooth, Wi-Fi, GPS (global-positioning-system), and NFC (near-field-communications) applications. Digital-audio ports include I²S (inter-integrated-circuit sound) and PCM (pulse-code modulation), with a UART (universal asynchronous receiver/transmitter) to interface to transceivers for Bluetooth earpieces or FM-band radios. A BSC (Broadcom serial-control) bus connects to an off-chip PMU (power-management unit).

The BCM2157 platform employs technology from the earlier dual-core BCM2153 architecture, which targets Symbian (www.symbian.com) and Windows Mobile operating systems and finds use in Samsung's (www.samsung.com) bada handsets.

The device is now available for sampling to early-access customers, and the company plans its first commercial launch for this quarter.

—by Mike Demler

► **Broadcom**, www.broadcom.com.

 Support for mobile-hot-spot functions enables handsets to share a 3G connection with eight devices.

data rates for global-system-for-mobile-communications-evolution) networks.

The dual-core device employs a dedicated, 500-MHz ARM11 processor to support multitouch, advanced multi-

MICREL INTRODUCES POL BUCK REGULATORS

Micrel recently introduced the MIC26400, MIC26600, and MIC26950 POL (point-of-load) synchronous buck regulators, all of which feature digitally modified adaptive on-time-control architectures and operate over an input-supply range of 4.5 to 26V and an adjustable output voltage as low as 0.8V. The devices employ Micrel's Hyper Speed Control architecture, which allows for fast transient response, reduces output capacitance, and enables high-input-voltage and low-output-voltage operation. They also include undervoltage lockout to ensure proper operation under power-sag conditions, internal soft-start to reduce inrush current, foldback-current limit, "hiccup"-mode short-circuit protection, and thermal shutdown. Typical accuracy is ±1%, and the devices operate at a switching frequency of 300 kHz. Prices for the MIC26400, MIC26600, and MIC26950 start at \$1.82, \$2.20, and \$2.77 (1000), respectively.—by Paul Rako

► **Micrel**, www.micrel.com.

03.03.11



BY HOWARD JOHNSON, PhD

Field cancellation

Figures 1, 2, and 3 illustrate the pattern of magnetic fields surrounding one microstrip trace on a typical PCB (printed-circuit board). The trace appears in cross-sectional view as a small black rectangle. The line below the trace represents a solid plane layer within the board, which may contain other signal layers not shown. Current on the trace flows into the page in all three cases.

Figure 1 shows the pattern of magnetic lines of force resulting from the

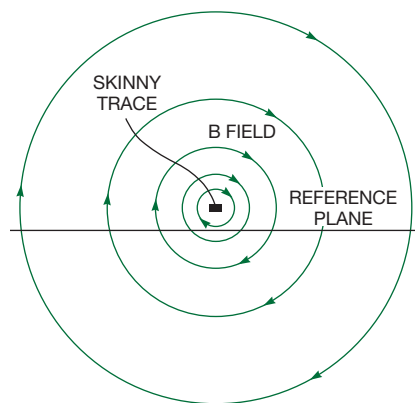


Figure 1 One current by itself creates magnetic fields in simple concentric patterns.

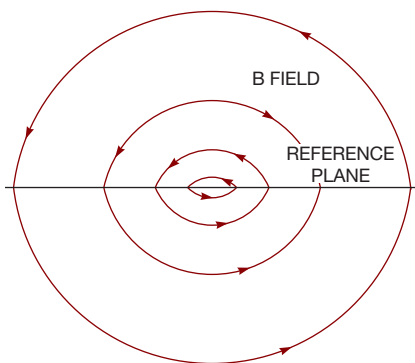


Figure 2 Current on the reference plane creates its own pattern of magnetic fields.

current on the trace, without considering current on the reference plane. This pattern of lines looks like a nested set of concentric circles. As you move to a distance r away from the trace, the field intensity falls off as $1/r$. An infinite straight wire suspended in free space generates this same familiar pattern.

In a singled-ended system, outgoing current on the trace stimulates an equal and opposite current returning to its source through the power and ground system. **Figure 2** depicts the magnetic field resulting from that current. At frequencies higher than approximately 1 MHz on a typical PCB, current returning to its source flows along the top surface of the solid reference plane, parallel to the outbound trace. The current

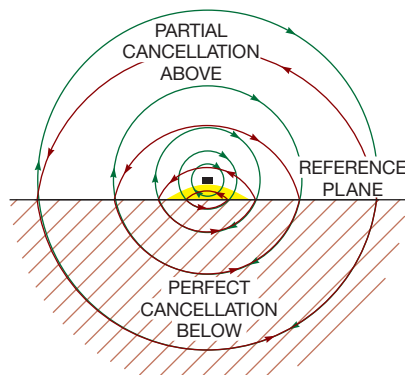


Figure 3 The two field patterns cancel perfectly in the region below the plane.

bunches strongly right underneath the signal trace, with a distribution that falls off rapidly as you move away from the trace on either side. The pattern of magnetic fields from this distribution makes football-like shapes. Where each line of force intercepts the solid plane, it “bends” in proportion to the profile of current flowing in the sheet at that location. These lines of force circulate in a direction opposite those in **Figure 1**.

When you superimpose the two patterns, the fields in the bottom half of the diagram cancel perfectly, assuming a reference plane of infinite extent and perfect conductivity (**Figure 3**). The field intensity above the trace does not cancel perfectly, but it substantially cancels, vastly reducing both crosstalk and EMI (electromagnetic interference) on that side. The field intensity increases only in the small yellow region directly under the trace, at which point it approximately doubles. The net benefit is fantastic. There is no simpler or more effective means of combating crosstalk and EMI than a solid reference plane.

I love the field-cancellation benefit, but who knew that fields do what they do so well? James Clerk Maxwell, in his seminal text, *A Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism*, published in 1891 by Clarendon Press, explains in volume two, article 654, that current flows in the solid reference plane in reaction to the current flowing in the trace. The reference-plane currents, called eddy currents, form in a pattern that neutralizes the component of the magnetic field normal to the reference plane. The solution in **Figure 3** attains that goal, perfectly canceling the vertical component of the magnetic field at the surface of the solid reference plane. Were some portion of the field to behave differently, it would set up eddy currents in the plane that would counteract the miscreant field, forcing it back into the shape shown in **Figure 3**. **EDN**

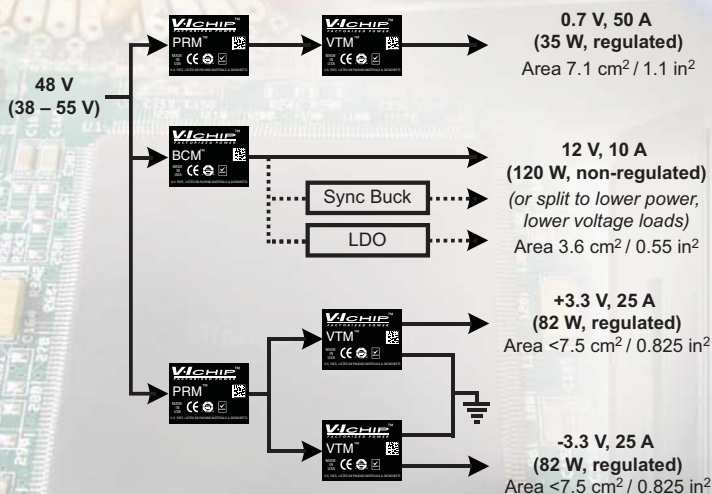
Howard Johnson, PhD, frequently conducts technical workshops for digital engineers. Visit his Web site at www.sigcon.com.

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Example Application



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PRM	48	5-55	4	200
VTM	48	12	10	135
		6	20	100
		4	25	115
		2	40	88.5
		1.5	50	80



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BY PALLAB CHATTERJEE, CONTRIBUTING TECHNICAL EDITOR

New devices for nanoelectronics

Nanoelectronics holds the promise of advanced capabilities for computing, RF and communications, and memories. One of the challenges in exploiting these capabilities is being able to manufacture, model, and test these devices. Manufacturers are creating these new devices not only in smaller versions of traditional devices, as in the standard semiconductor industry for CMOS, but also in new device construction and device materials.

Many of these devices use graphene as a key material in gates, epitaxial layers, and interconnects. The challenge with using graphene as a switch or a transistor material is that it lacks the bandgap that normally occurs in CMOS processes. As a result, manufacturers have created new structures, such as doped “dual”-gate devices. These devices provide the high-performance transporting and conduction aspects of the graphene and still allow for use in common-architecture circuit design. Manufacturers construct the dual-gate devices both vertically with a top gate and a back gate beneath the graphene layer or laterally with adjacent gates. The manufacturers can fabricate these devices with modifications of standard CMOS processes (**Figure 1**). These devices offer performance well beyond that of standard CMOS devices; experimental data from IBM (www.ibm.com) shows a typical device frequency as high as 170 GHz.

Carbon nanotubes are also making headway in circuits, finding use both in high-performance conduction channels as enhancements to standard CMOS and in interconnect. Vias and contacts use the nanotubes for interconnect to provide

low-resistance, high-current pathways. Vendors form the contacts and vias using an alloy of titanium/lead/gold/carbon nanotubes.

For communications, the high speed available in nanotechnology is driving advancement in optical interconnect and devices. Recent advances in zinc-oxide-silicon radial heterojunctions have produced nanorods and nanopillars that exhibit dramatic improvements over standard photodetectors. The increased vertical sur-

face area for the vertical nanorod demonstrates a high gain in photoconductivity due to the enhanced surface electron-hole separation. This gain leads to an approximately 2.5-times-higher responsivity to ultraviolet light over a planar structure of the same thickness.

On the memory side, a number of new technologies are in progress. These nanotechnology memories include PCM (phase-change memory), RRAM (resistive random-access memory), MTJ (magnetic-tunnel junction), MRAM (magnetoresistive random-access memory), STT (spin-transfer-torque), MQCA (magnetic-quantum cellular automata), and traditional flash devices. All of these nonvolatile memory technologies are working on retention and low-power read and write access with error-correction schemes. These characteristics, including the ability to read, program, and rewrite the state of cell at high density, are driving the new memory investigations. These technologies all focus on manipulation of magnetic or material properties of the storage cell. With nanomanufacturing, these cells are now small enough to manipulate and large enough to let you know whether programming has occurred.

These technologies are trying to surpass the density and power of the NAND-flash cell. The cell size for NAND flash, now down to 0.0028 square microns for a 25-nm process, is having scaling issues because the cell stores so few electrons as a delta between states. As a result, there will soon be no measurable difference in the states. The scaling has progressed to the point at which, on a 25-nm process, a 5% variation in cell delta, due to line edge roughness, is approximately three silicon lattices. The current state of NAND-flash technology is 64-Gbit MLC (multilevel-cell) design. **EDN**

Pallab Chatterjee is on the IEEE Nanotechnology Council.

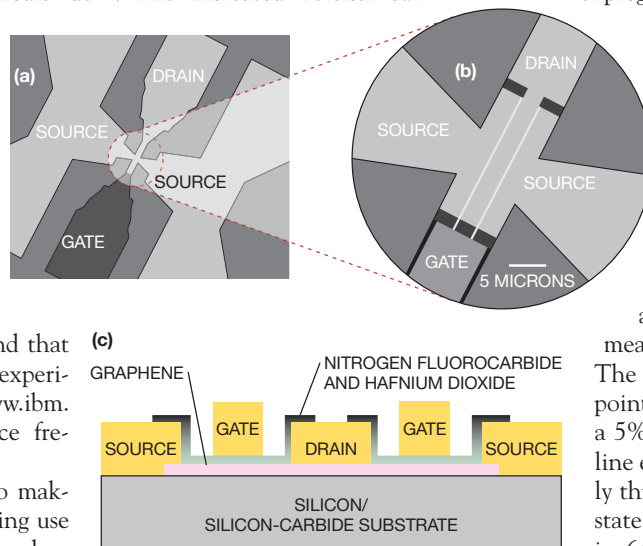
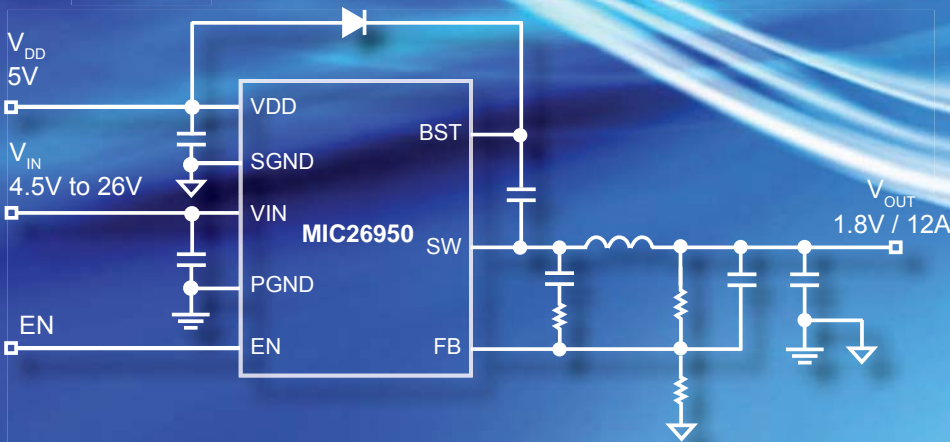


Figure 1 Dual-gate devices are available both vertically and laterally (a and b). A top-gated FET (c) employs graphene (courtesy IBM).

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BY DON LAFONTAINE • INTERSIL

System engineers require accurate models for all types of ICs, and they require Spice models to run comprehensive circuit simulations. Early Spice models had few nonlinear elements, minimizing simulation time at the cost of accuracy, but new methods let you increase the number of nonlinear elements and improve accuracy. You can create a multistage model for low-noise, low-power operational amplifiers. The model employs work from Analog Devices (**Reference 1**) and requires several architectural changes to model a low-noise, low-power precision amplifier. The model architecture processes the input signal through eight stages. You can easily calculate the parameters for the eight stages with a handheld calculator. To understand the model creation, you must have experience using Spice.

Although higher-speed amplifiers have multiple poles and zeros, this model is for a single-pole, 10-MHz amplifier. It lets you simulate the amplifier's key ac and dc parameters. The model includes ac parameters for flicker and flatband noise, slew rate, CMRR (common-mode rejection ratio), gain, and phase. The model's dc parameters are V_{OS} (input offset voltage), I_{OS} (input offset current), quiescent supply current, and output-voltage swing. The model uses the 25°C typical parameters (**Reference 2**).

The closer you model the input stage to the actual amplifier, the more accurate your results will be. You can achieve an accurate ac representation of the am-



plifier's performance using a few of the process parameters of the input-stage transistors or MOSFETs. This model's architecture lets you model amplifiers with split supplies. There is no ground reference in any of the signal-processing blocks. After the differential-to-single-ended conversion, all internally generated node voltages are referenced to the midpoint of the power supplies, much like the actual operation of an amplifier.

EIGHT CASCADED STAGES

You build the model's circuit schematic with eight functional blocks (**Figure 1**). The only circuitry resembling an amplifier is the input stage (see **Listing 1**, which is available in the Web version of this article at www.edn.com/110303df). All other stages process the input signal with voltage-controlled current sources or voltage-controlled voltage sources. The stages might also include diodes, dc supplies, resistors, capacitors, and inductors.

The voltage-noise stage generates the flicker and flatband noise. To

AT A GLANCE

- Model your op amps with detailed transistor-level input stages.
- Set model parameters to replicate the low noise of your amplifier.
- Properly characterize the supply-current usage to get an accurate model.
- A procedure helps you set values in the eight stages of the model.
- Correlate your simulations with real-world results.

generate a flatband noise with only $4 \text{ nV}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$, set all diodes' and transistors' model parameters, *kf* and *af*, to zero and one, respectively. To lower the model's noise floor to single-digit nanovolts, it may be necessary to reduce the model's Johnson noise (**Reference 3**) by reducing the resistance values where possible.

Before reducing the resistor values, you calculate the standard resistor values and complete all the simula-

tion tweaks. You then tweak the voltage-noise stage by reducing the resistor values to 1Ω and recalculating the transconductance and time constants of the stages to maintain the same transfer function. You can usually set resistors R_5 , R_6 , R_9 , R_{10} , R_{11} , and R_{12} to 1Ω . You need not reduce the Johnson noise if the amplifier you are modeling has hundreds of nanovolts of input noise. The initial noise simulations will tell you whether this step is necessary. Once you set the model's flatband noise below the amplifier's noise floor, you can change the flicker and flatband noise by adjusting D_N , R_{17} , and V_5 .

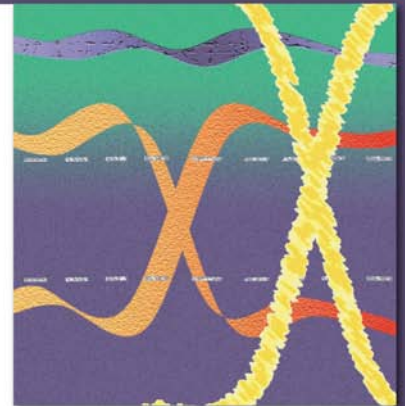
The input stage of the selected op amp comprises five bipolar transistors that model the actual IC configuration. For op amps with NMOS or PMOS stages, see **sidebar** "Typical input stages" in the Web version of this article at www.edn.com/110303df. The input stage includes a current supply to model I_{OS} , a voltage supply to model V_{OS} , and a voltage-controlled voltage source. R_1 and R_2 account for the CMRR of the device.

The first gain stage sets the combined

Circuits EMC Layout Noise SSO Jitter Ringing RLGC Probes Thermal Power Stripline Crosstalk Routing Grounding



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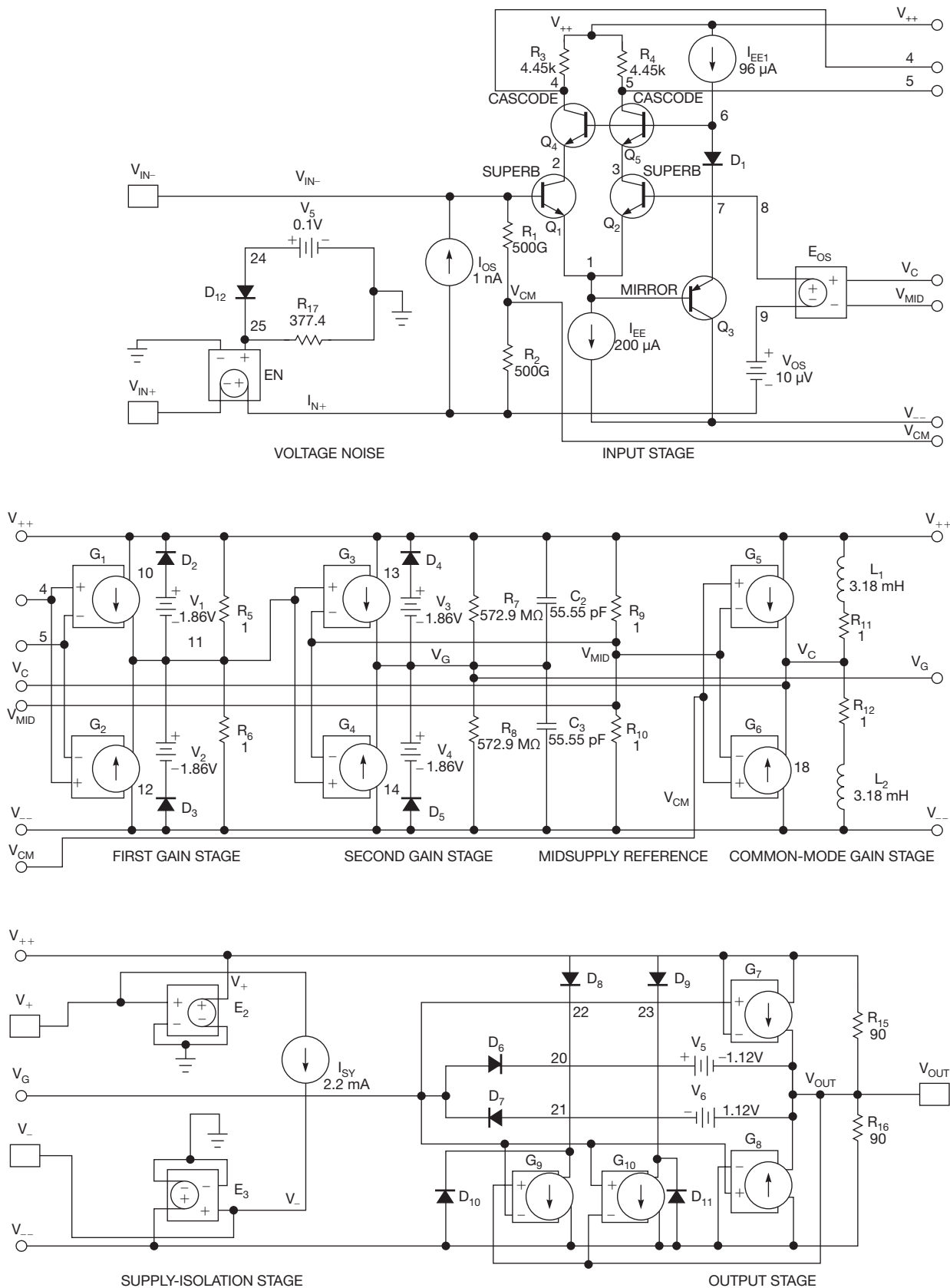


Figure 1 This Spice model has eight stages.

gain of the input stage and the first gain stage to one, simplifying your calculation to determine the slew-rate-limiting components in the second gain stage. Diodes D_2 through D_5 and V_1 through V_4 clamp the output-voltage swing. Increasing the values of V_1 through V_4 will result in decreasing the maximum output-voltage swing. The maximum output-voltage swing, V_{OH} , is controlled by adjusting V_1 and V_3 , and the minimum output-voltage swing, V_{OL} , is controlled by V_2 and V_4 . Voltage limiting must take place in the open-loop gain stage; otherwise, succeeding nodes could attempt to simulate the generation of huge (hundreds of kilovolts) signals.

In the second gain stage, you set the open-loop voltage gain, bandwidth, and slew rate of the amplifier by adjusting transconductance blocks G_3 and G_4 and components R_7 , R_8 , C_2 , and C_3 .

The midsupply reference stage comprises two equal-value resistors, R_9 and R_{10} . You use these resistors to generate a midsupply reference voltage. You set the resistor values to 1Ω to reduce the Johnson voltage noise of the model. The high current that flows through these resistors does not appear in the simulation results because of the supply-isolation stage.

The common-mode gain stage comprises two voltage-controlled current sources that drive two equal-value resistors in series with an inductor that connects to the supply rails (see sidebar "How the voltage-controlled-current-source stage works" in the Web version of this article at www.edn.com/110303df). The inductors simulate the fall-off of CMRR at higher input frequencies. You control the current sources with the input-common-mode voltage relative to the midsupply voltage. You generate the common-mode voltage with resistors R_1 and R_2 in the input stage. You set the transconductance of each source based on the reciprocal of the associated resistor value divided by the CMRR of the amplifier at dc. The inductors add a Z-plane zero to the common-mode gain, which is equivalent to adding a pole to the CMRR. After you scale and frequency-shape the common-mode voltage, you add it back into the input stage with a voltage-controlled voltage source, E_{OS} .

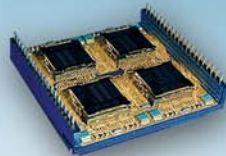
The supply-isolation stage comprises two voltage-controlled voltage sources

and a current source. This stage enables you to program the total supply current of the amplifier with one entry in the node list. It also isolates the internal supply currents from the external supply current that the simulator sees, enabling the model to provide the correct quiescent supply current for low-power amplifiers with low voltage noise. The design trade-off is disabling the output-supply-current circuitry. By disabling this circuitry, the model does

not account for the load current.

The output-stage operation is not obvious. After receiving appropriate frequency shaping, the amplifier's output signal appears as a voltage referenced to the midsupply at the inputs to G_7 and G_8 . Transconductance blocks G_7 and G_8 drive two equal-value resistors that connect to the supply rails. They act as active current generators. Both G_7 and G_8 generate just enough current to provide the desired voltage drop

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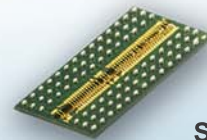
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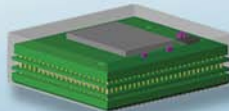


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TABLE 1 OP-AMP SPECS

Parameter	Value	Comments
Quiescent supply current	0.0022A	
V _{CC}	15V	
V _{EE}	-15V	
I _{EE}	200 μA	Differential input-current source, or tail current
Slew rate	3.6×10 ⁶ V/sec	
F _{P1}	5 Hz	Dominant pole from Figure 3
A _{VOL}	264,000V/V	128.43 dB
V _{OS}	1×10 ⁻⁵ V	
I _{OS}	1×10 ⁻⁹ A	
Temperature	25°C	
V _T	0.0257V	
CMRR	3.16×10 ⁷ V/V	150 dB
F _{CM}	50 Hz	Common-mode pole
R _{OUT}	45Ω	
I _{SC}	45 mA	
V _{OH}	13.7V	Maximum output voltage
V _{OL}	-13.7V	Minimum output voltage

across its parallel resistor (Figure 2).

By simulating the right output resistance, you reduce the dc open-loop gain at the amplifier load. You model output short-circuit protection with diodes D₆ and D₇, along with dc supplies V₅ and V₆. Under fault conditions, the output voltage clamps to the previous frequency-shaping stage. You set the

output short-circuit-current limit by adjusting the values of V₅ and V₆.

CALCULATE PARAMETERS

To calculate the Spice model's parameters, you need various specifications from the op amp's data sheet and IC-design information (Table 1). Putting the following equations into an Excel spreadsheet will enable you to change critical specs and quickly see the effect on the op amp's performance. You enter E_{OS} and I_{OS} from the data sheet directly into the model. You can often get the input-differential-capacitance spec, if your model requires it, from the data sheet. You determine the values of C₂ and C₃ by relating the input differential-pair tail current, I_{EE}, to the amplifier's slew rate. This step establishes the maximum frequency for the single-pole RC network and sets the unity-gain bandwidth. Amplifier data sheets rarely state I_{EE}, so you must get this value from the IC designer. For the amplifier of Reference 2, the equation works out to 55.55 pF:

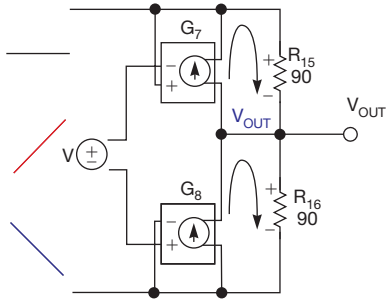


Figure 2 A voltage-controlled voltage source's output stage has three modes of operation. When the input voltage is constant, the voltage drop across the resistors causes them to equally oppose each other. When the input voltage rises, the current in R₁₅ decreases, the current in R₁₆ increases, and the midpoint voltage increases. When the input voltage decreases, the current in R₁₅ increases, the current in R₁₆ decreases, and the midpoint voltage decreases.

$$C_2=C_3=\frac{I_{EE}}{\text{SLEW RATE}};$$

$$C_2=C_3=\frac{200 \times 10^{-6}}{3.6 \times 10^6}=55.55 \text{ pF.}$$

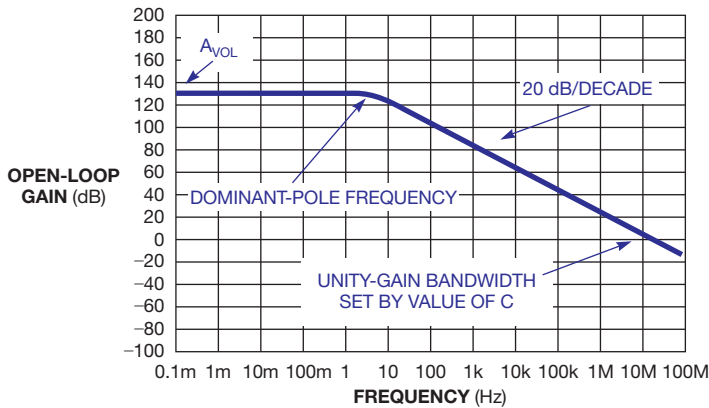


Figure 3 You use the A_{VOL} -versus-frequency chart in the IC's data sheet to determine the dominant-pole frequency.

You then determine the values of R_7 and R_8 by applying the dominant-pole frequency equation. This equation sets the breakpoint for the RC network. You observe f_{p1} , the dominant-pole frequency, by inspecting the open-loop gain chart in the amplifier's data sheet (**Figure 3**). The amplifier of **Reference 2** yields a value of 573 M Ω :

$$R_7=R_8=\frac{1}{2\pi f_{p1} C_{2/3}};$$

$$R_7=R_8=\frac{1}{2\pi (5)(55.55 \text{ pF})}=572.958\times 10^6.$$

You use the A_{VOL} from the data sheet and the resistance value $R_{7/8}$ to determine the transconductance of the voltage-controlled current source:

$$G_3=G_4=\frac{A_{VOL}}{R_{7/8}};$$

$$G_3=G_4=\frac{2.64\times 10^6}{572.958\times 10^6}=4.6\times 10^{-3}.$$

For the amplifier of **Reference 2**, the transconductance blocks solve to 0.0046. The model uses the first gain stage to set the combined gain of the input stage and the first gain stage to one. You can now calculate the voltage at the input of G_3 and G_4 to cause 200×10^{-6} , the tail current, to flow through R_7 and R_8 :

$$g_m=\frac{I}{V}\rightarrow V_{G3/G4}=\frac{I}{g_m}=\frac{200\times 10^{-6}}{4.6\times 10^{-3}}=43.4\times 10^{-3}.$$

During slew-rate limit, the 200×10^{-6} current sink clamps the current through resistor R_3 or R_4 . With positive input voltage, R_4 carries the current. Negative input means that the current will pass through R_3 . This current flows through the 4.45-k Ω resistor, resulting in a voltage drop of 0.89V. This voltage drop appears at the input to G_1 and G_2 . To set the combined gain of the input stage and the first stage to one, you must calculate the transconductance of G_1 and G_2 so that their output voltage equals 0.0434V when 0.89V is at their inputs. If you set the resistor value in parallel with the outputs of G_1 and G_2 to 1 Ω , the voltage will equal the current, and you can solve for the transconductance of G_1 and G_2 :

$$G_1=G_2\rightarrow g_m=\frac{I}{V}=\frac{43.4\times 10^{-3}}{890\times 10^{-3}}=48.77\times 10^{-3}.$$

If the design-review document is unavailable, set R_3 and R_4 to 1 Ω for the calculation of the voltage appearing at the inputs to G_1 and G_2 . If you can get the collector currents from the IC designer, you can enter them directly into the model:

$$R_3=R_4=4.45 \text{ k}\Omega.$$

You set $V_{1/3}$ and $V_{2/4}$ voltages for the maximum output-voltage swing:

$$V_{1/3}=V_{CC}-(V_{OUTMAX})+V_T \ln\left(\frac{2I_{EE}}{I_S}\right);$$

$$V_{2/4}=(-V_{OUTMAX})-V_{EE}+V_T \ln\left(\frac{2I_{EE}}{I_S}\right),$$



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where $V_T=0.02585V$ at $T=25^\circ C$ and $I_S=1\times 10^{-12}A$ for both diodes. The model clamps the output voltage at a value equal to $V_{CC}+V_{D2/4}-V_{1/3}$ for positive input-voltage swings and $-V_{EE}-V_{2/4}+V_{D3/5}$ for negative input-voltage swings. For noise considerations, select a 1Ω value for R_{11} and R_{12} :

$$R_{11}=R_{12}=1\Omega.$$

Calculate the values for G_7 and G_8 :

$$G_7=G_8=\frac{1}{R_{11/12}\times CMRR}.$$

By inspecting the CMRR-over-frequency chart in the data sheet, you can estimate the common-mode pole frequency, f_{PCM} . This frequency lets you solve for the inductor values:

$$L_1=L_2=\frac{R_{11/12}}{2\pi f_{PCM}}.$$

You set the output-stage transconductance equal to the reciprocal of $2R_{OUT}$:

$$G_7=G_8=G_9=G_{10}=\frac{1}{2R_{OUT}}.$$

This step results in unity gain through G_7 , G_8 , G_9 , and G_{10} . You establish the output resistors as $2R_{OUT}$ to account for the fact that the output current must appear to be coming from one supply rail:

$$R_{15}=R_{16}=2\times R_{OUT}.$$

You can solve now for V_5 :

$$V_5=I_{SC}R_{OUT}-V_{D6}.$$

You create the absolute value of V_6 by taking the absolute value of the first term:

$$V_6=|I_{SC}R_{OUT}|-V_{D7}.$$

SIMULATION RESULTS

Once you calculate all the model parameters, you can run the simulation. The simulations correlate well to the device's specified performance from the data sheet (figures 4 through 9). The IC's data sheet provides more comparisons of simulations to real-world results. Modern computing pow-

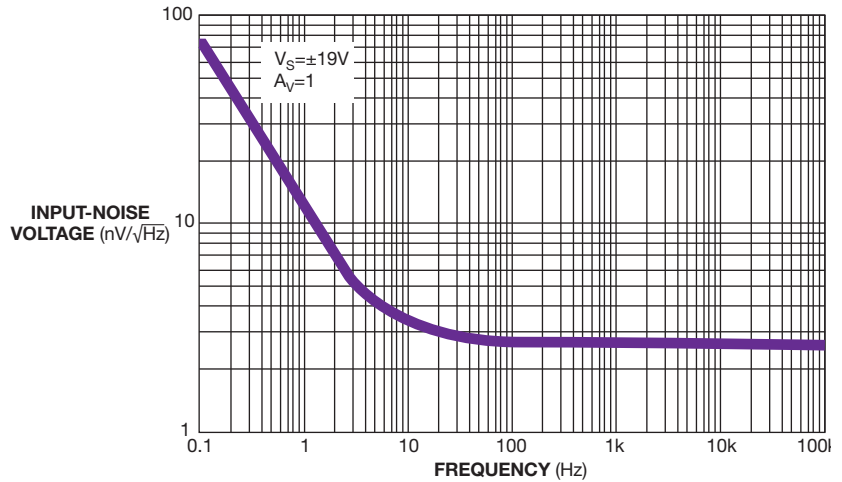


Figure 4 The measured input voltage noise spectral density has a flicker-noise corner and a 2.44 nV/√Hz flatband noise.

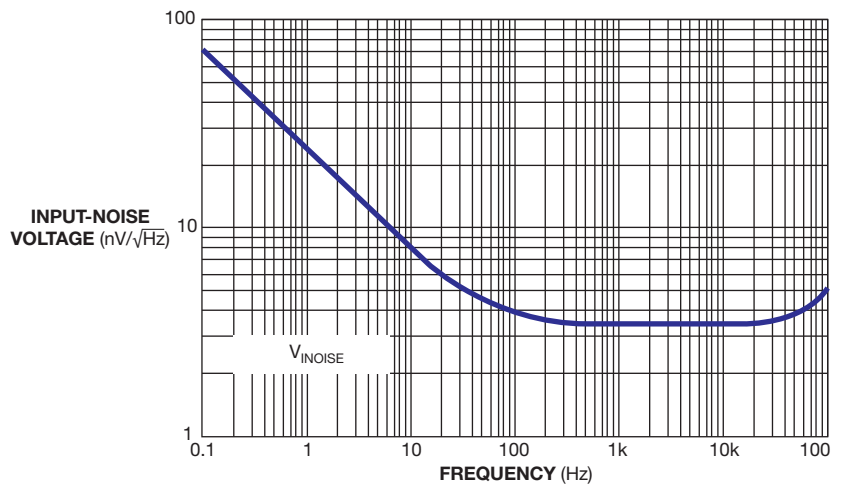


Figure 5 The simulated input voltage noise closely matches the flicker noise. The flatband noise is higher at 4 nV/√Hz.

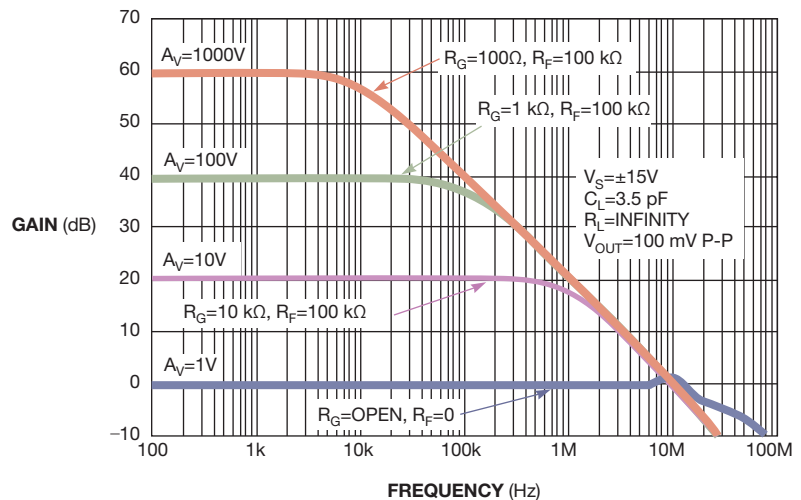


Figure 6 The measured closed-loop gain conforms to a single dominant-pole response except when R_F is 0 Hz.



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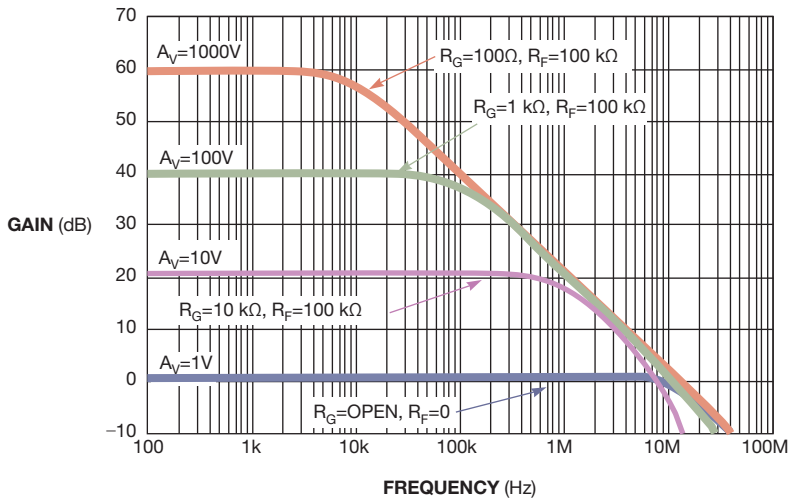


Figure 7 The simulation results closely conform except when A_V is 10V.

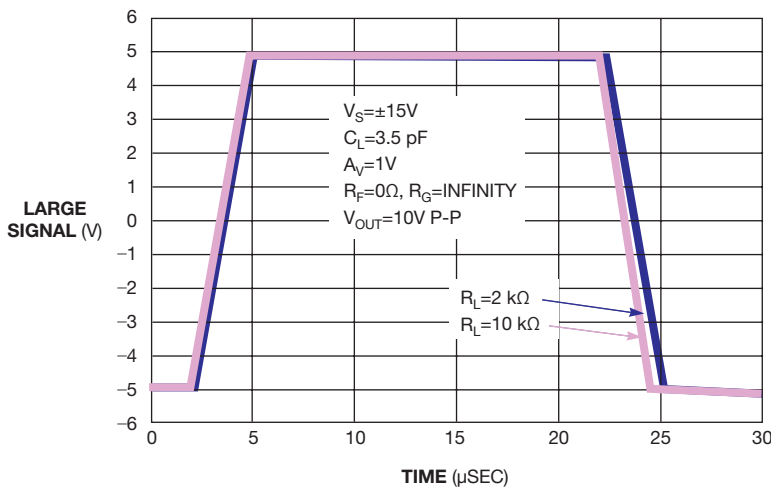


Figure 8 This measured large-signal response comes from the IC's data sheet.

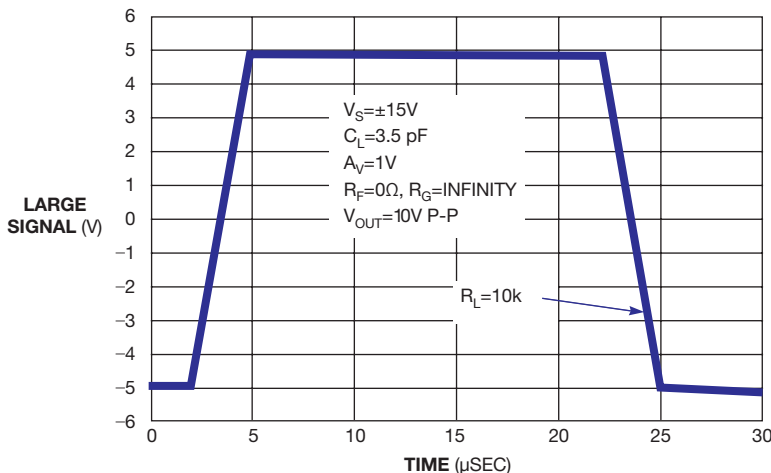


Figure 9 The simulated large-signal response is nearly identical to the measured results.

er quickly solves a model with five bipolar transistors in the input section. These transistors each have specific model parameters. Using this approach yields simulation results close to those of measurements of the part. In addition,

ALONG WITH THE ABILITY TO MODEL LOW SUPPLY CURRENTS, THIS PROCEDURE IS IDEAL FOR MODERN LOW-NOISE, MICROPPOWERED AMPLIFIERS.

tion, this procedure allows you to model single-digit nanovolt noise parameters. Along with the ability to model low supply currents, this procedure is ideal for modern low-noise, micropowered amplifiers. **EDN**

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AUTHOR'S BIOGRAPHY



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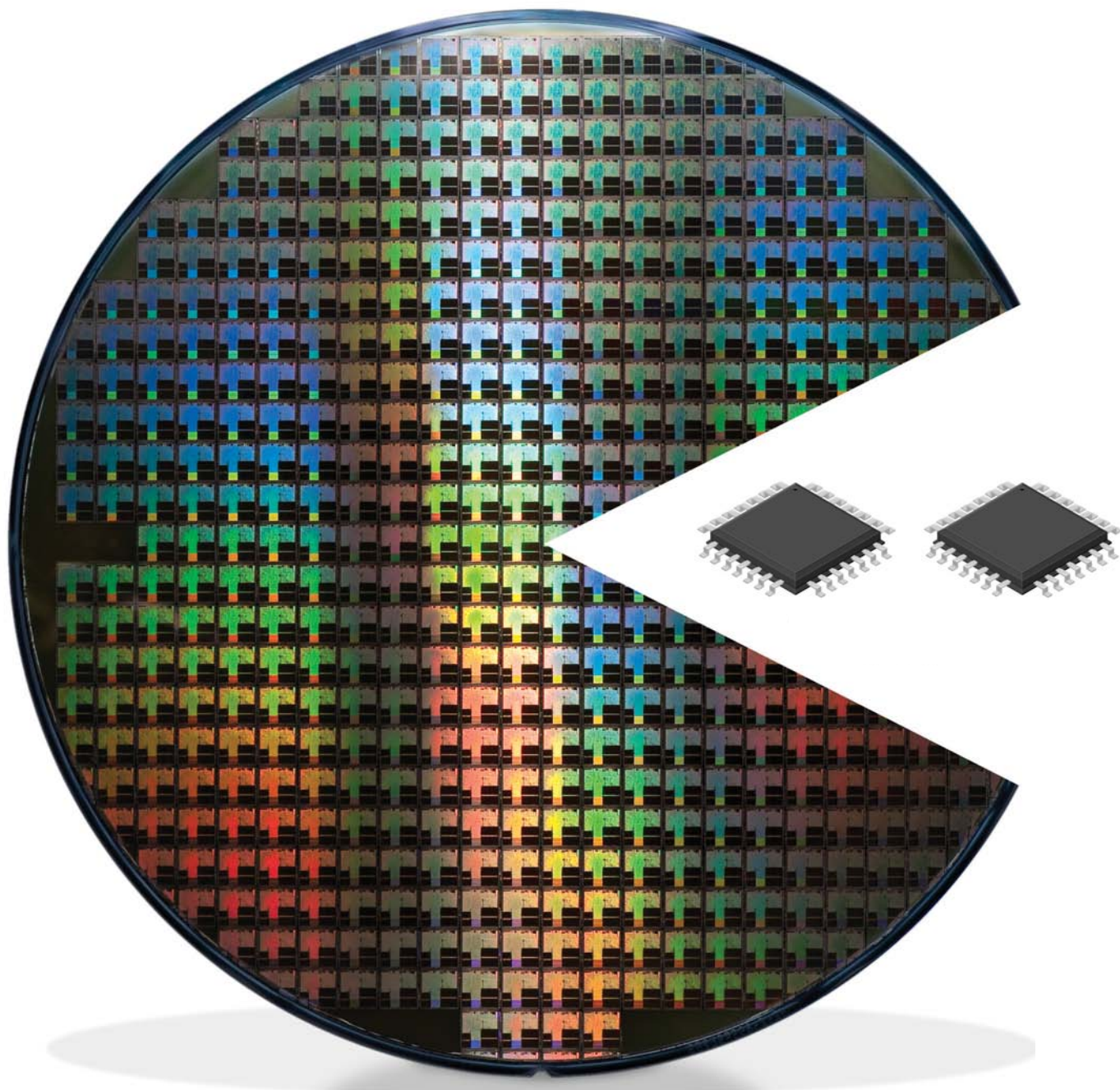


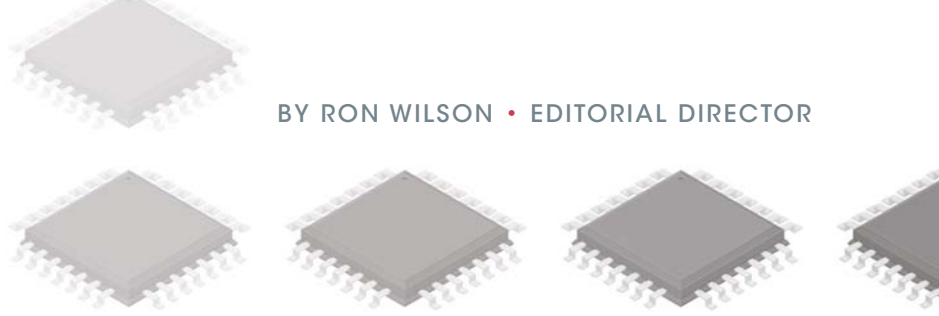
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CPU_s IN FPGAs: MANY FACES TO A TREND

WHETHER AS SYNTHESIZABLE SOFT CORES OR HARD CORES ON THE DIE, CPUs ARE SHOWING UP IN MORE FPGA DESIGNS, BRINGING WITH THEM IMPORTANT CHALLENGES FOR DESIGNERS.

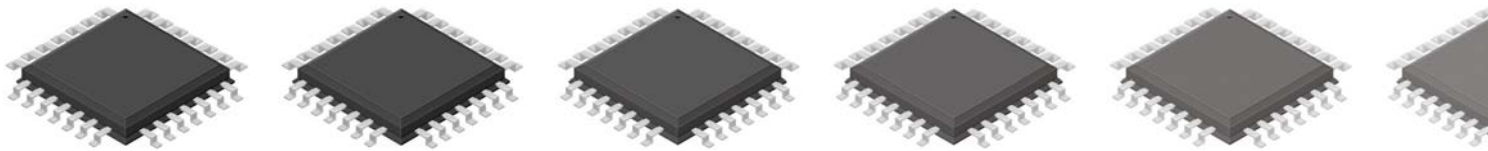




CPU cores in FPGAs have a history reaching back to the early years of the FPGA's existence and a future extending far into the realms of microcontrollers and ASSPs (application-specific standard products). We are now at an inflection point in that trajectory, facing manifold options. CPU cores may be soft—synthesizable cores that go into the FPGA's programmable logic—or hard—cell-based blocks that the FPGA vendor builds directly onto the die. The CPU architecture may be industry-standard, proprietary to the FPGA vendor, or unique. Processing capability spans tiny 8-bit microcontroller cores and 32-bit CPU clusters with DSP extensions. All this diversity conceals profound differences in implementation flow, in system performance, and in debugging access, all of which demand exploration.

more ports, allowing different pipeline stages to initiate address calculations, do scalar arithmetic, and save results, all in the same cycle. The only options for implementing general registers in an FPGA, however, are the inherently single-port LUTs (look-up tables) in the logic cells or the block RAMs. Either option requires a wrapper of logic cells to emulate large-scale multiport access. The result, once you synthesize it into an FPGA, may be functionally correct, but either it significantly lowers the CPU's maximum frequency or the designer must significantly reorganize the execution pipeline.

Critical paths in general present problems for the FPGA adaptation of



EXPLAINING DIFFERENCES

To understand the current nature of CPUs in FPGAs, it helps to have a little perspective. Early FPGAs, confined by their limited capacity, lived beside a microprocessor or a microcontroller, implementing glue logic or, more grandly, a bus bridge. With Moore's Law and human nature on the march, however, FPGAs grew. Users began to dream of implementing their own CPU designs—every digital designers' Holy Grail—in FPGAs.

Early attempts had modest goals: 4-bit microcontrollers, for example. Even in these low-gate-count undertakings, however, designers began to discover issues about implementing

a CPU core in programmable fabric.

Some issues are structural. Implementers of discrete CPU cores have available a mixture of standard-cell and full-custom techniques. These riches allow architects to use structures that give them the best performance for the power and area, knowing that the implementation team has the tools to do its part of the job. Those structures may not make any sense in an FPGA fabric, however. For instance, FPGAs and shared tristate buses do not get along well together. Another example would be the fast—often single-cycle—multiport register files at the heart of CPU design. In advanced architectures, the general-register files may have eight or

a CPU. A designer of silicon cores can simply minimize the number of negative-slack paths and then throw at them a whole battery of tricks: low-threshold cells, high-drive cells, custom cells, and hand placement and routing. None of these techniques is readily available to the typical FPGA user.

As FPGA users began to lust after more substantial cores, such as the elegant ColdFire or the ubiquitous ARM7, implementation realities limited the attractiveness of the whole idea. Many designers began to believe that CPU cores in FPGAs were big, slow, power-hungry, and generally not worth the trouble.

Engineers don't stay frustrated for long, though. About 10 years ago, de-

signers at Altera concluded that they could design a CPU core from a clean sheet of paper for an FPGA implementation—omitting features or structures that didn't fit into the FPGA's way of doing things—and come up with reasonable specifications for most applications. The result, confirming their optimism, was the Altera Nios core. Other vendors, including Xilinx with the MicroBlaze, joined. Both FPGA-vendor applications teams and third-party designers added their hands to the task, adapting industry-standard cores from ARM, MIPS, and other sources.

WHAT IS THE POINT?

At this stage, you might wonder whether there is a practical need behind all this activity. If you want a simple, slow CPU, you can buy an off-the-shelf microcontroller chip for less than \$1. So why bother putting a core into an expensive FPGA? The answers to that question are revealing.

“Nios cores go into about 30% of the devices we ship,” says Chris Balough, Altera's senior director of software, em-

AT A GLANCE

- ▣ Both hard and soft CPU cores are available to FPGA users.
- ▣ CPU cores can serve a range of purposes in an FPGA design.
- ▣ The vendor's view of the purpose has influenced tools and support for individual cores.
- ▣ Verification and software debugging for designs with embedded cores are not trivial issues.

bedded, and DSP marketing. “The customers who use Nios have pulled the architecture in many directions.” Those words form a bit of an understatement.

“Most often, customers use Nios as a system controller,” says Nirmal Kari, embedded-product marketing manager at Altera. “After that use, the most common applications are as a coprocessor, in multiprocessor clusters, or as a DSP core. Then, some users will implement state machines using a core.” The wide variety of Nios applications has led to an ac-

cumulation of both supporting hardware blocks and core implementations (Figure 1). Economy-level and high-speed variants of Nios are now available, as are a custom instruction generator, a memory manager, and a Linux port.

Users' motives are equally diverse. The justification is sometimes a complex analysis of total cost of ownership, showing that avoiding an external, single-sourced microprocessor or microcontroller over the life of the product will save money. The justification is sometimes technical, as when the pinout to interface the FPGA to an external processor is unavailable. At other times, the decision is obvious, as when a task changes from time to time or is slow enough to do in software and the necessary space in the FPGA is going unused.

Xilinx's MicroBlaze has evolved along a similar path but perhaps with a different emphasis. “Much of the use of MicroBlaze is to implement state machines,” says Vidya Rajagopalan, Xilinx's vice president for processing products. “Ironically, the bigger the FPGA, the smaller the CPU cores people seem to put into it.”

This trend has not kept MicroBlaze from feature expansion. MicroBlaze has a memory-management unit, memory-protection hardware, and single-precision floating-point hardware, as well as the obligatory Linux port, according to Navanee Sundaramoorthy, Xilinx's manager for embedded-platform marketing. The two seemingly contradictory points of view may reflect Xilinx's increasing focus on its EPP (Extensible Processing Platform), an FPGA with a hard ARM Cortex A9 microcomputer cluster. The company's positioning anoints EPP as the correct approach to application processing in FPGAs and focuses MicroBlaze on more deeply embedded uses, such as sequencing and control of other blocks within the fabric. Altera, in contrast, has not yet fully disclosed its coming hard-core products and still recognizes Nios as spanning the range from Linux-based application processing to state machines.

Microsemi, now owner of Actel, has a different orientation: providing microcontroller alternatives, according to senior product-development manager Tim Morin. Consequently, Morin focuses on the company's SmartFusion chips with their hard Cortex M3 CPUs. The prod-

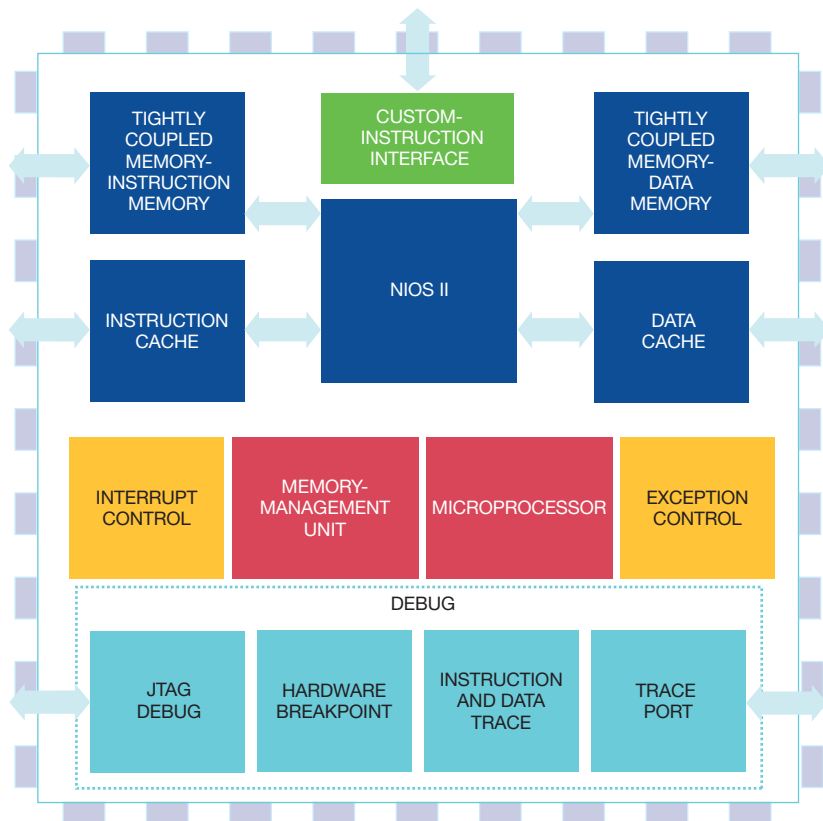


Figure 1 Nios has evolved from a simple controller to a capable application-level CPU, leading to an accumulation of supporting hardware blocks and core implementations.

uct line also includes soft cores, however, such as an 8051, a Cortex M1, and a military-oriented Leon, all for use in the non-hard-core A3P and Fusion FPGA families.

Lattice Semiconductor has taken yet another approach with its 32-bit architecture. LatticeMico32 is, unlike the other soft cores, an open-source IP (intellectual-property) block, according to Mike Kendrick, software-product planning manager at the company. The CPU is structurally similar to many compact modern 32-bit cores, with a five-stage pipeline, provision for both caches and fast local RAM, and substantial interconnect and peripheral IP.

The decision to go open-source has interesting implications for the modest-sized designs Lattice targets. Kendrick says that most LatticeMico users fit into one of two profiles. Some use the core to implement complex but low-performance functions, such as connectivity to an external processor or user-interface hosting. Others use the core for system-management purposes: bringing up the system at power-up; power, performance, and safety monitoring; and debugging. None of these applications requires earth-shaking speed, use of the latest real-time operating system, or great numerical power. LatticeMico focuses on these applications.

In this context, the choice to go open-source becomes important, rather than merely convenient. Without the need for absolute performance, LatticeMico can remain a simple design that users with access to all the RTL (register-transfer logic) can readily understand. The RTL access offers the implicit ability to simply go into the RTL source, see what's going on, and adapt it.

INTERCONNECT CHOICES

Whatever their markets address, all the CPU cores must deal with buses and memories, but history and application focus influence how each core approaches these issues. Nios, which preceded most modern bus standards, has its own interconnect system: Avalon. Avoiding the problems of shared physical buses, Avalon generally uses a switch matrix. Bowing to the momentum of ARM, however, Altera recently announced that Avalon could accommodate an ARM AXI (advanced extensible interconnect) structure by put-

ting gaskets around it. Xilinx also recently announced adoption of AXI as its core interconnect IP.

The physical layer is not the whole solution to the user's problem. "Customers don't want a core; they want an ecosystem," says Vin Ratford, senior vice president of marketing at Xilinx. So the vendors provide not

only the CPU core but also a set of soft memory blocks, soft peripherals, and a system-building graphical user interface that does the dirty work of assembling the blocks, gluing them together, and generating synthesis and mapping scripts. In the case of Xilinx's MicroBlaze, the ecosystem can create sophisticated micro-

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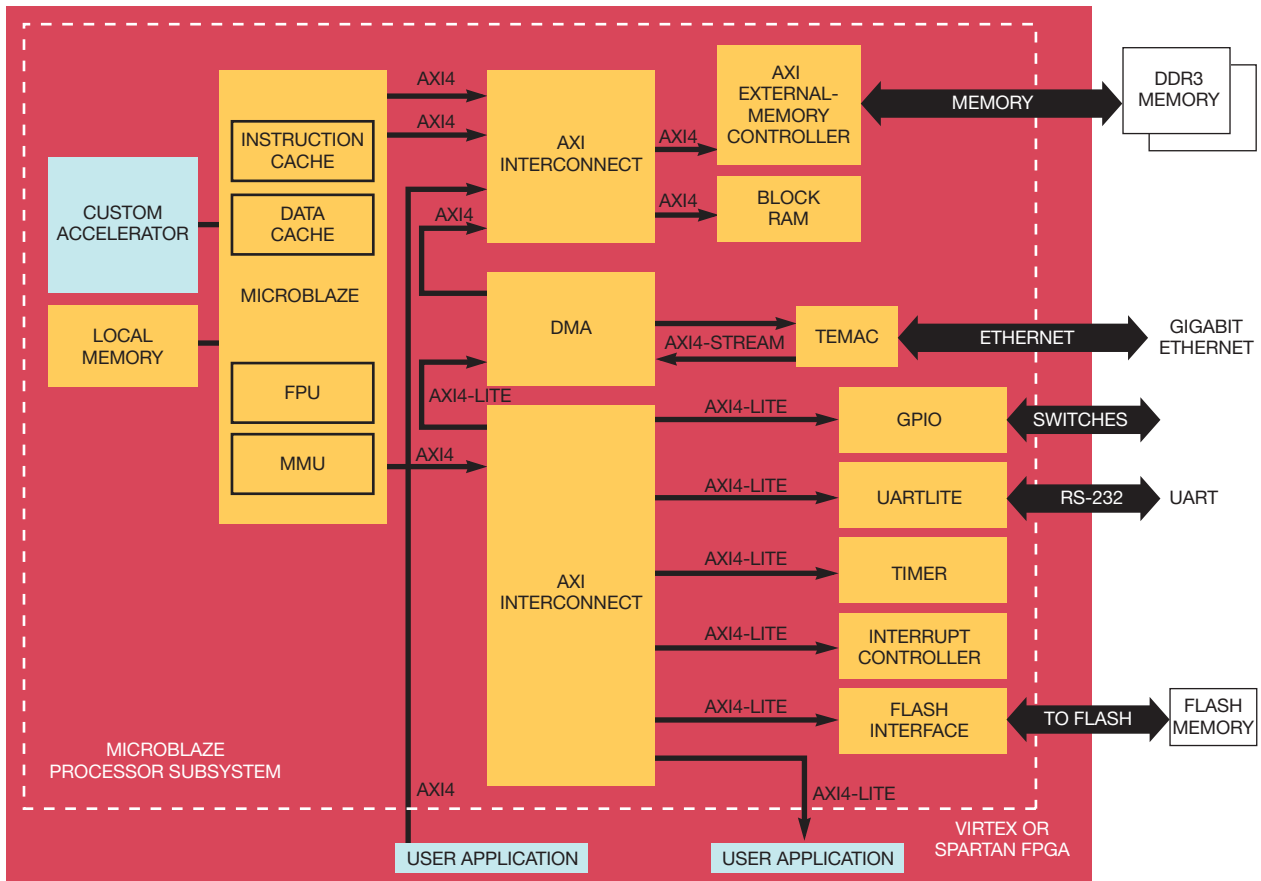


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 TEMAC: TRIMODE ETHERNET MEDIA-ACCESS CONTROLLER
 UART: UNIVERSAL ASYNCHRONOUS RECEIVER/TRANSMITTER

Figure 2 A fully developed MicroBlaze system relies on the AXI interconnect scheme for nearly all its connectivity.

computers almost entirely from Xilinx-provided IP blocks and automatically generated interconnect (Figure 2).

All the major vendors have taken this approach. “Our tool provides the IP to stitch together the CPU, memory, peripherals, and AHB [advanced high-performance-bus] interconnect,” says Microsemi’s Morin. “The customer just drags and drops blocks in a graphics environment.”

Lattice maintains its open-source stance with the interconnect IP as well as the CPU core. LatticeMico uses the Wishbone open-source interconnect approach, which Kendrick says superficially resembles Altera’s Avalon but in detail differs greatly, so that interfaces for the two standards are not interchangeable. Like Altera, Lattice offers a graphics-system-building utility that generates an RTL design from block-diagram-style input.

THE MEMORY PROBLEM

Fast RAM is another problem. Application processors running Linux typically have large set-associative caches. Processors with relatively static task mixes often use faster, simpler direct-mapped caches or more deterministic RAMs, such as ARM’s TCM (tightly coupled memory). The RAM itself isn’t a big problem for modern FPGAs, which are rich in fast block RAM. Linking the CPU core to the RAM and implementing a controller can be more fraught with difficulties, however.

Microsemi, with its microcontroller focus, simply interfaces block RAM to the CPU core. “ARM designed the Cortex M3 to be cacheless,” Morin says, “so we provide two dedicated 32-kbyte hard SRAMs on switch-matrix ports on SmartFusion. For the soft Cortex M1 core, we don’t offer caches. Instead, the user can specify TCM through the

system-building tool, and we configure a wrapper to attach the TCM to the CPU core.”

Xilinx is similarly conservative with MicroBlaze. “We can implement caches either in block RAM or in LUTs,” Rajagopalan says. “The caches are usually directly mapped. You can do a set-associative controller, but the added complexity would cut into maximum frequency.”

Altera, with its wider range of target applications, keeps its options open. “We implement L1 cache for Nios as a soft controller working with on-chip memory blocks,” Kari says. “We can do set-associative caches with little impact on maximum frequency, but the result on system performance depends on the software. It can go either way.”

ACCELERATORS

One of the nominal attractions of

cores in FPGAs is the ability to implement application-specific hardware accelerations in the programmable fabric. Just how you go about accomplishing that task, however, varies from chip to chip. The Nios tools offer users the ability to define a custom instruction. The tool then generates the changes in decoding and execution logic necessary to integrate the new instruction into the Nios pipeline. This approach can work well if a single operation is the bottleneck on a critical loop. Alternatively, you can create a custom accelerator, often by directly synthesizing RTL from the C code you are trying to accelerate. You would then compile an Avalon wrapper for the new block and drop the result into your design.

Xilinx takes a similar two-level approach with MicroBlaze. "There are two ways to do accelerators," says Sundaramoorthy. "Large accelerators should attach to AXI. Smaller ones—say, a FIR [finite-impulse-response] filter or a saturating multiplier—couple directly to the MicroBlaze pipeline." Nominally, because cores are in RTL, you can do anything you want to extend the operation of a third-party core. The knowledge of the core design you would require, however, and the impact on the resulting system's correctness and performance might be your responsibility rather than the core vendor's.

HOW TO DEBUG

Designers face several issues in verifying an FPGA design with an embedded CPU: verifying the CPU core, verifying the microcomputer as a subsystem, and debugging the software. The difficulty of each issue depends on the core in question. FPGA vendors claim that they have thoroughly verified their own hard or soft CPU cores and peripheral IP. They further claim that the subsystems you build with their system-building tools are correct by construction. Little dispute of these claims exists; beyond them, though, things get more complicated.

Vendors may make different—or no—claims about third-party CPU cores. Also, if you plan to modify a core with a custom acceleration, even using the vendor's tools, make sure that you and the vendor agree on a verification plan. A careful verification manager might want to reverify the entire CPU.

Do you have the tools, expertise, and test bench necessary to do so?

Then there is system verification. "It's true that vendor tools can generate correct interface RTL," says Adam Sherer, verification director of product marketing at Cadence. "But the vendor can't preverify system interactions. We have seen a lot of FPGA-design teams who have been successful with midtier

designs get into trouble with CPU cores. They add a CPU, a bus, and some peripherals, and those additions take the design beyond what their program-and-try verification style can handle. They need high-speed models and an ASIC-level verification method to deal with the complexity they have created." Such a verification methodology may entail not only simulation models of all

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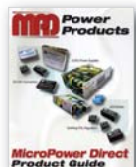


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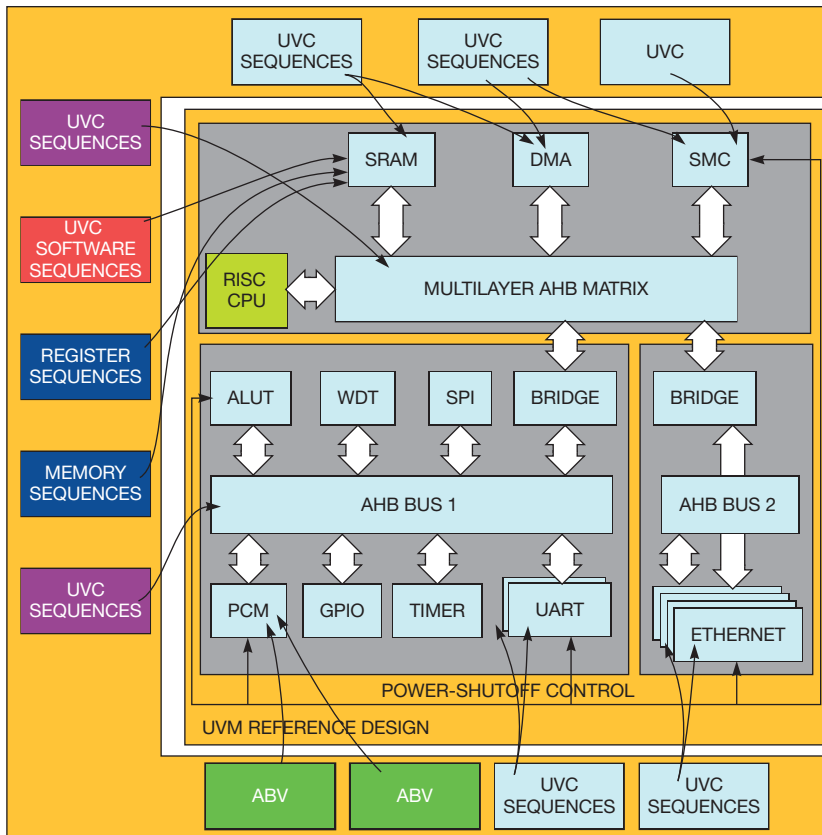
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ABV: ASSERTION-BASED VERIFICATION
 AHB: ADVANCED HIGH-PERFORMANCE BUS
 ALUT: ADDRESS LOOK-UP TABLE
 APB: ADVANCED PERIPHERAL BUS
 DMA: DIRECT-MEMORY ACCESS
 GPIO: GENERAL-PURPOSE INPUT/OUTPUT

PCM: PULSE-CODE MODULATION
 SMC: SMART MEMORY CONTROLLER
 SPI: SERIAL-PERIPHERAL INTERFACE
 UVC: UVM VERIFICATION COMPONENTS
 UVM: UNIVERSAL VERIFICATION METHODOLOGY
 WDT: WATCHDOG TIMER

Figure 3 Assembling the tools and verification IP necessary to fully test a microcomputer subsystem in an FPGA can be a significant undertaking.

the functional blocks in the microcomputer subsystem but also third-party verification IP for these blocks, plus a test bench that can manage and track the progress of the verification effort (Figure 3). This process is more complex and skill-intensive than the processes many FPGA teams have used before.

Lattice's Kendrick agrees that system verification can be a complex issue for many design teams. To limit the complexity, Kendrick says, Lattice-

Mico users often start with a verified open-source reference design and make changes to adapt the design to their requirements. This approach at least attempts to limit the scope of the verification problem, so that the design is likely to be at least partially functional on first pass. "Some customers use RTL simulation for the initial stages of bringing up the design, but many do not," Kendrick says. "Many just make careful modifications to the working reference design and then go directly to the board to try it out."

As for the software-debugging question, the SOC (system-on-chip) world increasingly relies on internal debugging kernels, such as ARM's CoreSight. These kernels may be in the hard cores planned for EPP and similar products, but the vendors don't always say. CoreSight does appear to be in the SmartFusion M3 core, for example.

Such support on vendor-proprietary cores is another matter, however. MicroBlaze has JTAG (Joint Test Action Group) access that allows single-step and breakpoints, according to Sundaramoorthy. Similar capabilities exist on Nios, but your favorite debugging tool may not support the facility on the core you select. LatticeMico's in-core monitor, for example, interfaces to a Lattice debugger that, although specific to the company, complies with Eclipse specifications.

For deeper inspection of system operation, you can create a custom test—an assertion, essentially—and compile it into the FPGA. But with compilation times for big FPGAs approaching a day, this option may be less than attractive. You can also use the built-in debugging capabilities in the logic fabric—Chipscope, in Xilinx's case—to examine the operation of the design down to the individual FPGA register. Without detailed knowledge of the implementation, however, linking FPGA-logic cells to source-code execution would be a monumental job. Cadence's suggestion of starting with a fast system-level model before moving to hardware seems more appropriate.

As a whole, the hard and soft CPU cores now available to FPGA users represent a range of capabilities, sizes, and costs, and they find use across purposes ranging from hosting Linux and a complete system-control task load to accelerating arithmetic operations, performing system-management functions, and implementing a state machine in an easily modifiable way. Vendors offer different approaches to creating systems, integrating custom hardware, and debugging, but the cores have in common the ability to greatly complicate system verification and software debugging. It is essential at the outset of a design in which you will use a CPU core to understand these implications and to have a thorough, agreed-upon verification and software-development plan. **EDN**

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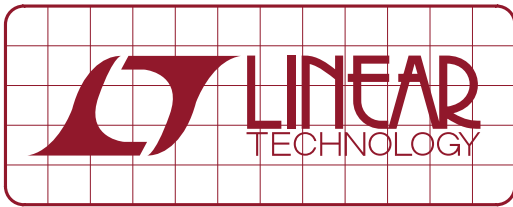
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DESIGN NOTES

Step-Down μ Module Regulator Produces 15A Output from Inputs Down to 1.5V—No Bias Supply Required

1.5V to 5.5V Input, 0.8V to 5V Output from a 15mm \times 15mm \times 4.32mm LGA Package

Design Note 488

Alan Chern and Jason Sekanina

15A High Efficiency Output from a Low Input Voltage

The LTM[®]4611 is a switch mode, step-down DC/DC μ Module[®] regulator in a compact 15mm \times 15mm \times 4.32mm LGA surface mount package. The switching controller, MOSFETs, inductor and supporting components are housed in the package. With a built-in differential remote sense amplifier, the LTM4611 can tightly regulate its output voltage from 0.8V to within 300mV of V_{IN} and deliver 15A output efficiently from 1.5V to 5.5V input.

Only a handful of components are needed to create a complete point-of-load (POL) solution with the LTM4611 (see Figure 1). The C_{SS} capacitor provides smooth start-up on the output and limits the input surge current during power-up. C_{FF} and C_P set the loop-compensation for fast transient response and good stability. The output voltage, 1.5V, is set by a single resistor, R_{SET} .

Efficiency is exceptional, even down to the lowest input voltages, as shown in Figure 2.

Input and Output Ripple

Output capacitors should have low ESR to meet output voltage ripple and transient requirements. A mixture of low ESR polymer and/or ceramic capacitors is sufficient for producing low output ripple with minimal noise and spiking. Output capacitors are chosen to optimize transient load response and loop stability to meet the application load-step requirements by using the Excel-based LTpowerCAD[™] design tool. (Table 5 of the LTM4611 data sheet provides guidance for applications with 7.5A

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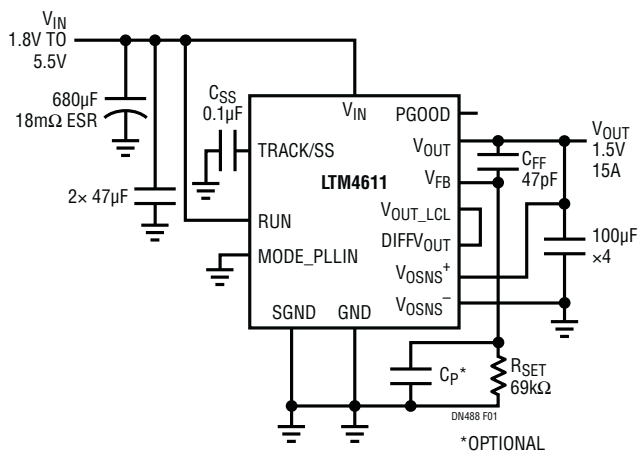


Figure 1. 1.8V_{IN} to 5.5V_{IN} to 1.5V_{OUT} with 15A Output Load Current

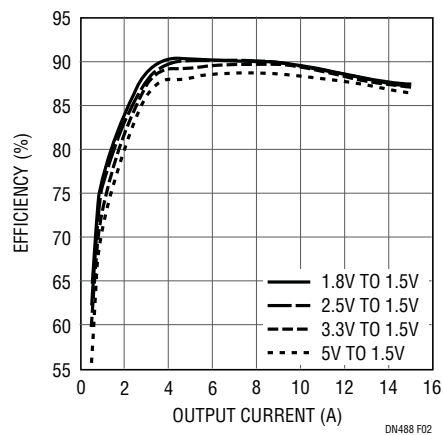


Figure 2. Efficiency of Figure 1 Circuit



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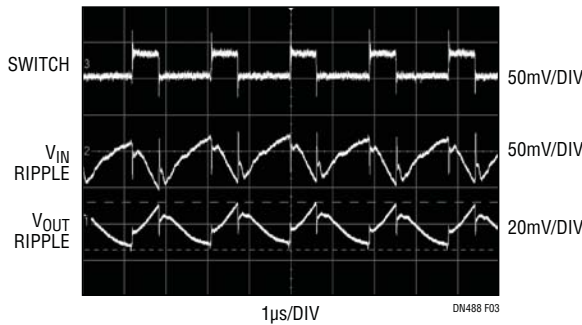


Figure 3. 5V_{IN} to 1.5V_{OUT} at 15A Output Load

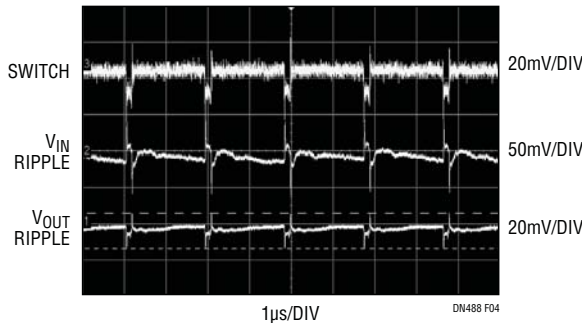


Figure 4. 1.8V_{IN} to 1.5V_{OUT} at 15A Output Load



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load-steps and 1µs transition times.) For this design example, four 100µF ceramic capacitors are used. Figures 3 and 4 show input and output ripple at 15A load with 20MHz bandwidth-limit. View the associated videos to see the test methodology, as well as ripple waveforms without bandwidth limiting.

For this design, the choice of input capacitors is critical due to the low input voltage range. Long input traces can cause voltage drops, which could nuisance-trip the µModule regulator's undervoltage lockout (UVLO) detection circuitry. Input ripple, typically a non-issue with higher input voltages, may fall a significant percentage below nominal—close to UVLO—at lower input voltages. In this case, input voltage ripple should be addressed since input filter oscillations can occur due to poor damping under heavy load current. This design uses a large 680µF POSCAP and two 47µF ceramic capacitors to compensate for meter-long input cables used during bench testing.

Thermally Enhanced Packaging

The device's LGA packaging allows heat sinking from both the top and bottom, facilitating the use of a metal chassis or a BGA heat sink. This form factor promotes excellent thermal

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dissipation with or without air flow. Figure 5 shows the top view thermal imaging of the LTM4611 at a power loss of 3.5W with no air flow, when converting 5V to 1.5V.

Internal self-heating of the LTM4611 remains quite low even at a low 1.8V input voltage due to its micropower bias generator that enables strong gate drive for its power MOSFETs. Figure 6 shows a power loss of 3.2W with hot spots slightly changed from their positions with a 5V input—the nominal surface temperature is 60°C. Watch the associated videos to see the test set-up and watch 200 LFM of air flow cool the unit by 10°C.

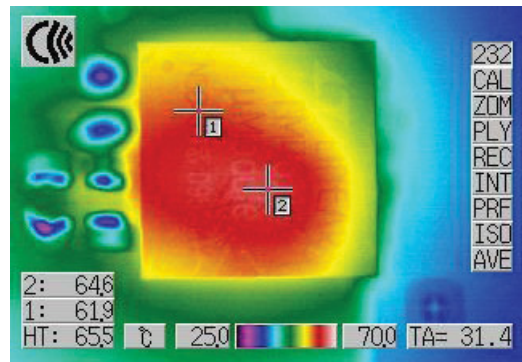


Figure 5. 5V_{IN} to 1.5V_{OUT} at 15A Output Load. 3.5W Power Loss with OLFM and 65°C Surface Temperature Hot Spot

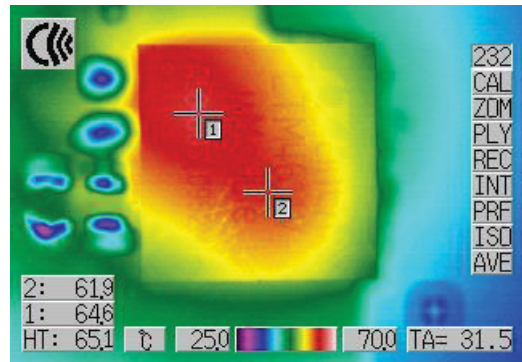


Figure 6. 1.8V_{IN} to 1.5V_{OUT} at 15A Output Load. 3.2W Power Loss with OLFM and 65°C Surface Temperature Hot Spot



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Conclusion

The LTM4611 is a step-down µModule regulator that easily fits into POL applications needing high output current from low voltage inputs—from 1.5V to 5.5V. Efficiency and thermal performance remain high across the entire input voltage range, simplifying electrical, mechanical and system design in data storage, RAID, ATCA, and many other applications.

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Accurate high-side current sensing is essential for automotive-control systems, such as those for EPS (electric power steering), automatic gear shifting, transmission control, engine fuel-injection control, braking-valve control, and active suspensions. All of these applications require precise regulation of the current through a motor or solenoid. The current sets the torque of the motor or the drive of the solenoid. You can design a precision, high-side current-sense amplifier to monitor inductive load currents over a wide range of input common-mode voltages. The circuit is suitable for applications in which the input common-mode voltage becomes negative due to inductive kickback, reverse-battery conditions, or transient events.

SENSE CURRENT IN EPS

Unlike conventional power-steering systems, an EPS system has no hydraulic pump or fluid. Instead, it features an electric motor that attaches to the steering rack through a gear mechanism. When the driver turns the wheel, a steering sensor detects the wheel's position and rate of rotation. The system then feeds this information, along with input from a steering torque sensor in the steering shaft, to the power-steering-control module. To determine the required steering assistance, the control module also takes

inputs from the vehicle's speed-sensor, traction-control, and stability-control systems (Figure 1).

An interface with the power module then allows the control module to regulate the amount of current in the motor. Increasing the motor current increases the power assistance, and vice versa. You control motor current by feeding a PWM (pulse-width-modulated) voltage across the motor with an H bridge (Figure 2). An associated truth table summarizes the various modes of operation for a full H-bridge circuit (Table 1). The motor presents an inductive load. You determine torque by averaging the resulting ripple current.

This current represents the resulting power assistance the circuit provides to the driver.

You use a current-measuring device to monitor motor current and provide real-time feedback to the control module. The module adjusts the PWM duty cycle until the current reaches its target value. You can insert a low-value sense resistor in series with the current path to produce a small reduction in voltage. A current-sense amplifier on that differential voltage indicates the current magnitude.

Current-sensing approaches include low side, high side, and on the motor. For low-side current sensing, you place the sense resistor between the H bridge

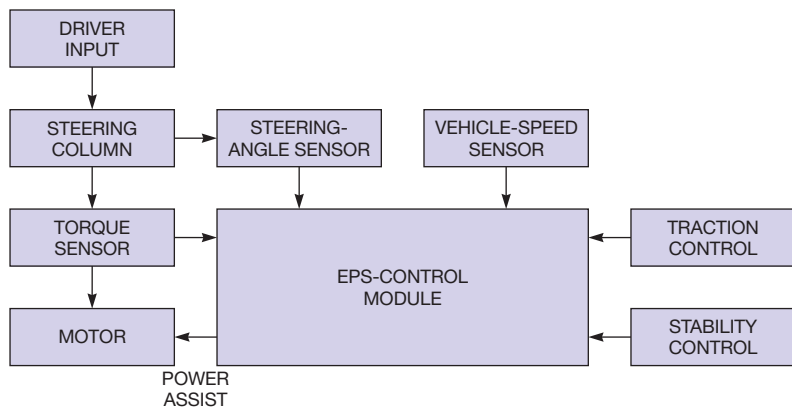


Figure 1 To determine the required steering assistance, the control module also takes inputs from the vehicle's speed-sensor, traction-control, and stability-control systems.

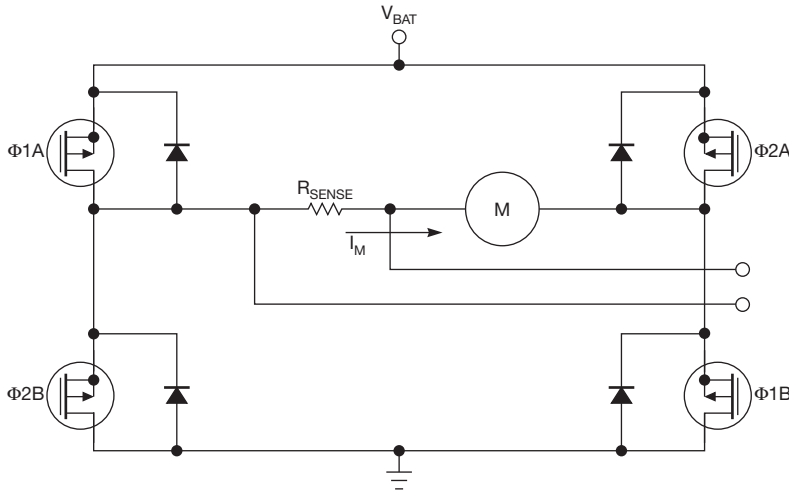


Figure 2 The phase of the signals to the four gates of this H-bridge circuit determines motor direction and speed.

and ground on the bottom of the dc bus. For high-side current sensing, you put the sense resistor between the positive battery terminal and the H bridge on the high side of the dc bus. You can perform output PWM current sensing on the motor itself.

These alternatives require trade-offs. The low-side approach is convenient but adds undesirable resistance in the ground path. It also lacks the diagnostic ability to detect a short-to-ground fault. Neither the high-side nor the low-side approach lets you continu-

ously monitor current in the recirculation diode. PWM current sensing does allow sensing of the diode current and adds no resistance to the ground path.

A PWM current-measuring circuit entails performance constraints that are far from trivial. The circuit must contend with common-mode voltages that swing all the way from ground to the battery voltage. Thus, to reject common-mode excursions, the circuit must have not only a high range of input voltage corresponding to this swing but also an excellent CMRR (common-mode-rejection ratio) at the switching frequency and at relevant edge-rate-induced frequencies.

Common-mode transients and a minimum duty cycle for the PWM signal also impose a stringent requirement for settling time in the current-sense amplifier. For an accurate and linear response, the current-measurement circuitry must have high gain, high accuracy, and low offset voltage. Because human steering is part of the control loop, linearity and accuracy are especially critical. Any nonlinear-

TABLE 1 H-BRIDGE TRUTH TABLE				
Φ1A	Φ1B	Φ2A	Φ2B	Condition
On	On	Off	Off	The motor is powered between the battery voltage and ground; its current increases and flows as the arrow indicates
Off	On	Off	On	The current flows as the arrow shows but decreases and circulates through Φ1B, Φ2B, and the sense resistor
Off	Off	On	On	The motor is powered between the battery voltage and ground; its current increases and flows in a direction opposite to the arrow
Off	On	Off	On	The current flows in a direction opposite to the arrow and decreases and circulates through Φ2B, Φ1B, and the sense resistor

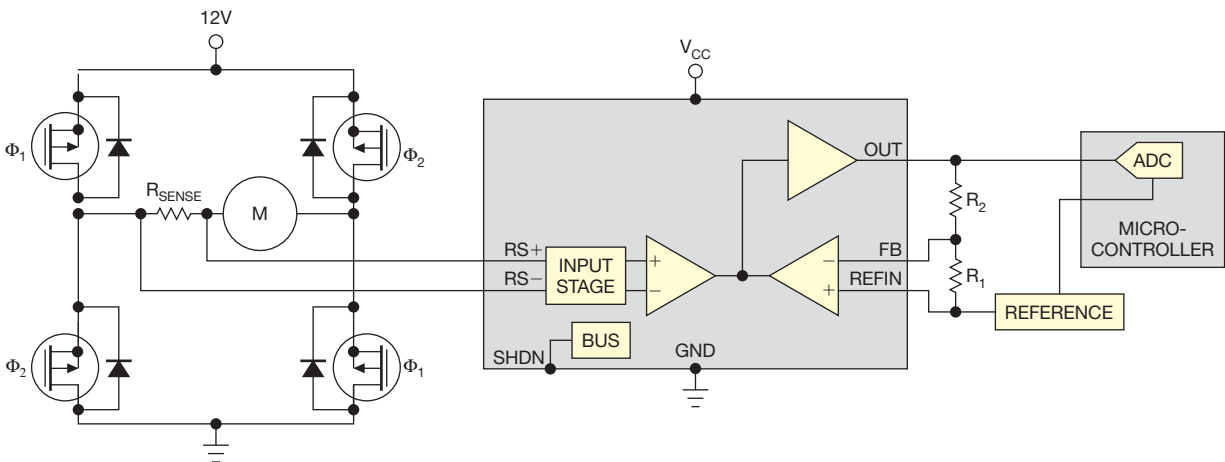


Figure 3 You can construct a PWM-compatible, H-bridge current-sensing circuit.

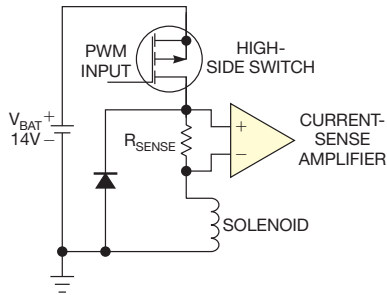


Figure 4 This typical solenoid drive circuit employs a high-side switch.

ity in the circuitry can impair the driving experience by causing oscillation or vibration when you oversteer the vehicle.

You connect the motor in a full H-bridge configuration (Figure 3). This approach lets you reverse the motor-applied voltage polarity, which enables it to rotate in either direction. The IC withstands -20 to $+75\text{V}$ common-mode voltages, making it immune to inductive flyback, load-dump transients, and reverse-battery faults. The device also integrates an instrumentation amplifier. Its indirect current-feedback architecture provides precision current sensing with a maximum input offset voltage of $400\ \mu\text{V}$ and a gain error of 0.6% . The external reference voltage supports the bidirectional current sensing that a full H bridge requires and senses unidirectional current when operating with a half H-bridge circuit. In a bidirectional system, the output voltage equals the reference voltage when the sensed current is 0A . Both adjustable-

and fixed-gain flavors enable this part to provide maximum flexibility over a range of applications.

SOLENOID-DRIVE SENSING

Solenoids find wide use as electro-mechanical switches in vehicles. A starter solenoid, for example, delivers a large electric current to the starter motor, which in turn sets the engine in motion. However, several automotive-control systems employ a solenoid drive for precision control. For example, a diesel-engine system for railroads relies on solenoids as sophisticated

THE CHALLENGES OF SENSING SOLENOID CURRENT FOR REGULATING PWM FREQUENCY ARE SIMILAR TO THOSE IN THE H-BRIDGE APPLICATION.

electronic-control valves. They inject the appropriate quantities of fuel directly into the engine cylinders at high pressure. You accurately control the timing of these valves with the engine-control unit to ensure synchronization with the diesel engine. The result is a relatively “green” engine that makes less noise, produces fewer emissions, and is more fuel-efficient. Other applications for solenoid control include

automatic gear shifting, transmission control, braking control, and active suspensions.

The high-side switch is typically a FET whose gate you control with a PWM signal (Figure 4). When the FET is on, it connects the solenoid to the 14V battery voltage, producing a current that charges the solenoid coil. When the FET turns off, solenoid current discharges through the clamp diode and shunt resistor. By regulating the PWM frequency and duty cycle, you determine the resulting average ripple current in the solenoid. This current in turn controls the force the system applies to the actuator.

The challenges of sensing solenoid current for regulating PWM frequency and duty cycle are similar to those in the H-bridge application. Common-mode voltages at the input of the current-sense amplifier range from the battery voltage to the slightly negative level of the clamp diode’s drop voltage. Typical solenoids require a few amperes of current, so a clamp diode that withstands such current may develop a forward voltage higher than 1V .

Again, the current-sense amplifier’s wide input common-mode range and fast settling in response to common-mode variations suit this application. The main difference between this application and that of the H bridge is that the solenoid current always flows in the same direction; the current-sense amplifier, therefore, needs only to be unidirectional. The IC becomes a unidirectional current-sense amplifier when you connect its reference input to ground.

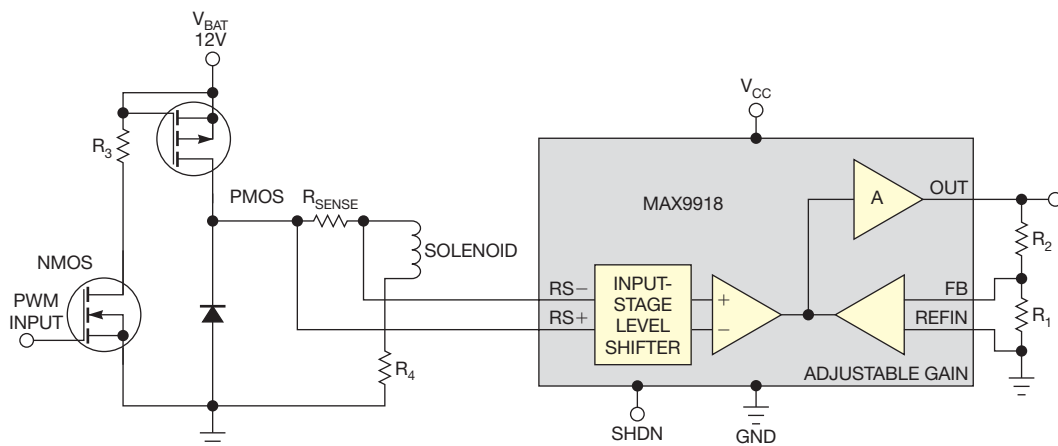
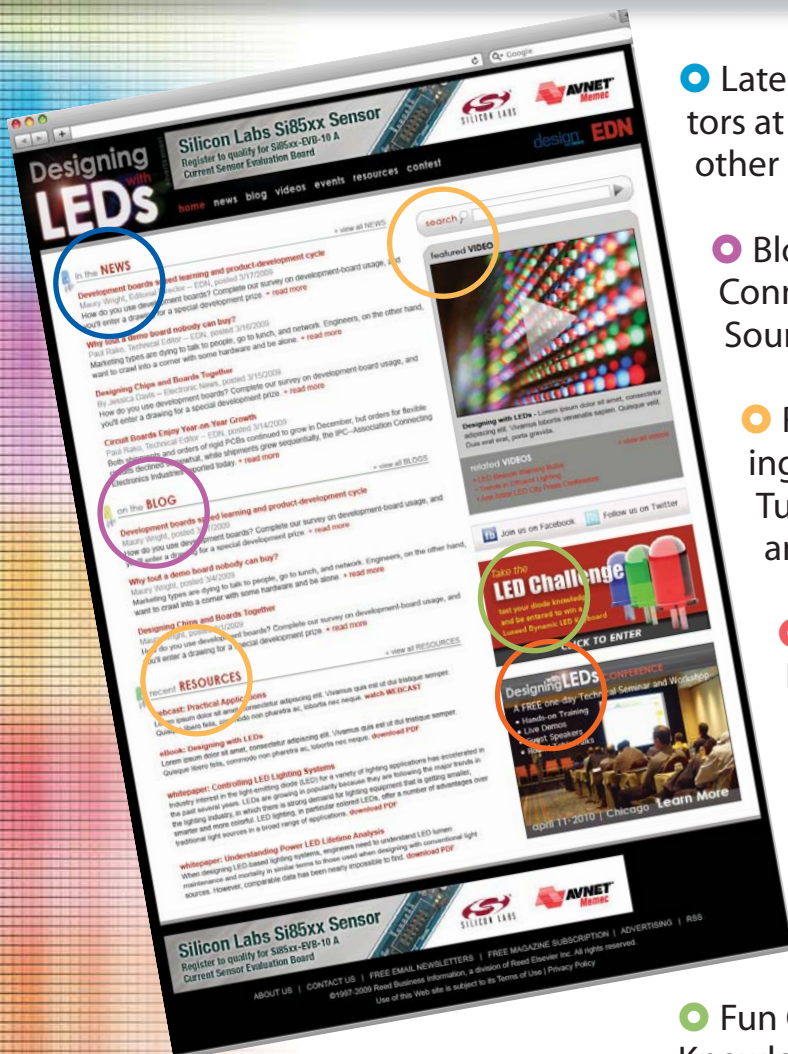


Figure 5 Engineers prototyped this solenoid-drive circuit in the lab.

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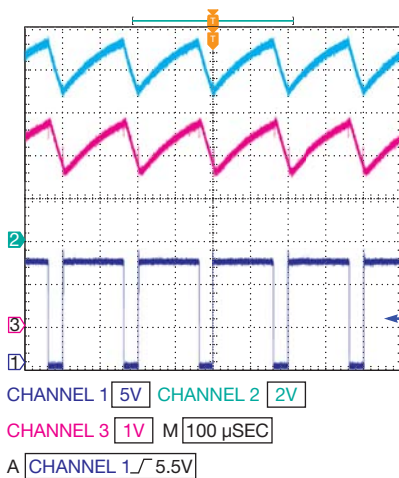


Figure 6 Waveforms at a PWM frequency of 5 kHz illustrate the operation of the circuit in Figure 5, with a duty cycle of 80%. The top trace is the voltage across R_4 , the middle is the output of the current-sense amplifier, and the bottom is the PWM signal at the bottom of the PFET.

LAB RESULTS

You can prototype a typical application circuit for solenoids in the lab (**Figure 5**). You emulate the solenoid with a 2-mH inductor having a low ESR (equivalent series resistance) of 1.6Ω . The sense resistor is $100\text{ m}\Omega$, and a value for R_4 , not present in the actual solenoid circuit, of 15Ω limits the maximum solenoid current, as the following equation shows:

$$I_{\text{MAX}} = V_{\text{BAT}} / (R_{\text{SENSE}} + \text{ESR} + R_4) = 12\text{V} / (0.1 + 1.6 + 15)\Omega = 0.72\text{A}.$$

This maximum current value is the theoretical limit the circuit reaches when the inductor is fully charged. The resistor and inductor values set the circuit's time constant to approximately 0.12 msec, which is equivalent to 8.3 kHz. You set a gain of 80 with the external resistors R_1 and R_2 having values of 1 and $79\text{ k}\Omega$, respectively.

Waveforms at a PWM frequency of 5 kHz illustrate the operation of the circuit in **Figure 5**, with duty cycles of 80 and 50% (**figures 6 and 7**, respectively). The top waveform is the voltage across R_4 , which is proportional to the current flowing in the inductor. The middle waveform is the output of the current-sense amplifier, and the bottom waveform shows the PWM signal at the drain of the PFET. Higher duty cycles yield higher current.

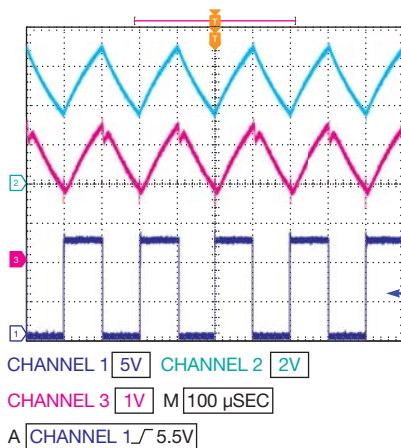


Figure 7 Waveforms at a PWM frequency of 5 kHz illustrate the operation of the circuit in Figure 5, with a duty cycle of 50%. The top trace is the voltage across R_4 , the middle is the output of the current-sense amplifier, and the bottom is the PWM signal at the bottom of the PFET.

Thus, a precision, high-voltage, high-side current-sense amplifier allows accurate measurement with smaller sense resistors. It handles the bidirectional motor currents that you derive from H bridges, such as those in EPS systems, as well as the unidirectional solenoid currents in automatic gear shifting, transmission control, braking control, and active suspensions. **EDN**

AUTHORS' BIOGRAPHIES



Maurizio Gavardoni is a product definer for amplifiers and comparators in the multimedia-business unit of Maxim Integrated Products.

Before joining Maxim, he worked as a mixed-signal-system designer for several automated-test-equipment companies. He holds bachelor's and master's degrees in electrical engineering from the University of Milan (Milan, Italy).



Akshay Bhat is a strategic-applications engineer with Maxim Integrated Products. He holds a master's degree in electrical engineering

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designideas

READERS SOLVE DESIGN PROBLEMS

Design provides single-port-to-dual-port SDRAM converter

Yu-Chieh Chen, Instrument Technology Research Center, National Applied Research Laboratories, Hsinchu, Taiwan

In multimedia and video applications, DRAM buffers large frames in the image coding and decoding between an image-sensing device and an image-display device (references 1 and 2). It also plays a key role in image-frame-rate converters by matching the displaying format of the monitor (Reference 3). Accessing dual-port SDRAM is a complex task, especially when two data read or write operations are occurring simultaneously into a single-port SDRAM during high-speed operation.

SDRAM supports asynchronous control, performs reading and writing operations, and allows multiple CPUs to read or write in parallel. To reduce production costs and avoid complexity, engineers typically prefer conventional one-port SDRAM. You can, however, use an FPGA to convert a single-port SDRAM to function as a dual-port SDRAM.

The single-port-to-dual-port SDRAM converter comprises two read-FIFO (first-in/first-out) and write-FIFO memory

blocks. A pair of read and write controllers each control a read-and-write data bus. **Figure 1** shows the architecture of the proposed converter, and **Figure 2** shows the operating flow of the read-and-write controller. The write controller first stores the writing data in write-FIFO and executes the SDRAM write command when the WKO (write-keep-out) signal falls to a low level, which means that the read operation is complete. Meanwhile, the RKO (read-keep-out) signal goes high until the write operation is complete. The procedure prevents the read signal from occurring during the writing operation.

The read-data operation is similar to the write-data operation. The read controller first waits for the RKO signal to fall low if it is high when the read operation starts. The read controller then executes the read command and stores the data from SDRAM to read-FIFO memory. The read controller simultaneously pulls the WKO signal high until

DIs Inside

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the read operation is complete. **Figure 3** shows the hardware logic of the smart controlling strategy, which the following equation also describes:

$$F_{COM} = [MUX_{READCOM,WRITECOM} \times \overline{RKO} \times \overline{WKO}]$$

where MUX is the multiplexer. For the read example, the SEL (select) signal switches to the read mode and then waits for the RKO signal to fall low if the RKO signal is at a high level when the read command executes (Reference 1).

This strategy doubles the high-level period of both the read operation, or RKO signal, and write operation, or WKO signal. These signals rise to logic high before executing each read or write operation. This step ensures that the read operation does not interrupt the write operation and that the write operation does not interrupt the read operation.

Figure 4, available with the Web version of this Design Idea at www.edn.com/110303dia, shows the simulation waveform of the converter, which is a part of the image-sensing and -displaying sequence. The iSDRAM_Read signal is high, indicating that the SDRAM is performing a read operation. At the same time, the iSDRAM_Write signal is high during the SDRAM-writing op-

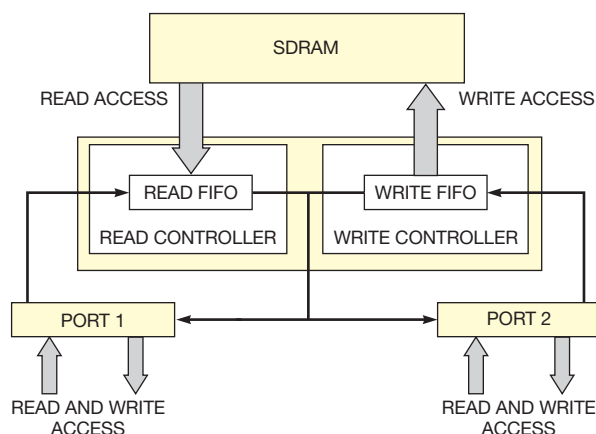


Figure 1 The converter architecture uses two ports for separate read and write operations.

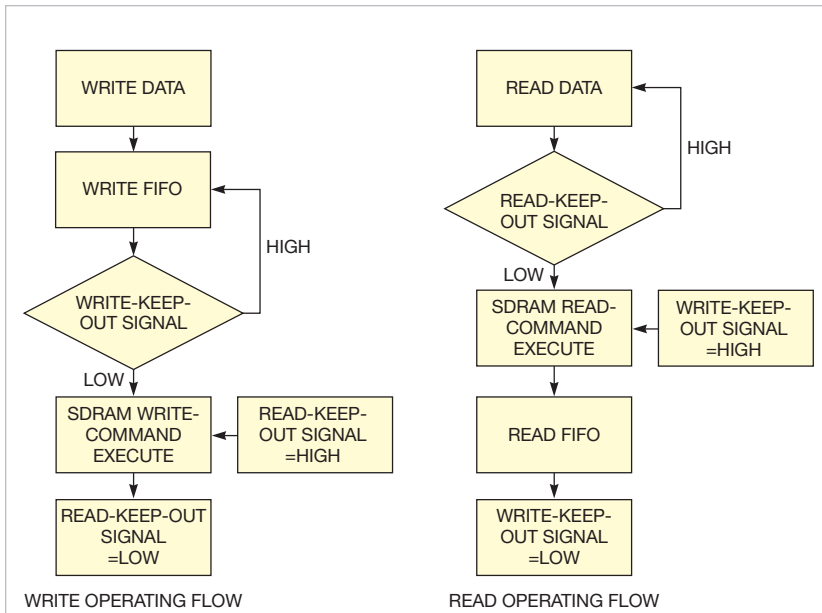


Figure 2 Read and write operations occur when the RKO and WKO signals are at logic-low states.

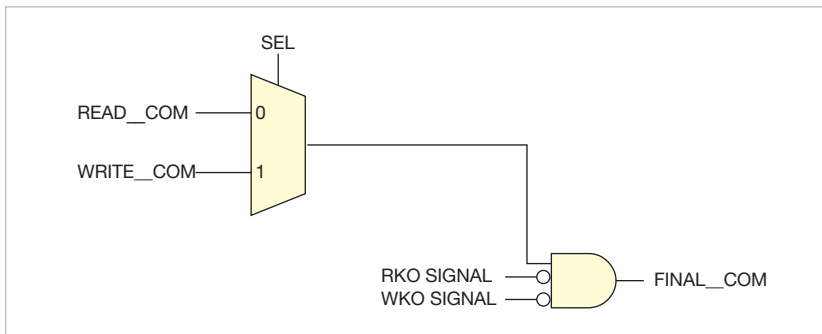


Figure 3 The hardware logic uses a multiplexer to select write or read signals.

eration. The iSDRAM_ReadKeepOut signal goes high before each iSDRAM_Write signal and lasts two times longer than each iSDRAM_Write signal. This setup ensures that the writing command does not execute during the read operation. For the same reason, the read command doesn't execute during the writing operation.

The write-clock operation is initially ahead of the read-clock operation. After several time delays, however, the write-clock operation catches up with the read-clock operation. At this point, the controller holds the data and waits until the iSDRAM_ReadKeepOut command falls to a low level before executing the read command. Using this read-and-write strategy, the controller resolves the conflict of executing read and write commands during write or read operations.^{EDN}

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- 2 Jack, Keith, *Video Demystified*, Fifth Edition, Newnes Publishers, 2007, ISBN: 0750683953.
- 3 Yim, Myung-Sik, "Image decoding apparatus having frame rate transformation function," US Patent No. 5917950, June 29, 1999, <http://bit.ly/i4GR98>.

Zener diode protects FPGA inputs

Rick Collins, Arius, Frederick, MD

Although 5V-powered logic is still common in many applications, most FPGAs support interface levels of 3.3V and lower. When you connect an FPGA to higher voltage levels, the FPGA's application notes commonly suggest that you use the PCI (Peripheral Component Interconnect)-bus clamp diodes in the FPGA's I/O blocks with an external series-limiting resistor to prevent damage to the FPGA (Figure 1). The PCI clamp diode limits the voltage to a level that doesn't harm

the input, and the resistance value limits the current to a safe level that doesn't

harm the PCI clamp diode. This approach works well in designs with low-speed signals.

However, when you use this approach with a higher-rate signal, the effects of the parasitic RC filter distort the signal

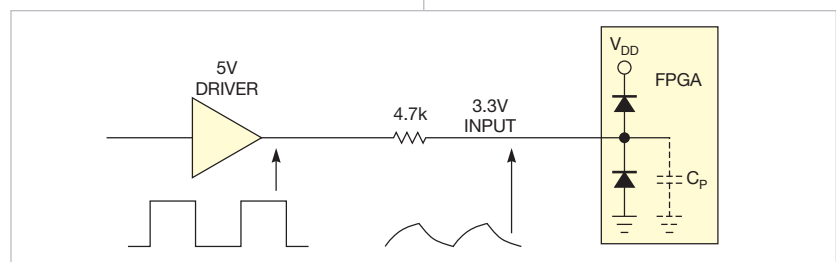


Figure 1 Engineers often use a series resistor to interface 5V logic levels to FPGAs.

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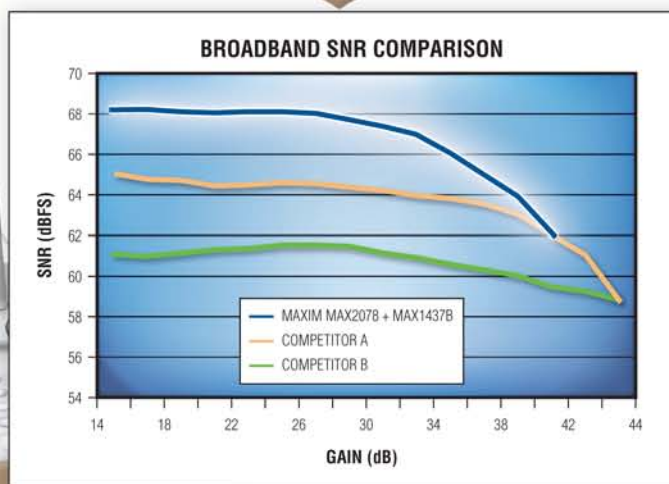


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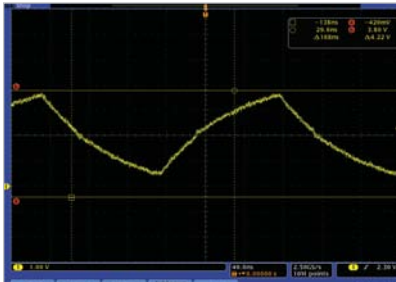


Figure 2 A parasitic RC filter slows the signal's edges.

(**Figure 2**). The circuit from the FPGA's application notes requires a change, which you can accomplish without redesigning the PCB (printed-circuit board). In this case, substituting a zener diode for the resistor shifts the signal level without causing excessive distortion (**Figure 3**). The zener diode works with the PCI clamp diode and the internal pulldown resistor to set the voltage level at the input pin.

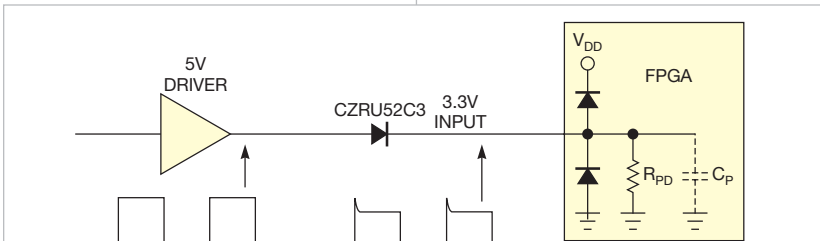


Figure 3 Replacing the resistor with a zener diode shifts the voltage level with little distortion.

To set the static level at the input pin, you must enable the FPGA's internal pulldown resistor to prevent the PCI clamp diodes from being driven too hard when the input is continuously high. The current from the pulldown resistor is smaller than the rating current of the zener diode. Low-voltage zener diodes also have round "knees" in the avalanche IV (current-to-voltage) curve. This curve results in a zener voltage that's lower than the rated value, so you need to use a higher-voltage zener diode. The diode should also have a low capacitance. The CZRU52C3, a 3V zener diode from Comchip (www.comchip.tw.com), works well, reducing the circuit's voltage by 2V (**Figure 4**).

Some parasitic effects in the zener diode will create other distortion to the waveform. The parasitic capacitance of the diode causes the diode to initially look like a short to the signal edges from the 5V driver. The FPGA pin will see a

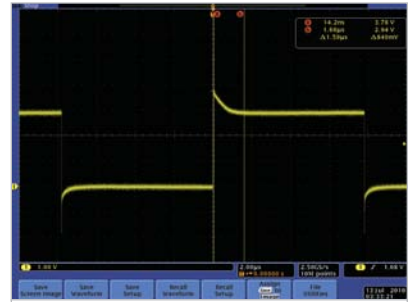


Figure 4 An oscilloscope trace shows the signal with overshoot.

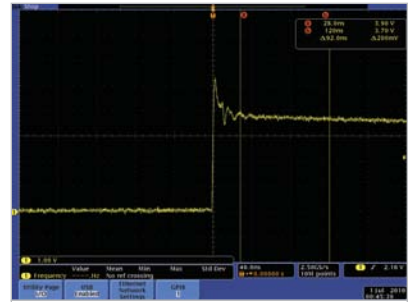


Figure 5 The brief overshoot of the leading edge of the pulse does not damage the FPGA inputs.

high-voltage overshoot for approximately 10 nsec, quickly decaying to the rated level of the input pin. The RC time constant of the pin capacitance and the pulldown resistance result in a slower drop to the final value, which the zener diode and the pulldown resistance determine. **Figure 5** shows a detailed view of the leading edge. **EDN**

Bicolor LED indicates 10 states

Abel Raynus, Armatron International, Malden, MA

Most microcontroller-based devices have several states of operation. Pushbutton switches often control these states. To minimize costs, many designs use only one switch; the number of presses sets the microcontroller's state. In the circuit in this Design Idea, lighting an LED indicates the chosen state.

A large selection of bicolor LEDs is on the market in various shapes and colors from Kingbright (www.kingbrightusa.com), Optosupply (www.optosupply.com), and other suppliers. These LEDs provide new opportunities to use just one LED to indicate 10 states. You set the states by pressing a pushbutton switch that connects to a microcontroller's external interrupt pin (**Figure 1**). After each push, the interrupt subroutine sets the device to the next state (**Figure 2**).

State 0 is standby mode with the LED off. The device waits for you to press a switch. The LED's color indicates the next three states. For example, a Kingbright WP5A9EGW12.3SF LED yields red, green, and orange. Add

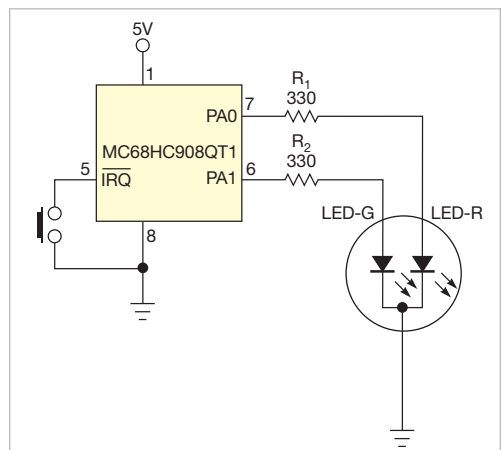


Figure 1 A bicolor LED and a pushbutton switch are all you need to set and indicate a microcontroller's state.

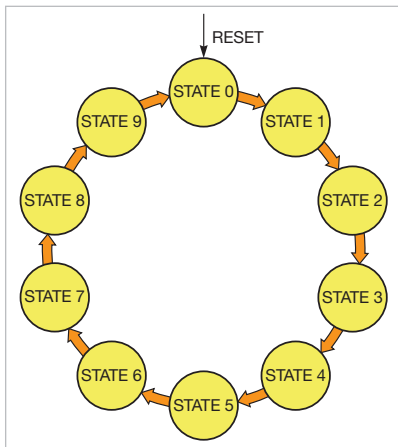


Figure 2 Pressing the switch advances the microcontroller's state.

blinking to indicate the remaining states. You can independently control the red and the green LEDs, yielding six more combinations of indication (Table 1).

Using the microcontroller's internal oscillator as a clock source simplifies the circuit because the oscillator needs no external components and its 5% toler-

TABLE 1 COLOR AND BLINKING PATTERNS FOR 10 STATES

State	Red LED	Green LED	Indication
0	Off	Off	No light (standby)
1	On	Off	Red
2	Off	On	Green
3	On	On	Orange
4	Blinks	Off	Red blinks
5	Off	Blinks	Green blinks
6	Blinks	Blinks	Orange blinks
7	On	Blinks	Red and orange blink
8	Blinks	On	Green and orange blink
9	Blinks	Blinks	Red and green blink

ance is sufficient for this application. Firmware sets the built-in pullup resistor for external interrupt input.

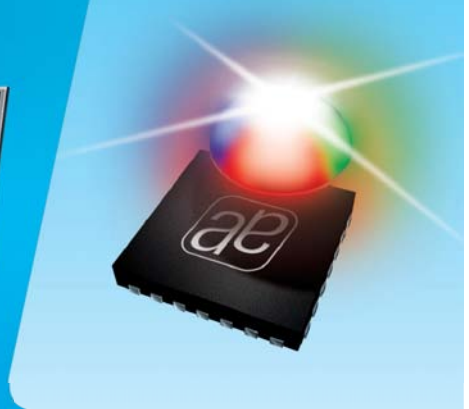
The clock speed and the values of the prescaler and time-counter-modulo registers determine the rate of LED blinking. The internal oscillator generates a 12.8-MHz clock, resulting in a 3.2-MHz

bus frequency, with one cycle equal to 0.3125 μ sec. By choosing a prescaler value of 64, a time-counter-modulo register can calculate a cycle of 50 times the timer period in milliseconds. For example, for 1 second of blinking, you should set the time-counter modulo to 50,000, or \$C350 in hexadecimal.

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Using tables rather than polling in programming allows you to significantly reduce the size of firmware (**Reference 1**). You can download firmware assembly code from the online version of this De-

sign Idea at www.edn.com/110303dib. This method is applicable to any microcontroller. You can even increase the number of indicated states by using different blinking rates. **EDN**

REFERENCE

1 Raynus, Abel, "Tables ease microcontroller programming," *EDN*, April 22, 2010, pg 76, <http://bit.ly/brXaq7>.

Relay driver switches two relays with one pin

Gunther Kraut, PhD, Egmatung, Germany

Independently switching two loads, such as relays, usually requires two microcontroller-I/O ports. Two ports let you control the loads so that you can switch them both off, switch them both on, or switch one on and the other off. If you don't need both relays on at once, you can control the remaining three states using only one port. You can also use a port's high-impedance state to control the relays.

You can, for example, use this application to control a motor. The motor's rotational direction depends on which of its two phase lines you select. This approach works with either classic electromechanical relays or SSRs (solid-state relays). If both relays are open, the motor is off. For electromechanical relays, you can use the driver circuit in **Figure 1**. Setting the microcontroller pin to logic one causes Q_1 to turn on relay REL_1 , and the motor runs forward. Setting the pin to a logic zero turns on Q_2 , which turns on Q_3 . This action closes the switch of REL_2 and causes the motor to run in the opposite direction. If the microcontroller port is in a high-impedance state, Q_1 , Q_2 , and Q_3 cannot deliver current because the constant voltage of 1V at the base of Q_2 is too low to reach the threshold of the base-emitter junctions of Q_1 and Q_2 plus the diode drop of D_1 . Both relays are off, and the motor is off. The supply voltage through a voltage divider can provide the constant voltage of 1V. Free-wheeling diodes D_2 and D_3 prevent the collectors of Q_1 and Q_2 from overvoltage when the relay's coils are off. You can use almost any small-signal NPN and PNP transistors in this circuit. The selection of diode D_1 is also not critical.

The circuit is simpler for SSRs because

virtually all microcontroller ports directly drive the LEDs (**Figure 2**). A logic one supplies the LED in S_1 , whereas a logic zero supplies the LED in S_2 , making the corresponding TRIAC (triode-alter-

nating-current) switches conductive. If the port is in the high-impedance state, no current can flow through the LEDs because the constant dc voltage of 1.2V is below the sum of the threshold voltages of the LEDs. Voltage-dependent resistors R_3 and R_5 and snubber circuits C_1 , R_4 , C_2 , and R_6 protect the SSRs. These protection circuits' values depend on the respective load. **EDN**

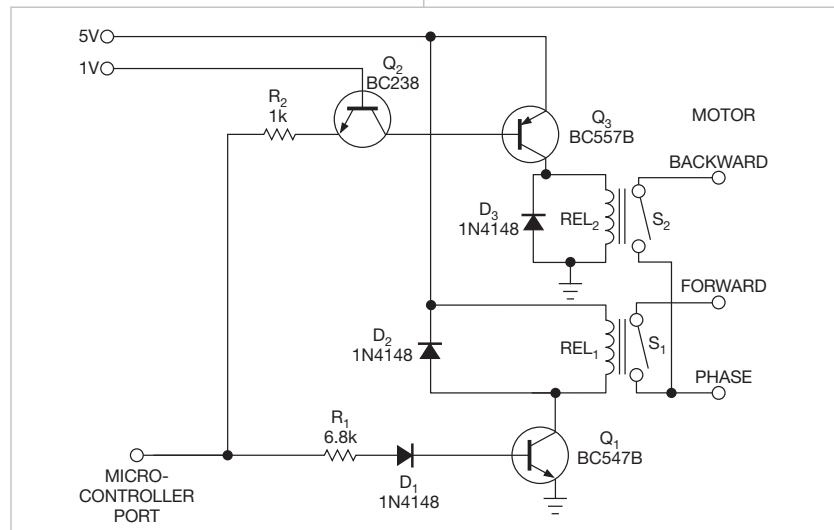


Figure 1 Relays respond to logic one, logic zero, and the high-impedance states of the microcontroller port.

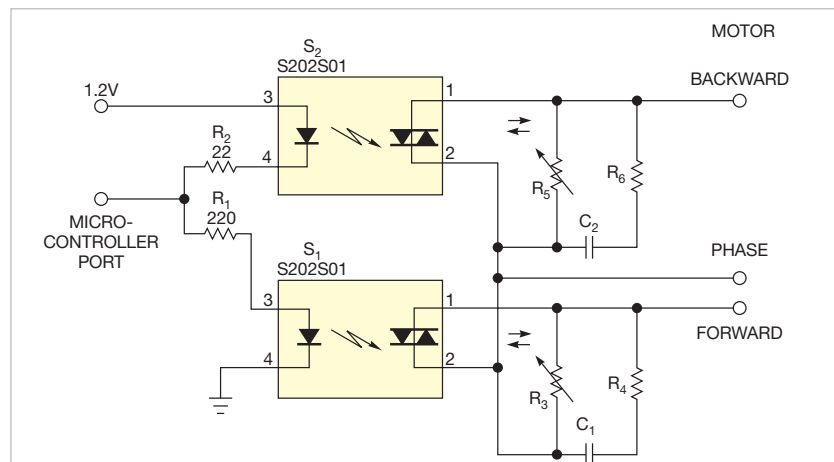


Figure 2 The circuit is simpler for SSRs because virtually all microcontroller ports directly drive the LEDs.

supplychain

LINKING DESIGN AND RESOURCES

Counterfeiting continues to grow, but the industry fights back

The problem of counterfeit components in the electronics supply chain continues despite increased law enforcement. The problem increased last year because of the lengthening leadtimes on many parts. To ensure continued production, many OEMs turned to the open market, in which counterfeit parts are plentiful. Yet, even as the flow of counterfeit parts increases, players in the industry have adopted mitigation strategies.

"When the market gets tight, counterfeiting goes up," says Ed Smith (**photo**, left), president of Avnet Electronics Marketing Americas (www.avnet.com). "Customers miss the forecast, and they start buying from unauthorized outlets. When the leadtimes come into line and the market stabilizes, counterfeiting comes down." In the past year, though, counterfeiting has become more pronounced in both the ups and the downs of the market. "Counterfeiting is higher than it was during the last stable period," says Smith. "The counterfeiting is worse than the last good times, and it's also worse than the last bad times."

Counterfeiters clean and remark scrap parts. "Some of the counterfeiters remove used parts from electronic scrap," says P Steve Gregory, president and chief executive officer of PC Components (www.pc-components.com). "They clean



up and resurface the parts so they look like new; they then remark the parts with identical date codes and lot numbers so they can pass them off as new."

Some counterfeiters are manufacturing their own parts. The manufacturing of parts sometimes occurs during downtime in the Asian plants where the original contracts occurred. "These counterfeiting manufacturers are getting better," says Gregory. "It used to be just generic capacitors, but now they're manufacturing more complex parts."

China is still the culprit in much of the electronics counterfeiting, but that situation could change if the Chinese government cracks down on counterfeiters. "Most of the counterfeit parts are still coming from China," says Mark Snyder, president of ERAI (www.era.com), which offers risk-management services. "We expected to see an insurgence from India, but it hasn't happened yet."

Cracking down on China won't necessarily curb the problem, he adds. "As we work with the government to get a handle on the counter-



feit parts coming out of China, it will just go to another part of the world."

One of the fears in the electronics industry is that counterfeit parts could find their way into the DOD (Department of Defense) or NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Administration) and compromise weapons or space systems, with catastrophic results. DOD and NASA are driving a lot of the law enforcement, according to Robin B Gray, Jr. (**photo**, right), president and chief executive officer of ECIA (Electronic Components Industry Association, www.eciaonline.org). "They have concerns about counterfeit products entering their supply chain," he says. "They seem to be on the verge of either regulation or maybe even legislation that would mandate that, whenever possible, manufacturers must buy components from an authorized source."

The recent practice in the military of buying outside authorized channels has heightened concern about counterfeit parts in the military-supply chain. "The military should be

nervous," says Avnet's Smith. "Your risk is negligible if you buy everything from an authorized distributor. The military used to buy only from authorized distributors. Now, they do some contracting at the lowest cost. Sometimes they don't have a good forecast, so sometimes they're buying outside the authorized market."

Law enforcement in this area has improved, and federal law-enforcement agents are arresting counterfeiters. "[The Customs Department] is beginning to develop policies, and those policies are working," says Smith. "They are making us sign agreements that we buy from the manufacturer and not the third parties, and they're asking us to test the products to make sure they come from the OEMs."

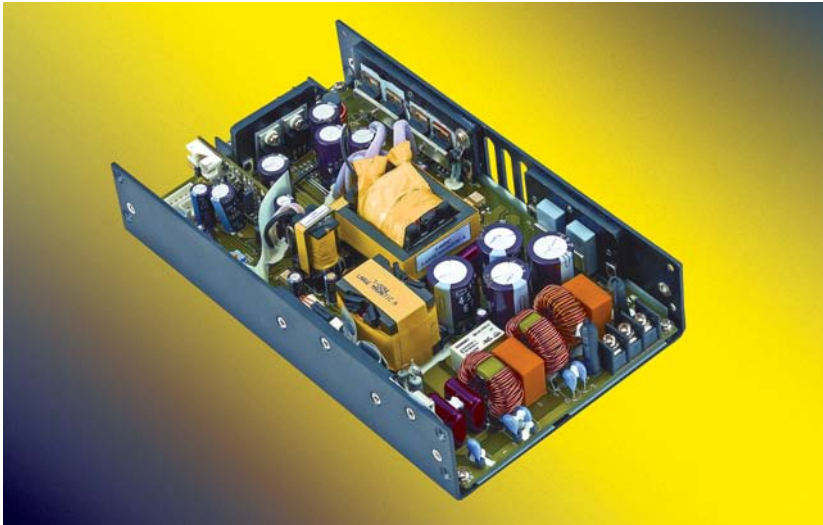
Companies are reluctant to reveal that they've run into counterfeit parts because it may be bad for business. "Law enforcement is doing a reasonable job, but they have to deal with companies that don't want to expose the fact that they bought counterfeit parts," says Smith.

Although counterfeiting is still a major problem in the electronics industry, vigilance and improved law enforcement are helping to curb the damage. "Counterfeiting is not going away anytime soon," says ERAI's Snyder. "Everyone in the supply chain is doing a better job. When we find a real counterfeiter, we send it to the federal authorities, and they chase it down."

—by Rob Spiegel

productroundup

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TDK-Lambda Americas, www.us.tdk-lambda.com/lp/products/css-series.htm

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I was working at a semiconductor manufacturer, and we had just designed an evaluation platform that showed the excellent performance of our new state-of-the-art product. This platform included the board with a power switch and LED indicators in a case, a power brick, and the software to run the board. We had done thorough worst-case design analyses, reliability studies, power-cycling studies, and all the rest of what you normally do for new products. We found no problems, the design got the go-ahead, and we put it into production.

A few weeks later, someone on our team discovered a less expensive capacitor with the same ratings as the original, and we made a BOM (bill-of-materials) change after completing the additional evaluation process on the new part. Within a couple of months of the change, though, a customer returned one of these platforms with a charred capacitor. You guessed it: It was the replacement part. We assumed that this was just a statistical failure and continued to use the replacement capacitors with no further thought.

Two or three days later, though, we received another return with the same problem. At this point, we began to suspect that the problem was more than one

of statistical failure. The 47- μF capacitor was rated at 16V and had 12V impressed upon it. There were four other identical capacitors on the board that seemed to be fine. While we were puzzling over the problem, the same problem occurred on one of the boards we kept in the lab.

We began to wonder what could cause the capacitor in this position to fail while identical capacitors in other positions did not. After a few days, we found that another capacitor in the same position on another laboratory board failed as we turned on the power switch on the board. The technician said that the other lab failure also happened at the power switch's turn-on. We now wondered what could cause a problem

only upon application of power. By this time, we had another return and a crisis on our hands.

Thinking about the power arrangement, we realized that we had shipped a power brick with the boards. The power brick was generally on when the power switch on the board was on, meaning that the filter capacitor of the power brick was fully charged to 12V. Could it be that the surge current, upon turning on the switch on the board, could destroy the capacitor?

We looked at the specifications of the original capacitor and the current capacitor for handling surge currents and found that neither one had a surge rating. But why didn't the power-cycling testing show any problems?

After much thought and discussion, we realized that the power FETs we used to turn power on and off in the power-cycling testing have a finite on-resistance that would effectively limit the surge current when we applied power. This could account for the lack of problems we found in the power-cycling tests. Each capacitor type, having no surge-current rating, was from a different manufacturer, meaning that the capacitors could reasonably have different capabilities for handling surge currents. Furthermore, we had no guarantee that the original capacitor type, without a surge-current rating, would never have a problem. The surge-current tolerance could well depend upon individual capacitors' manufacturing lots.

We added a 1 Ω wire-wound resistor in series with the board input to limit the inrush current that occurred upon turning on the power switch on the board. Afterwards, we never again encountered the problem. When building the platform, we had considered using a capacitor that had a reasonable surge rating, but such a capacitor would have cost more than a non-surge-rated capacitor plus the resistor. So we resolved a vexing problem and learned the value of anticipating a product's end use and the differences between automated testing and actual use. **EDN**

Nicholas Gray is an engineer in San Jose, CA.

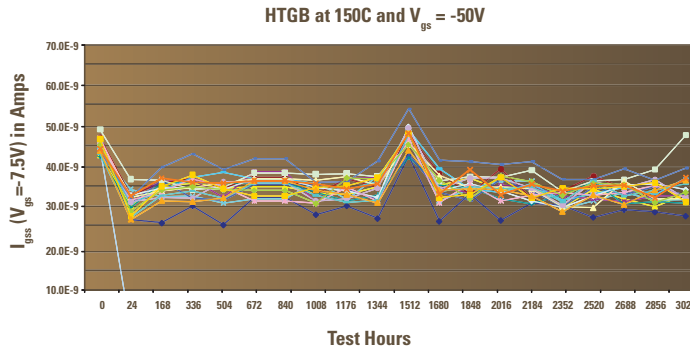


Figure 1: Long term stability of gate dielectric for first generation LV GaNpowIR HEMT, gate leakage measurement in nA, under accelerated stress conditions, Vgs=-50 V and 150°C over 3,000 hours. Lg= 0.3 μm, Wg = 960 nm.

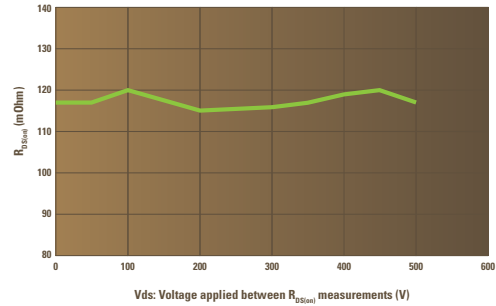


Figure 2: Stability of on state resistance for first generation 600 V GaNpowIR HEMT prototypes after the application of reverse bias, Vds, measured within 1 μs of switching to on state. Measured at 25°C.

in metal-semiconductor gated GaN-based HEMTs be eliminated. Commonly reported trapping related instability phenomenon such as current collapse or dynamic Rds(on) must likewise be minimized beyond concern. Figure 2 shows the Rds(on) measured within 1 μs of applying varying reverse bias conditions for early 600 V GaNpowIR prototypes. As can be seen, the commonly reported trapping effects have been effectively minimized in this platform.

It has been the resolution of the above issues that has occupied the energies of the team at International Rectifier over the past 7 years. It is with great satisfaction that these have been addressed sufficiently to support the targeted release of the first commercially available 600 V rated GaN-based power devices by the end of 2011, in agreement with the schedule announced in September 2008. The team of scientists and engineers at International Rectifier are to be congratulated on this remarkable achievement, which adds to the long heritage of innovation of the company.

The availability of cost effective, high quality, robust, high performance GaN-based power devices will enable truly innovative improvements in power electronic density, efficiencies and costs in the coming years. From more efficient solar panel based inverters to higher density efficient permanent magnet based motion control systems to lighter weight and denser inverters for electrified vehicles, as well as next generation integrated dc-dc power supplies for electronics, GaN-based power devices will revolutionize the industry. This technology platform strongly supports the objective to

enable lower system costs to promote the adoption of efficient systems that significantly reduce worldwide power consumption. Figure 3 shows the significant advantages of GaN-based power stages in high frequency, dense dc-dc converters designed to support electronic loads such as microprocessors. Figure 4 shows a comparison between state of the art 600 V rated silicon trench IGBTs and prototype first generation 600 V rated GaNpowIR devices in terms of conduction*switching loss figure of merit. As can be seen, the GaN-based devices perform remarkably better. A potential order of magnitude further improvement in performance for GaN-based power devices is possible over the coming decade.

It is tempting to relate the introduction of these devices to that of power MOSFETs some 30 years ago, which

revolutionized power electronics by enabling compact cost effective switching regulator based power supplies. However, it appears likely that this paradigm shift will have aspects of the greater character of the revolution in data processing which occurred through the development of large scale and very large scale integrated circuits. This is due to the intrinsically integratable nature of the lateral GaN-based device platform, allowing integration without performance compromise, a feat not possible in vertical silicon based power device technology. This will provide an entirely new level of performance, density, robustness and cost effectiveness.

It is indeed an exciting time in power electronics.

Dr. Michael A. Briere is an Executive Scientific Consultant at ACOO Enterprises LLC under contract to International Rectifier, where he has led the GaN effort since late 2004.

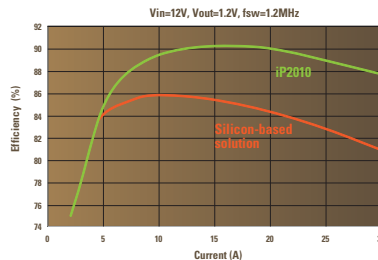


Figure 3: Measured conversion efficiency for 12 V to 1.2 V buck converters, including losses in driver and output inductor, for first generation low voltage GaNpowIR HEMT based power stage, iP2010 compared to results for state of the art silicon based solutions at a switching frequency of 1.2 MHz.

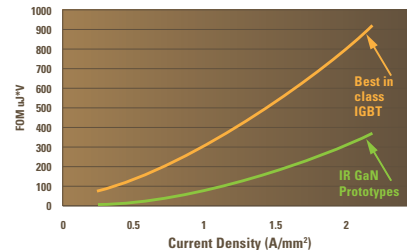
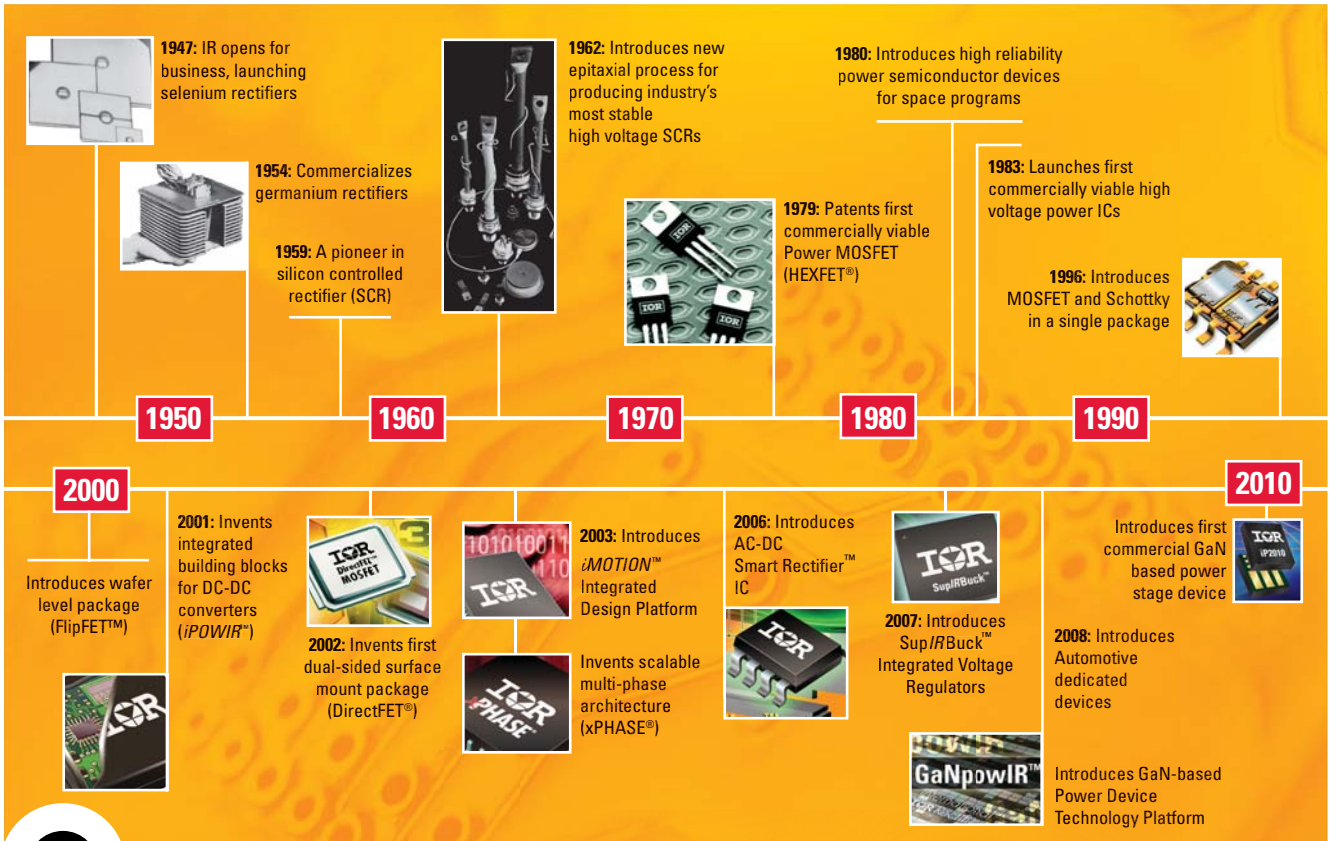


Figure 4: Measured performance figure of merit, Vds(on) * (Eon+Eoff), at 25°C in uJ*V, for first generation 600V GaNpowIR prototype HEMTs compared to best in class, latest generation trench IGBTs.

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