

# Analysis of Dead-Time Energy Loss in GaN-Based TCM Converters With an Improved GaN HEMT Model

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**Abstract**—For gallium nitride (GaN) based triangular current mode (TCM) applications, the dead-time has a significant effect on the switching loss. However, previous GaN high electron mobility transistor (HEMT) models focus on the turn-ON/OFF process without fully considering the effect of the dead-time. Hence, this article analyzes the switching transients under the superfluous and insufficient dead-time and evaluates the dead-time loss with an improved GaN HEMT model. The proposed model improves an existing GaN HEMT model by adding the voltage rising/falling time of the gate driver, the dynamic threshold voltage of Schottky-type GaN HEMTs, and an equivalent gate-drain capacitance obtained from the datasheet. Verified by a GaN-based double-pulse test, the proposed model can more accurately calculate the gate-source voltage and the self-commutated reverse conduction voltage. Verified by a GaN-based TCM Buck converter, the proposed model can predict the dead-time loss well and has higher simulation accuracy for the turn-ON process induced by the inappropriate dead-time.

**Index Terms**—Dead-time, device model, gallium nitride high electron mobility transistor (GaN HEMT), triangular current mode (TCM).

## I. INTRODUCTION

GALLIUM nitride (GaN) high electron mobility transistors (HEMTs) are favored for converters with high switching frequency due to the characteristics of low junction capacitance, small gate charge, and improved reverse recovery [1]. Besides, GaN HEMTs show the advantage of ultralow turn-OFF loss [2], which is preferred for zero-voltage-switching (ZVS) applications. In recent years, a novel ZVS switching technology, triangular current mode (TCM) modulation method, has been developed [3] and [4]. By using GaN devices, high-frequency TCM converters can achieve high power density with high efficiency [5], [6], [7]. Liu et al. [5] proposed a 1.2 kW MHz

dual-phase interleaved totem-pole PFC with 99% efficiency and 220 W/in<sup>3</sup> power density. A 1 kW MHz interleaved single-phase inverter is verified to achieve a peak efficiency of 98% and 135 W/in<sup>3</sup> power density in literature [6].

For TCM converters, the energy stored in the output junction capacitor ( $E_{oss}$ ) during the turn-OFF transition will be dumped before the turn-ON process, so the energy dissipation of the turn-OFF transition is ultralow. Compared with the turn-OFF loss, the loss induced by dead-time may be more dominant in the switching loss. When the dead-time is insufficient, ZVS is not achievable, resulting in an extra turn-ON loss. When the dead-time is superfluous, the freewheeling transistor will conduct reversely under the off gate driving voltage (Although e-mode GaN HEMT does not have a body-diode, it demonstrates a self-commutated reverse conduction (SCRC) mechanism, which provides diode-like behavior [1].), which will lead to an extra reverse conduction loss. Compared with the voltage drop on a MOSFET body diode, the SCRC voltage drop is usually quite higher, so GaN-based converters will suffer a huger reverse conduction loss during the redundant dead-time [8].

Since the turn-OFF time of a GaN device is influenced by operating parameters, such as turn-OFF current ( $I_{OFF}$ ), input voltage, and output voltage, the optimal dead-time, which corresponds to the minimum switching loss will vary with operating conditions. As described in [9], when  $I_{OFF}$  is reduced from the rated to 1 A, the turn-OFF time will increase by around 20 times. Therefore, if a relatively short dead-time is used to restrain the reverse conduction loss for heavy loads, huge extra turn-ON losses may arise when the load gets light. Although some dynamic dead-time adjustment methods have been proposed to restrain the dead-time loss [10], [11], [12], [13], [14], [15], they require extra high-speed detection circuits [10], [11], [12] or precalculated look-up tables for the dead-time [13], [14], [15], which increases the system complexity. Therefore, fixed dead-time is still widely used in TCM applications [4] and [5], where the effect of dead-time needs to be assessed during the design process for efficiency evaluation, maximum junction temperature prediction, and thermal design.

Extra losses under different dead-time were experimentally investigated in [16], [17], and [18]. Although the experimental method is accurate, it is specific to a particular converter and requires a lot of experiments for converters with a wide

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operating range. In literature [19], [20], [21], [22], [23], [24], [25], [26], [27], [28], [29], [30], [31], device models are established to evaluate the switching process of transistors. Based on the specific implementation method, these device models can be divided into the physics-based model [19] and [20], the behavioral model [21], [22], [23], and the analytical model [8], [13], [14], [15], [24], [25], [26], [27], [28], [29], [30], and [31]. Physics-based models are established based on the physical structure of semiconductors [19] and [20]. They can simulate experimental results very well, but are usually time-consuming and rely on the physical model from the device manufacturer. Behavior models are widely used in simulation software (e.g., PSpice) because they are faster than physics-based models and can provide relatively accurate results [21], [22], [23]. However, behavior models are not suitable for processing massive data [15] and [31]. Therefore, analytical models are proposed for faster calculation speed and the convenience to achieve batch processing for massive data.

Analytical models are based on circuit equations, where the challenge is how to improve the accuracy. In literature [8], [24], [25], and [26], the switching process is divided into several switching modes, and corresponding equations are established to describe these modes. Based on these equations, the analytical expressions of state variables (e.g., the drain-source voltage) or switching losses are solved to evaluate the switching performance. In literature [27], [28], and [29], the nonlinear parameters of devices such as the junction capacitance are expressed by the fitting functions of state variables. Based on circuit equations with fitting functions, analytical expressions of the transient waveforms are solved, which can reflect the nonlinear characteristics of devices. Literatures [13], [14], [15], [30], and [31] calculate the numerical solution of the switching transient waveforms instead of the analytical expressions. In these models, the nonlinear characteristics are extracted from the datasheet and updated in the solution flow. To distinguish from the models with analytical expressions [8], [24], [25], [26], [27], [28], and [29], the models proposed by [13], [14], [15], [30], and [31] are called transient models in this article. Compared with the model with analytical expressions, the transient model is more complicated but more accurate because it can reflect the nonlinear characteristics of devices, including the parasitic inductance and the coupling of the gate loop and power loop. Compared with the physics-based model and behavior model, the transient model is simpler and can help to make a better understanding of the switching transient process at the circuit level [15] and [31]. Moreover, the transient model is easy to implement in MATLAB with the advantages of good batch processing capacity. Therefore, this article uses the transient model to evaluate the switching process.

For transient models in literature [13], [14], [15], [30], and [31], the gate driver voltage ( $V_g$ ) is approximated as an ideal step voltage source. This approximation, however, will cause a considerable error in the calculation of the gate delay period because of the ultralow gate charge ( $Q_g$ ) of GaN devices. Besides, these models have not considered the dynamic threshold voltage ( $V_{th}$ ) of Schottky-type GaN HEMTs, which affects the turn-ON process under insufficient dead-time and the SCRC voltage

[23]. Moreover, according to the datasheet, the total  $Q_g$  during the turn-ON process is higher than the sum of the gate-source charge and gate-drain charge obtained from the “Typical  $C_{iss}$ ,  $C_{rss}$ , and  $C_{oss}$  versus  $v_{ds}$ ” curve. Therefore, if the gate-drain capacitance ( $C_{gd}$ ) is only obtained from the “ $C_{rss}$  versus  $v_{ds}$ ” curve, the calculated turn-ON transition is significantly faster than the practical.

This article aims to evaluate the dead-time loss in GaN-based TCM converters with an improved GaN HEMT model, which can help designers better grasp the effect of the dead-time. Since predicting the turn-OFF time of the device is the basis for evaluating the dead-time loss, first, this article proposed an improved transient model to simulate the turn-OFF process of GaN HEMT more accurately. In the proposed model, the step  $V_g$  is replaced by a ramp  $V_g$  to calculate the gate delay time more accurately, and the dynamic  $V_{th}$  of Schottky-type GaN HEMTs is considered. To calculate the dynamic  $V_{th}$ , a simplified method based on a double-pulse test (DPT) is used to extract the capacitance between the floating  $p$ -GaN layer and gate ( $C_{sh}$ ) [23]. Then, the effect of dead-time on TCM converters is analyzed. Although the method to calculate the dead-time for realizing ZVS in TCM converters has been given in the previous literature [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], huge reverse conduction loss will arise at heavy load if the dead-time is selected according to the lightest  $I_{OFF}$ , especially for ac applications. To obtain the lowest comprehensive loss, the selection of dead-time should be the tradeoff between the reverse conduction loss and the extra turn-ON loss (caused by insufficient dead-time) rather than simply eliminating one or the other. Therefore, the turn-ON process under insufficient dead-time is considered. Besides, in traditional designs, a long dead-time is often proposed to ensure ZVS at small  $I_{OFF}$ . However, due to the low filter inductance of TCM, a superfluous dead-time could induce the extra turn-ON loss too, which is also analyzed in this article. Based on the analysis, the proposed model is used to theoretically evaluate the dead-time-related loss. To improve the simulation accuracy for the turn-ON process, according to  $Q_g$  provided by the datasheet, the proposed model adds an equivalent capacitance to the  $C_{gd}$  obtained from the “ $C_{rss}$  versus  $v_{ds}$ ” curve.

The rest of this article is organized as follows. In Section II, the switching process under TCM modulation is introduced. In Section III, the improved GaN HEMT model is established and verified by a DPT. In Section IV, the effect of dead-time on TCM converter is analyzed, and the proposed model is used to evaluate the dead-time loss. In Section V, a GaN-based TCM Buck converter is established to verify the dead-time loss calculation of the proposed model. Finally, Section VI concludes this article.

## II. BRIEF INTRODUCTION OF TCM

To realize high power density with high efficiency, Marxgut et al. [3] proposed a soft-switching modulation method called TCM modulation due to its triangular-shaped inductor currents. In TCM, before the transistor is turned on, an extra reverse current (from the source to the drain) is introduced to discharge the drain-source capacitance ( $C_{ds}$ ) of the device to the SCRC

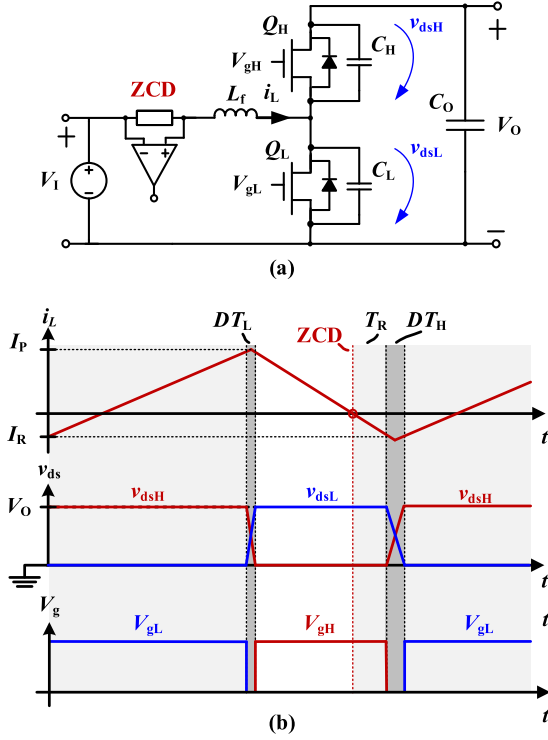


Fig. 1. (a) Equivalent circuit of the boost circuit. (b) Typical TCM operation waveforms.

voltage. Take the boost circuit as an example, the equivalent circuit and typical TCM operation waveforms are shown in Fig. 1(a) and (b) [4], where  $Q_H$  and  $Q_L$  are the high-side and low-side transistors, and  $C_H$  and  $C_L$  are their output junction capacitors. When  $Q_L$  is ON,  $V_I$  is applied on the filter inductance ( $L_f$ ), and the inductor current ( $i_L$ ) rises linearly. After  $i_L$  reaches the desired peak value ( $I_P$ ),  $Q_L$  is turned OFF. When the dead-time  $DT_L$  is enough,  $i_L$  will discharge  $v_{dsH}$  to the SCRC voltage, and then  $Q_H$  can be turned ON at zero voltage. After  $Q_H$  conducts reversely,  $i_L$  falls linearly. In TCM control, based on the zero-current detection of  $i_L$ , a reverse inductor current ( $I_R$ ) is introduced by a programmed delay ( $T_R$ ). After  $T_R$ ,  $Q_H$  is turned OFF, and  $C_L$  is discharged by  $I_R$ . When the dead-time  $DT_H$  is enough,  $i_L$  will discharge  $v_{dsL}$  to the SCRC voltage, and then  $Q_L$  can be turned ON at zero voltage.

Based on the abovementioned analysis, the difference between TCM and traditional continuous conduction mode (CCM) converter can be concluded as follows.

- 1) When the dead-time is enough, both  $Q_H$  and  $Q_L$  are turned ON at zero voltage, so the turn-ON loss is ignorable. Besides, since  $E_{OSS}$  is dumped during the dead-time, it should be subtracted from the traditional loss calculation (1).
- 2) To realize the triangular-shaped inductor current with a high switching frequency, the filter inductance used in the TCM converter is usually much smaller.
- 3) Both  $Q_L$  and  $Q_H$  are turned OFF at positive  $I_{OFF}$  (from drain to source), so communication between the high-side and low-side transistors happens as soon as the transistor is

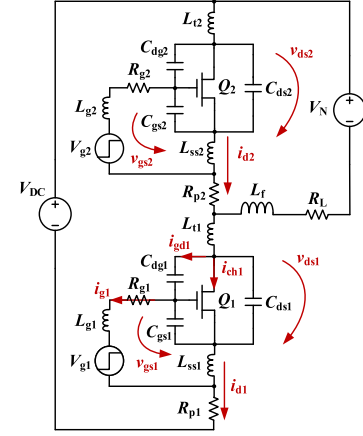


Fig. 2. Equivalent circuit for GaN HEMTs.

turned OFF

$$E_{off} = \int i_d \cdot v_{ds} dt. \quad (1)$$

### III. IMPROVED GAN HEMT MODEL

#### A. Equivalent Circuits of the Proposed Model

To evaluate the turn-OFF loss and calculate the turn-OFF time for dead-time loss evaluation, this article improves the previous transient models [13], [14], [15], [30], and [31] for GaN HEMT. Fig. 2 shows the equivalent circuit used to analyze the switching process of GaN HEMTs. Since both the upper and lower switches of TCM converters are turned OFF at positive  $I_{OFF}$ , their turn-OFF process can be analyzed, as  $Q_1$  in Fig. 2, which is turned OFF at  $I_P$  and  $-I_R$ , respectively. Around the ideal HEMTs  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$ , there are the junction capacitance ( $C_{gs}$  for the gate-source capacitance,  $C_{gd}$  for the gate-drain capacitance, and  $C_{ds}$  for the drain-source capacitance), the stray resistance ( $R_{p2}$  for the upper leg,  $R_{p1}$  for the lower leg, and  $R_L$  for the filter inductor), and the parasitic inductance ( $L_g$  for the gate stray inductance,  $L_t$  for the power loop stray inductance, and  $L_{ss}$  for the common-source inductance).  $V_{DC}$  is the turn-OFF dc voltage, which is  $V_O$  for boost circuits.  $V_N$  is an equivalent output voltage that is determined by the connection mode of the output filter capacitor. Take the boost circuit in Fig. 1 as an example,  $V_N$  is  $V_I$  for the upper switch  $Q_H$ , while  $V_N$  is “ $V_O - V_I$ ” for the lower switch  $Q_L$ .

As proposed in the literature [31], the transistor has two different turn-OFF processes, as shown in Fig. 3(a) and (b). In the beginning, the gate-source voltage  $v_{gs1}$  is the on gate voltage ( $V_{GON}$ ), and  $Q_1$  is ON. At  $t_1$ , the output voltage of the gate driver ( $V_{g1}$ ) goes to the OFF gate voltage ( $V_{GOFF}$ ), and  $v_{gs1}$  starts to decrease. Accordingly, the inductor current  $i_L$  at  $t_1$  is  $I_{OFF}$ . Before  $v_{gs1}$  falls below the Miller voltage  $V_{mil}$  ( $V_{mil} = V_{th} + i_L / g_m$ :  $g_m$  for the trans-conductance, and  $V_{th}$  for the threshold voltage),  $Q_1$  remains ON. At  $t_2$ ,  $v_{gs1}$  falls to  $V_{mil}$ . Controlled by  $v_{gs1}$ , the channel current of  $Q_1$  ( $i_{ch1}$ ) starts to decrease, and the current flows into  $C_{ds1}$  and  $C_{ds2}$  to force  $v_{ds1}$  to rise ( $v_{ds2}$  to fall). Since the charging current of  $C_{gd1}$  ( $i_{gd1}$ ) induced by  $dv_{ds1}/dt$  occupies

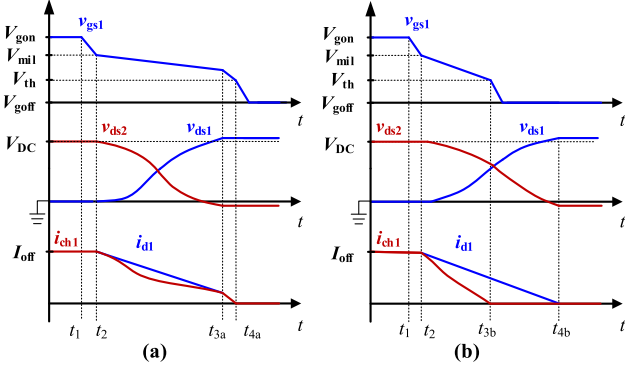


Fig. 3. Equivalent turn-OFF waveforms. (a) Process 1. (b) Process 2.

the gate current ( $i_{g1}$ ),  $v_{gs1}$  will enter a platform region known as the Miller platform.

*Process 1* [see Fig. 3(a)]: When  $Q_1$  is turned OFF at high  $I_{OFF}$ , higher  $i_L$  can provide a larger current to charge  $C_{ds}$ , which leads to higher  $i_{gd1}$ . When  $i_{g1}$  is fully occupied by  $i_{gd1}$ ,  $v_{gs1}$  cannot further decrease during the  $v_{ds1}$  rising process “ $t_2 - t_{3a}$ ”. This  $v_{gs}$  platform will not disappear until  $v_{ds2}$  decreases to the SCRC voltage ( $V_{RC}$ ), which can be calculated as “ $-V_{th} + V_{gOFF} + R_{ON} * i_{d2}$ ” for GaN HEMTs. At  $t_{3a}$ ,  $v_{ds2}$  decreases to  $V_{RC}$ ,  $Q_2$  conducts reversely, so  $v_{ds1}$  is clamped to  $V_{dc} - V_{RC}$ . Since  $dv_{ds1}/dt$  gets 0,  $i_{gd1}$  disappears and  $v_{gs1}$  begins to decrease further. Then, when  $v_{gs1}$  falls below  $V_{th}$  at  $t_{4a}$ ,  $i_{ch1}$  falls to 0 A, and Process 1 ends. Similarly, besides large  $I_{OFF}$ , a slow gate driver (e.g., huge  $R_{g1}$ ), which cannot provide enough  $i_{g1}$ , will also lead to Process 1.

*Process 2* [see Fig. 3(b)]: When  $Q_1$  is turned OFF at a small  $I_{OFF}$  or with a fast gate driver (e.g., small  $R_{g1}$ , or negative  $V_{gOFF}$ ),  $i_{gd1}$  cannot cover  $i_{g1}$ , so  $v_{gs1}$  keeps falling. Therefore,  $v_{gs1}$  falls below  $V_{th}$  earlier than  $v_{ds2}$  falls below  $V_{RC}$ . After  $t_{3b}$ ,  $v_{gs1}$  falls below  $V_{th}$  and the channel of  $Q_1$  is OFF, so all of  $i_L$  flows into the junction capacitors to discharge  $v_{ds2}$  (charge  $v_{ds1}$ ). When  $v_{ds2}$  is discharged to  $V_{RC}$  at  $t_{4b}$ ,  $Q_2$  conducts reversely, and Process 2 ends.

After Process 1/Process 2,  $Q_1$  has been fully turned OFF. Then, the parasitic inductance will resonate with the junction capacitance, which generates a voltage overshoot at  $v_{ds1}$ . According to the equivalent turn-OFF waveforms, the turn-OFF process can be divided into five switching periods: the gate delay period ( $t_1 - t_2$ ), the voltage rising period ( $t_2 - t_{3a}$  or  $t_{3b}$ ), the current falling period ( $t_{3a} - t_{4a}$ ), the  $C_{OSS}$  charging period ( $t_{3b} - t_{4b}$ ), and the parasitic resonance period (after  $t_{4a}$  and  $t_{4b}$ ). The equivalent circuits of these switching periods are shown in Fig. 4(a)–(e). Since  $Q_2$  is OFF during these periods,  $v_{ds2}$  is represented by the output capacitor voltage ( $v_{co2}$ ). Based on the equivalent circuits, (8)–(15) is derived to describe the turn-OFF transition. Based on (2)–(13), the state (T1) are derived to calculate the gate delay period with the initial conditions:  $v_{gs1} = V_{gON}$ ,  $i_{g1} = 0$ ,  $v_{ds1} = R_{ON} * I_{OFF}$ ,  $i_{d1} = I_{OFF}$ ,  $v_{ds2} = V_{dc} - R_{ON} * I_{OFF}$ ,  $i_L = I_{OFF}$ , which is shown in the appendix. Based on (8), (9), and (11)–(14), the state (T2) are derived to calculate the voltage rising period. Based on (8), (9), (11), (14), and (15), the state (T3) are derived

to calculate the current falling period. Since the only difference between the  $C_{OSS}$  charging interval and the voltage rising interval is that the channel of  $Q_1$  is OFF, the  $C_{OSS}$  charging interval can be calculated by T2 with  $g_m = 0$ . Similarly, the parasitic resonance period can be calculated by T3 with  $g_m = 0$ .

To reflect the nonlinear parameters such as the junction capacitance, the state (T1)–(T3) are solved by the iteration calculation method [13], [14], [15], [30], and [31]. The proposed model can be implemented in MATLAB to calculate the transient waveforms numerically.

### B. Improvement of the Proposed Model

In the previous works [13], [14], [15], [30], and [31],  $V_g$  is regarded as an idea step voltage. However, shown as the yellow curve in Fig. 5, the practical unloaded  $V_g$  has a falling time of around 14 ns. Because  $Q_g$  of GaN devices is ultrasmall, using the step  $V_g$ , the  $v_{gs1}$  falling speed obtained by simulation will be considerably faster than the practical. To increase the simulation accuracy, the proposed model uses a ramp  $V_g$ , as the blue curve in Fig. 5, which can be obtained from the datasheet of the gate drive IC without experiment.

In the previous works [13], [14], [15], [30], and [31],  $V_{th}$  is constant. However, according to literature [23], the Schottky-type GaN HEMTs show the dynamic threshold voltage related to  $v_{ds}$  and  $V_{dc}$ , which is caused by the charge stored in the floating  $p$ -GaN layer. As proposed by literature [23], the relationship between the increment of threshold voltage ( $\Delta V_{th}$ ),  $v_{ds}$ , and  $V_{dc}$  can be expressed by (2), where  $C_{sh}$  is the capacitance between the floating  $p$ -GaN layer and the gate. For  $Q_2$ , the SCRC voltage is “ $V_{gOFF} - V_{th} + R_{ON} * i_d$ ”, which is affected by the dynamic threshold voltage. To accurately calculate the conduction loss during the redundant dead-time, this article adds  $\Delta V_{th}$  to the transient model. In literature [23], to extract  $C_{sh}$ , dynamic  $V_{th}$  is experimentally obtained by measuring the “ $i_d$  versus  $v_{gs}$ ” characteristics after voltage transition (The GaN HEMT is first stressed at a high  $V_{dc}$  and then switched to lower voltage  $v_{ds}$ ), which needs complex measuring equipment. Since the expression of  $\Delta V_{th}$  has been confirmed,  $C_{sh}$  can be extracted more simply based on DPT, which will be analyzed following:

$$\Delta V_{th} = \left( \int_{0V}^{V_{dc}} C_{gd} dv_{ds} - \int_{0V}^{v_{ds}} C_{gd} dv_{ds} \right) / C_{sh}. \quad (2)$$

### C. Experimental Verification

A GaN-based DPT circuit shown in Fig. 6 is established to verify the improvement of the proposed model in the turn-OFF waveforms simulation. The used device is GS66516T from GaNSystems, which is driven by Si8271-GB. The waveforms are recorded by a LeCroy oscilloscope. The drain current of the device is tested by the shunt SSDN-10 from T and M research products. To ensure that the measurements of  $v_{gs1}$ ,  $v_{ds1}$ , and  $i_{d1}$  have a common ground, the shunt is reversely connected, as depicted in Fig. 6(a), so the tested  $i_{d1}$  is inverted. The electric parameters used in the DPT circuit are listed in Table I. The parasitic parameters are extracted by Q3D simulation. The used  $L_f$  is 52  $\mu$ H.



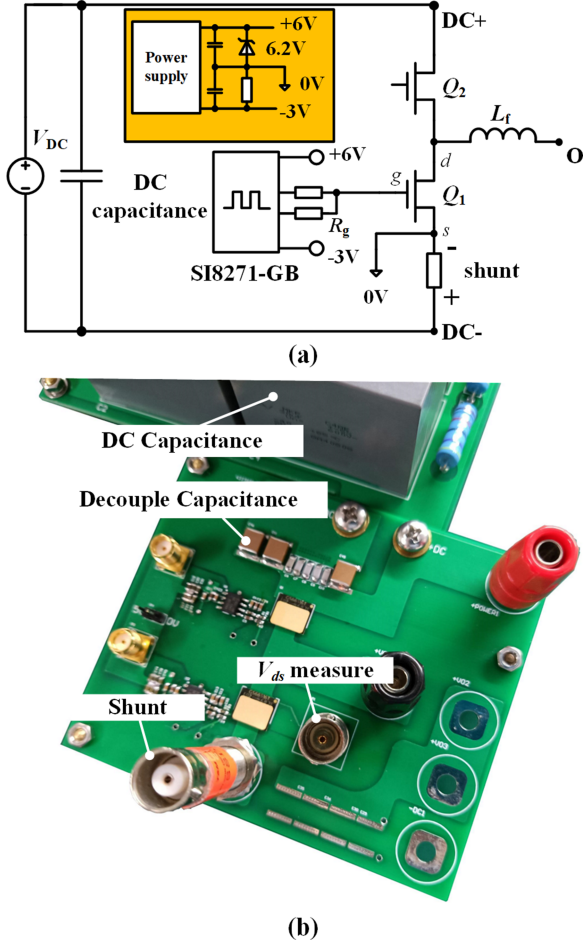
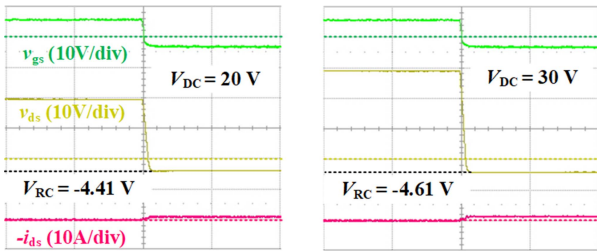
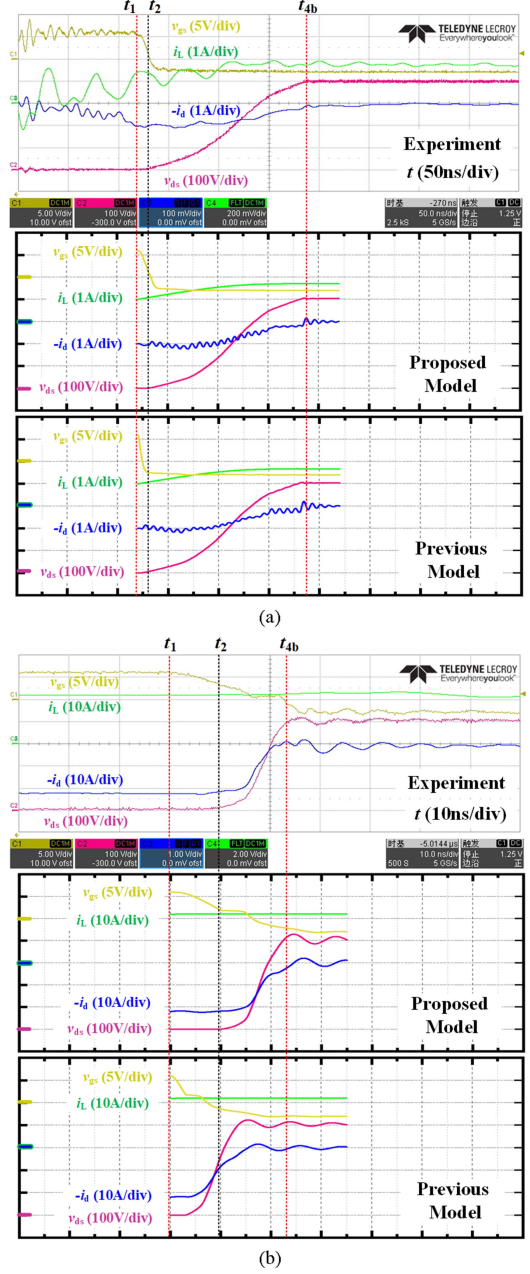


Fig. 6. (a) Schematic of the DPT circuit. (b) Prototype of DPT circuit.


 Fig. 7.  $V_{RC}$  at 20/30 V  $V_{dc}$ .

#### IV. MODEL-BASED EVALUATION OF THE DEAD-TIME LOSS IN GAN-BASED TCM CONVERTERS

After  $Q_1$  is fully turned OFF, the zero-voltage turn ON of  $Q_2$  can be realized. To minimize the switching loss, the channel of  $Q_2$  should be turned ON at  $t_{4a}$  or  $t_{4b}$ , which means  $v_{gs2}$  rises to  $V_{th}$  at  $t_{4a}$  or  $t_{4b}$ . However, because the turn-OFF time “ $t_1 - t_{4a}/t_{4b}$ ” are affected by operating parameters such as  $I_{OFF}$  and  $V_{dc}$ , a fixed dead-time can not fit all the working conditions. As proposed in literature [8], losses caused by inappropriate dead-time could dominate the switching loss. Therefore, in this section, the dead-time transients are analyzed, and the proposed model is used to evaluate the dead-time loss.


 Fig. 8. Waveforms acquired by the experiment, the proposed model, and the previous model. (a) At 1 A  $I_{OFF}$ . (b) At 22 A  $I_{OFF}$ .

#### A. Analysis of Dead-Time Effect

Fig. 9(a) and (b) shows the operation waveforms under superfluous dead-time (for simplicity, the transfer delay of the gate signal is ignored, which will be discussed following). After  $Q_1$  is fully turned OFF at  $t_{4a}/t_{4b}$ , the extra reverse conduction loss arises in “ $t_{4a}/t_{4b}$  to  $t_6$ ” because of the relatively high SCRC voltage. At  $t_5$ , the turn-ON gate drive signal comes, and then  $v_{gs2}$  rises to  $V_{th}$  at  $t_6$ . The extra energy dissipation caused by the redundant dead-time ( $E_{RC}$ ) can be calculated by

$$E_{RC} = \int_{t_{4a}/t_{4b}}^{t_6} i_{d2}(V_{goff} - V_{th})dt \quad (4)$$

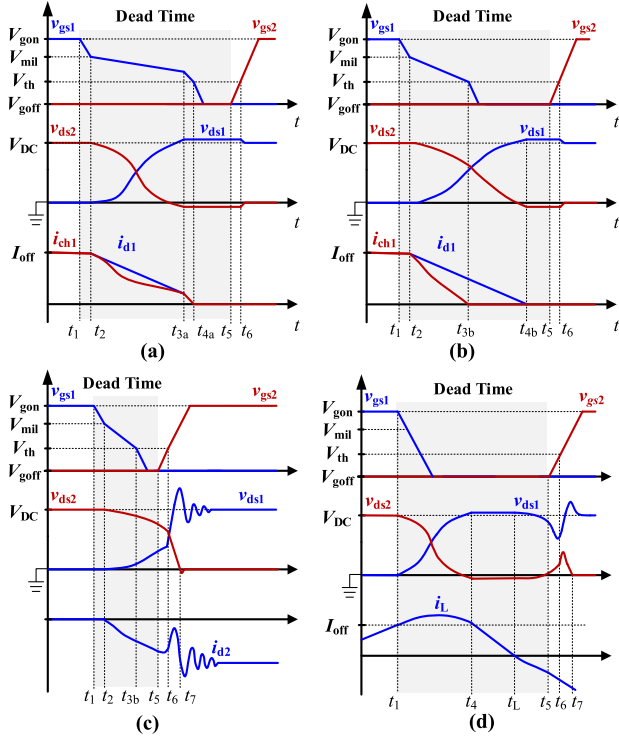


Fig. 9. Equivalent waveforms at different dead-time. (a) Process 1 under superfluous dead-time. (b) Process 2 under superfluous dead-time. (c) Turn-ON process under insufficient dead-time. (d) Turn-ON process under superfluous dead-time.

When the dead-time is insufficient, its effect depends on  $v_{gs1}$ . If the channel of  $Q_2$  is turned ON when  $v_{gs1}$  is above  $V_{th}$  ( $t_1 - t_{4a}$ , or  $t_1 - t_{3b}$ ), the short-circuit through the channel of  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  happens. Since the huge short-circuit current will damage the devices, this situation must be avoided.

When  $Q_2$  is turned ON between  $t_{3b}$  and  $t_{4b}$ , the short-circuit will not happen because  $v_{gs1}$  has fallen below  $V_{th}$ . However, since  $v_{ds2}$  has not fallen below  $V_{RC}$ ,  $Q_2$  is turned ON at a voltage below  $V_{dc}$ , which will cause extra turn-ON loss compared with the zero-voltage turn ON. As shown in Fig. 9(c),  $v_{gs2}$  rises to  $V_{th}$  at  $t_6$  before  $v_{ds2}$  falls to 0 V. Since the channel of  $Q_1$  is OFF,  $V_{dc}$  charges  $C_{ds1}$  through the channel of  $Q_2$  ( $C_{ds2}$  discharges at the same time). These processes will make  $i_{d1}$  and  $i_{d2}$  increase sharply and increase the  $v_{ds1}$  rising speed ( $v_{ds2}$  falling speed). When  $v_{ds2}$  falls to  $R_{ON} * i_{d2}$  at  $t_7$ , the turn-ON process of  $Q_2$  ends. Since the high current and voltage are applied on the channel of  $Q_2$  during “ $t_6 - t_7$ ”, the extra turn-ON energy ( $E_{TO}$ ) is dissipated, which can be calculated by (5) [Due to the increase of  $i_{d1}$  and  $i_{d2}$ , extra energy is dissipated in the loop resistance, which is also added in (5)]

$$E_{TO} = \int_{t_6}^{t_7} (v_{ds2} i_{ch2} + i_{d2}^2 R_{p2} + i_{d1}^2 R_{p1}) dt. \quad (5)$$

Since  $E_{RC}$  is relatively light at small  $i_{d2}$ , a long dead-time is often recommended for small  $I_{OFF}$  in traditional CCM converters. However, using a superfluous dead-time could cause an extra turn-ON loss in TCM converters. After  $Q_1$  is fully

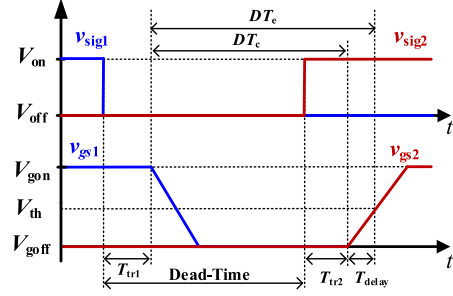


Fig. 10. Relationship between  $DT_c$ ,  $DT_e$  and the dead-time.

turned OFF at  $t_4$ , the negative voltage is applied on  $L_f$ , which forces  $i_L$  to decrease. In TCM converters,  $L_f$  is usually much smaller than in traditional CCM converters, so  $i_L$  decreases more rapidly. In addition,  $i_L$  is easier to fall to 0 A at smaller  $I_{off}$  (eg.,  $-I_R$ ). Fig. 9(d) depicts the equivalent waveforms of the turn-ON process under superfluous dead-time. At  $t_L$ ,  $i_L$  falls below 0 A, and  $Q_2$  stops reversely conducting. Because  $Q_2$  has not been turned ON,  $C_{OSS}$  will resonate with  $L_f$ , which makes  $v_{ds2}$  rise again. At  $t_6$ , the channel of  $Q_2$  is turned on at a voltage below  $V_{dc}$ , and the subsequent process is the same as depicted in Fig. 9(c) previously.

## B. Equivalent Circuits of the Dead-Time Transients

In general, the dead-time refers to the interval between the ON-signal of the upper and bottom transistor sent by the controller. In the proposed model,  $DT_c$  and  $DT_e$  are used, which are depicted in Fig. 10. After the control signal ( $v_{sig1}$  and  $v_{sig2}$ ) goes ON or OFF, it takes the transfer time ( $T_{tr1}$  and  $T_{tr2}$ ) to act on the gate of devices. The transfer time is affected by several factors, such as the gate driver and layout, and is almost unchanged with the operation condition. For converters with the symmetrical signal layout,  $T_{tr1}$  and  $T_{tr2}$  are mainly dominated by the propagation delay of the gate drive isolator, which can be obtained from the datasheet. After the turn-ON signal of  $Q_2$  is given, the gate delay time  $T_{delay}$  can be calculated by T3 with the initial condition:  $v_{gs1} = V_{gOFF}$ , and terminal conditions:  $v_{gs1} = V_{th}$ . Accordingly,  $DT_c$  can be calculated by “dead-time -  $T_{tr1} + T_{tr2}$ ,” and  $DT_e$  can be calculated by “ $DT_c + T_{delay}$ .”

As analyzed previously, when  $DT_e$  ends in the gate delay period, the voltage rising period, and the current falling period ( $v_{gs1} > V_{th}$ ), short-circuit happens because  $v_{gs1}$  is above  $V_{th}$ , which must be avoided. When  $DT_e$  ends in the  $C_{OSS}$  charging period ( $v_{gs1} < V_{th}$ ), the device is turned ON at the voltage below  $V_{dc}$ , as depicted in Fig. 9(c). According to the equivalent waveforms, the turn-ON process can be divided into three switching periods: the turn-ON delay period, the voltage falling period, and the conduction period.

*Turn-ON delay period* [see  $t_5 - t_6$  in Fig. 9(c)]: Fig. 4(f) shows the equivalent circuits. When the simulation time  $T = DT_c$ , the final value of  $v_{ds1}$ ,  $v_{co2}$ ,  $i_{d1}$ , and  $i_L$  is saved as the initial conditions of the turn-ON process. For  $Q_2$ ,  $i_L$  is reversed, and the output voltage is  $V_{dc} - V_N$ . Because the turn-ON delay period is symmetrical to the  $C_{OSS}$  charging period, it can be calculated by

T2 ( $g_m = 0$ ) by changing the state variables of  $Q_1$  to  $Q_2$ . When  $v_{gs2}$  rises to  $V_{th}$ , this period ends.

**Voltage falling period** [ $t_6 - t_7$  in Fig. 9(c)]: Fig. 4(g) shows the equivalent circuits. Since the channel of  $Q_2$  is controlled by  $v_{gs2}$ , it is represented by a controlled current source. Because the voltage falling period is symmetric with the voltage rising period, it can be calculated by T2 by changing the state variables of  $Q_1$  to  $Q_2$ . When  $v_{ds2}$  falls below  $-i_L * R_{ON}$ ,  $Q_2$  is fully turned ON and this period ends.

**Conduction period** [after  $t_7$  in Fig. 9(c)]: Fig. 4(h) shows the equivalent circuits. Since  $Q_2$  has been fully turned ON, it is regarded as the ON-resistance  $R_{ON}$ . the conduction period is symmetric with the gate delay period, so it can be calculated by (T1) by changing the state variables of  $Q_1$  to  $Q_2$ .

When  $DT_e$  ends after  $t_{4a}/t_{4b}$ , the effect is dependent on  $i_L$ . If  $DT_e$  ends before  $i_L$  falls below 0, there is only  $E_{RC}$  generated in the parasitic resonance period. After  $i_L$  falls to 0 A,  $Q_2$  stops conducting reversely, and the process returns to the  $C_{OSS}$  charging period again. If  $DT_e$  ends in this situation, the following process is the same as that analyzed in the turn-ON delay period, the voltage falling period, and the conduction period.

As mentioned in Section III, the state equations are solved based on the iteration calculation method. For Schottky-type GaN HEMTs, according to (2),  $V_{th}$  will increase as  $v_{ds}$  falls [23] during the turn-ON process. Ignoring the dynamic  $V_{th}$ , the simulated turn-ON process will be faster than the practical. Therefore, during the solution process,  $V_{th}$  is also updated by (2), where  $C_{sh}$  is obtained by DPT.

As shown in the datasheet provided by GaNSystems [32], the total gate charge  $Q_g$  of the turn-ON process is higher than “ $Q_{gd} + Q_{gs}$ ” obtained by the “Typical  $C_{iss}$ ,  $C_{rss}$ , and  $C_{oss}$  versus  $v_{ds}$ ” curve. Since the required  $Q_g$  is higher, if the used  $C_{gd}$  is only read from the “ $C_{rss}$  versus  $v_{ds}$ ” curve, the simulated turn-ON speed will be faster than the practical. To compensate for the difference between  $Q_g$  and “ $Q_{gd} + Q_{gs}$ ,” an equivalent gate-drain capacitance ( $C_{agd}$ ) is added to the  $C_{gd}$  read from the “ $C_{rss}$  versus  $v_{ds}$ ” curve in the turn-ON process.  $C_{agd}$  is calculated by (6), where  $Q_g$  is obtained from the “Typical  $v_{gs}$  versus  $Q_g$ ” curve

$$C_{agd} = \left( Q_g - \int_{0V}^{V_{gon}} C_{gs} dv_{gs} - \int_{0V}^{V_{dc}} C_{gd} dv_{ds} \right) / V_{dc}. \quad (6)$$

According to the abovementioned analysis, the superfluous and insufficient dead-time will induce extra energy loss. The proposed model can be used to solve the dead-time transients, and  $E_{RC}$  and  $E_{TO}$  can be, respectively, calculated by (4) and (5) based on the transient waveforms.

## V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

To verify the proposed model, a TCM Buck converter is established based on the DPT circuit shown in Fig. 11. Two heat sinks are mounted on the top-cooling pads of the devices for heat dissipation. The load is the dc electronic load KEITHLEY 2380-500-30. The used filter inductance is 45  $\mu$ H. According to literature [4], the theoretically required  $I_R$  can be calculated by (7), where  $Q_{oss}$  is the charge of  $C_{oss}$ . Considering the loop

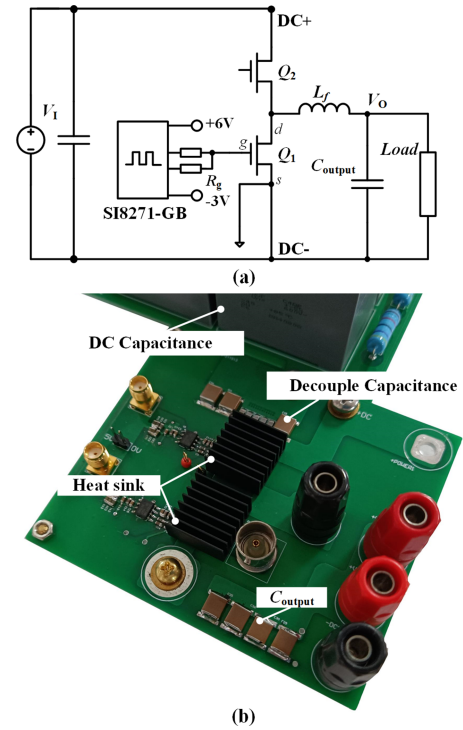


Fig. 11. (a) Schematic of the buck circuit. (b) Prototype of buck circuit.

resistance, in this article, a -0.5 A margin is added into  $I_R$  when the turn-ON signal of  $Q_1$  is calculated

$$I_R = \begin{cases} -\sqrt{\frac{2Q_{oss}}{L}(V_1 - 2V_o)}, & \text{if } V_1 > 2V_o \\ 0, & \text{else.} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

First, the proposed model is used to calculate a reference dead-time ( $DT_{ref} = t_{4a}/t_{4b} - t_1 + t_6 - t_5 + T_{tr2} - T_{tr1}$ ). Fig. 12 shows the operation waveforms at 400 V  $V_1$  / 200 V  $V_o$  / 500 W load when  $DT_{ref}$  is used. As seen from Fig. 12(b) and (c), the zero-voltage turn ON can be realized without obvious redundant dead-time at both  $I_P$  and  $I_R$ , which verifies that  $DT_{ref}$  is very close to the optimal dead-time. Thanks to the full zero-voltage turn ON, the system efficiency under  $DT_{ref}$  is 98.5% where the switching frequency ( $f_{sw}$ ) is 305 kHz.

Taking  $DT_{ref}$  as a reference, the dead-time losses tested by the experiment and calculated by the proposed model under different dead-time are listed in Fig. 13. The experimental results are shown as the red curve ( $P_{EX}$ ). As the dead-time increases,  $P_{EX}$  decreases first and then increases. As the experiment results show, the extra loss caused by the unoptimized dead-time could account for 44.5% of the total loss, which is considerable in loss evaluations and thermal designs.

The extra turn-ON loss (caused by insufficient or superfluous dead-time) and the extra reverse conduction loss (caused by redundant dead-time) calculated by the proposed model are shown as  $P_{TO}$  and  $P_{RC}$  in Fig. 13. Under 150 ns, the dead-time is insufficient when  $Q_1$  is turned OFF at  $I_R$ , so  $Q_2$  cannot be turned ON at zero voltage, which causes  $P_{TO}$ . For  $Q_2$ , which is turned OFF at  $I_P$ , 150 ns dead-time is superfluous, so there is

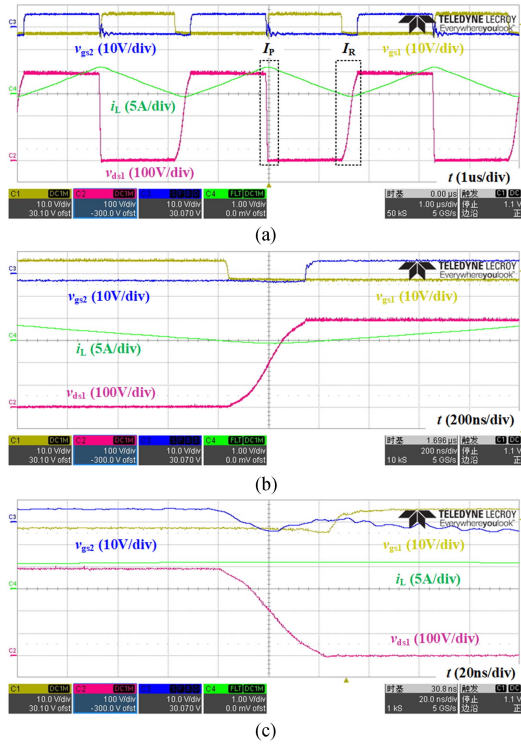


Fig. 12. Operation waveforms at 400 V  $V_1$  / 200 V  $V_O$  / 500 W load under  $DT_{ref}$ : (a) Whole. (b) At  $I_R$ . (c) At  $I_P$ .

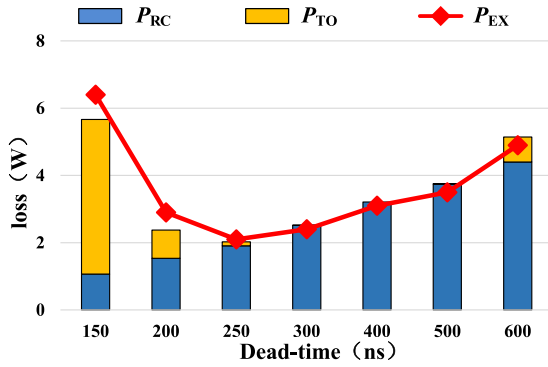


Fig. 13. Extra loss induced by the dead-time at 400 V  $V_1$  / 200 V  $V_O$  / 500 W load under the different dead-time.

still  $P_{RC}$ . As the dead-time increases,  $P_{RC}$  increases because the redundant dead-time at  $I_P$  increases. However, the total loss decreases because the longer dead-time can reduce  $P_{TO}$  significantly by decreasing the turn-ON voltage of  $Q_2$ . After the dead-time increases above 300 ns,  $P_{TO}$  disappears completely, which means the dead-time is enough for  $I_R$ . When the dead time is between 150 ns and 300 ns, as the dead-time increases,  $P_{TO}$  decreases, while  $P_{RC}$  increases. Hence, a dead-time that corresponds to the minimum total loss ( $DT_O$ ) can be found in this area. As the dead-time increases further,  $P_{TO}$  arises again under 600 ns dead-time because  $i_L$  rises above 0 A during the dead-time at  $I_R$ . Further increasing the dead-time will increase

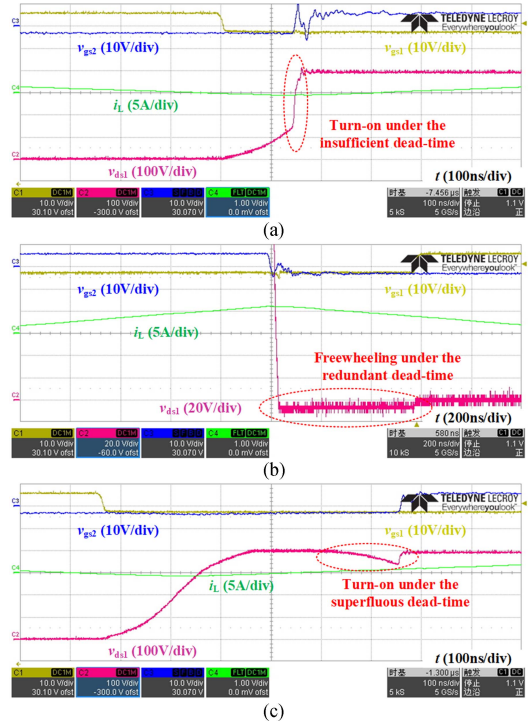


Fig. 14. Operation waveforms at 400 V  $V_1$  / 200 V  $V_O$  / 500 W load. (a) At  $I_R$  under 150 ns. (b) At  $I_P$  under 600 ns. (c) At  $I_R$  under 600 ns.

the turn-ON voltage of  $Q_2$  as well as the redundant dead-time at  $I_P$ , so both  $P_{TO}$  and  $P_{RC}$  increase further.

As verified by the experiment, the proposed model can predict the dead-time loss well. Using the proposed model,  $P_{TO}$  and  $P_{RC}$  can be calculated, respectively, which can guide designers to select the dead-time (Take an example: If the proportion of  $P_{TO}$  is high while  $P_{RC}$  is low, the designer can increase the dead-time to obtain a lower comprehensive loss.). Moreover, using the proposed model,  $DT_O$  can be found. As analyzed previously, the selection of  $DT_O$  is the tradeoff between  $P_{TO}$  and  $P_{RC}$  rather than simply eliminating one or the other. Although the contribution of  $DT_O$  is limited for a Buck circuit, it is significant for ac applications such as an inverter where  $I_{OFF}$  and  $V_O$  vary periodically.

Fig. 14 shows the switching waveforms under 150 ns and 600 ns dead-time. Fig. 14(a) shows the waveforms at  $I_R$  under 150 ns dead-time. Before  $v_{ds1}$  increases to  $V_{dc}$ ,  $Q_2$  has been turned ON, which has accelerated the rising of  $v_{ds1}$  and generated considerable  $P_{TO}$ . Fig. 14(b) shows the waveforms at  $I_P$  under 600 ns dead-time, because of the high SCRC voltage of  $Q_2$ ,  $v_{ds1}$  is obviously lower than 0 V during the redundant dead-time. Fig. 14(c) shows the waveforms at  $I_R$  under 600 ns dead-time. After  $i_L$  rises above 0 A,  $v_{ds1}$  falls again. When  $Q_2$  is turned ON,  $v_{ds1}$  rises to  $V_{dc}$  again.

To verify the proposed model further, Fig. 15 compares the experimented and simulated waveforms of  $v_{ds1}$  at  $I_R$  under 150 ns and 600 ns dead-time. As a comparison, the waveform simulated by a contrast model, which includes the ramp  $V_g$  but does not include dynamic  $V_{th}$  and  $C_{agd}$  is also shown in Fig. 15.

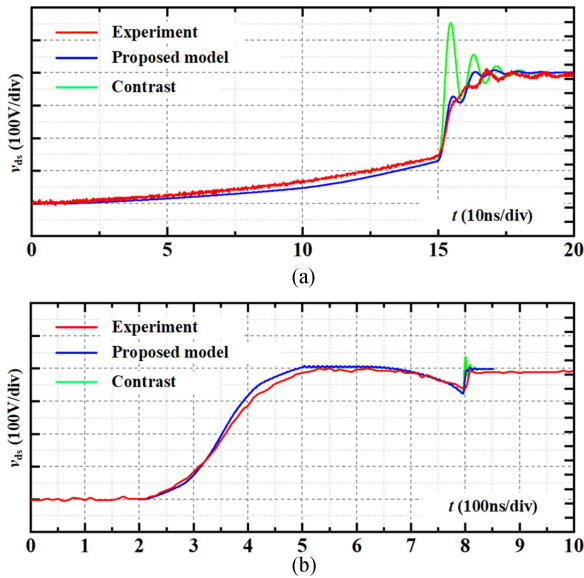


Fig. 15. Waveforms of  $v_{ds1}$  at IR. (a) Under 150 ns dead-time. (b) Under 600 ns dead-time.

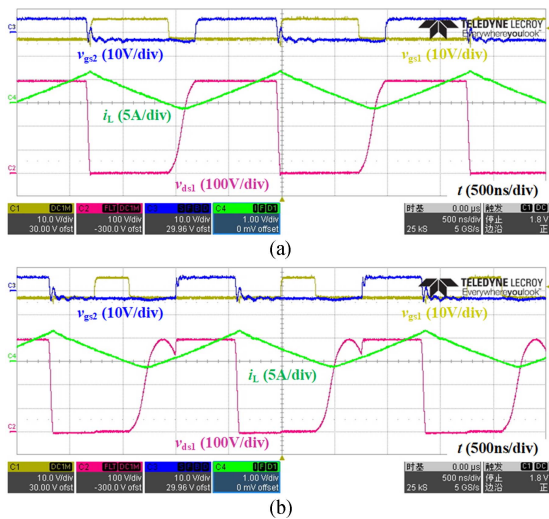


Fig. 16. Operation waveforms at 400 V  $V_I$  / 200 V  $V_O$  / 500 W under 21.5  $\mu\text{H}$   $L_f$ . (a) Under  $DT_{ref}$ . (b) Under 450 ns.

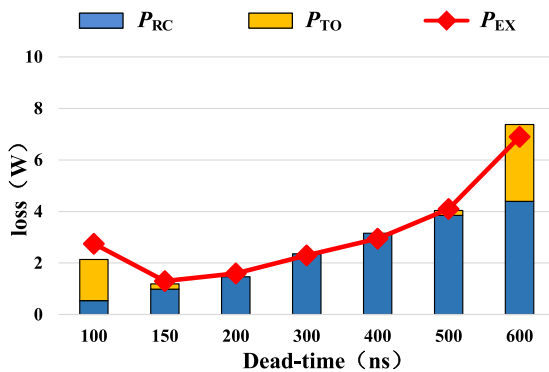


Fig. 17. Extra loss induced by the dead-time at 400 V  $V_I$  / 150 V  $V_O$  / 500 W load under the different dead-time.

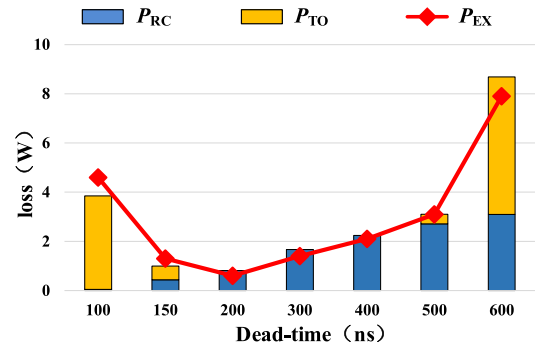


Fig. 18. Extra loss induced by the dead-time at 400 V  $V_I$  / 150 V  $V_O$  / 100 W load under the different dead-time.

Compared with the experiment, the turn-ON process obtained by the contrast model is obviously faster with a higher overshoot on  $v_{ds1}$ , which is consistent with the previous analyses. By contrast, the proposed model can fit the experiment better.

$P_{TO}$  caused by the superfluous dead-time gets more serious as  $L_f$  decreases. Fig. 16 shows the waveforms under 21.5  $\mu\text{H}$   $L_f$ . Since  $i_L$  rises more rapidly after  $Q_1$  is turned OFF at  $I_R$ , the turn-ON voltage under 450 ns dead-time is higher than 600 ns under 45  $\mu\text{H}$   $L_f$ . Therefore, using long dead-time for small  $I_{OFF}$  without optimization is not suitable for applications with small filter inductance.

Fig. 17 shows the extra losses at 400 V  $V_I$  / 150 V  $V_O$  / 500 W load. According to (7), a huger reverse current is needed as  $V_O$  decreases to 150 V. The huger reverse current increases the  $v_{ds1}$  rising speed, so the needed dead-time for  $I_R$  decreases. Therefore, the point where  $P_{TO}$  disappears moves left to 200 ns. Since higher voltage ( $V_I - V_O$ ) is applied on  $L_f$  at 150 V  $V_O$ , even though  $I_R$  is larger,  $i_L$  rises to 0 A faster during the redundant dead-time compared with 200 V  $V_O$ . Hence, higher  $P_{TO}$  is generated under 600 ns dead-time at 150 V  $V_O$  than at 200 V  $V_O$ . Fig. 18 shows the extra losses at 400 V  $V_I$  / 150 V  $V_O$  / 100 W load. Under a lighter load,  $I_P$  decreases as the output current decreases, so the freewheeling current decreases. Since the turn-OFF time ( $t_{4a}/t_{4b} - t_1$ ) of the device increases as  $I_{OFF}$  decreases, the redundant dead-time decreases. Therefore, according to (4),  $E_{RC}$  decreases. Since  $I_R$  is dependent on  $V_I / V_O$  as (7),  $E_{TO}$  is unchanged. Since  $P_{RC} = f_{sw} * E_{RC}$  and  $P_{TO} = f_{sw} * E_{TO}$ , by contrast,  $P_{TO}$  makes a larger influence at 100 W load than 500 W. As a result,  $DT_O$  at 100 W load move right to 200 ns.

As shown in Figs. 13, 17, and 18, the effect of the dead-time will change as the operation condition changes. The 150 ns dead-time is the  $DT_O$  for 150 V  $V_O$ , but causes the highest extra loss at 200 V  $V_O$ . The extra loss caused by the dead-time at 150 V  $V_O$  / 100 W load under 600 ns exceeds the whole loss at 200 V  $V_O$  / 500 W load under  $DT_{ref}$ . Therefore, a comprehensive loss evaluation should consider both the operation range and the dead-time. For applications with a wide operation range, the advantages of the high calculation speed and the capacity of batch processing of the proposed model are highlighted.

$$\begin{aligned}
& \left[ \frac{dv_{gs1}}{dt}, \frac{di_{g1}}{dt}, \frac{dv_{ds1}}{dt}, \frac{di_{d1}}{dt}, \frac{dv_{co2}}{dt}, \frac{di_L}{dt} \right]^T = A_1 [v_{gs1}, i_{g1}, v_{ds1}, i_{d1}, v_{co2}, i_L]^T + B_1 \\
A_1 = & \begin{bmatrix} 0, \frac{C_{ds1}+C_{gd1}}{C_T^2}, \frac{-C_{gd1}}{C_T^2}, \frac{C_{gd1}}{C_T^2}, 0, 0 \\ -\frac{1}{L_{g1}+L_{ss1}}, -\frac{R_{g1}}{L_{g1}+L_{ss1}}, \frac{L_{ss1}(L_f+L_{p2})}{((L_{g1}+L_{ss1})L_T^2)}, \frac{L_{ss1}(L_f R_{p1}+L_f R_{p2}+L_{p2} R_{p1})}{((L_{g1}+L_{ss1})L_T^2)}, \frac{L_{ss1} L_f}{((L_{g1}+L_{ss1})L_T^2)}, \frac{L_{ss1}(L_{p2} R_L-L_f R_{p2})}{((L_{g1}+L_{ss1})L_T^2)} \\ 0, \frac{C_{gd1}}{C_T^2}, \frac{-C_{gd1}}{C_T^2}, \frac{C_{gd1}}{C_T^2}, 0, 0 \\ 0, 0, -\frac{L_f+L_{p2}}{L_T^2}, -\frac{L_f R_{p1}+L_f R_{p2}+L_{p2} R_{p1}}{L_T^2}, -\frac{L_f}{L_T^2}, \frac{L_f R_{p2}-L_{p2} R_L}{L_T^2} \\ 0, 0, 0, \frac{1}{C_{oss2}}, 0, -\frac{1}{C_{oss2}} \\ 0, 0, -\frac{L_{p2}}{L_T^2}, \frac{L_{p1} R_{p2}-L_{p2} R_{p1}}{L_T^2}, \frac{L_{p1}}{L_T^2}, -\frac{C_{pss2}}{L_T^2} \end{bmatrix} \\
B_1 = & \left[ 0, \frac{-(L_f L_{ss1}+L_{ss1} L_{p2}) V_{dc}+L_T^2 V_{goff}+L_{ss1} L_{p2} V_N}{L_T^2(L_{g1}+L_{ss1})}, 0, \frac{(L_f+L_{p2}) V_{dc}-L_{p2} V_N}{L_T^2}, 0, \frac{L_{p2} V_{dc}-(L_{p1}+L_{p2}) V_N}{L_T^2} \right]^T;
\end{aligned} \tag{T1}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \left[ \frac{dv_{gs1}}{dt}, \frac{di_{g1}}{dt}, \frac{dv_{ds1}}{dt}, \frac{di_{d1}}{dt}, \frac{dv_{co2}}{dt}, \frac{di_L}{dt} \right]^T = A_2 [v_{gs1}, i_{g1}, v_{ds1}, i_{d1}, v_{co2}, i_L]^T + B_2 \\
A_2 = & \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{C_{gd1} g_m}{C_T^2}, \frac{C_{ds1}+C_{gd1}}{C_T^2}, 0, \frac{C_{gd1}}{C_T^2}, 0, 0 \\ -\frac{1}{L_{g1}+L_{ss1}}, -\frac{R_{g1}}{L_{g1}+L_{ss1}}, \frac{L_{ss1}(L_f+L_{p2})}{((L_{g1}+L_{ss1})L_T^2)}, \frac{L_{ss1}(L_f R_{p1}+L_f R_{p2}+L_{p2} R_{p1})}{((L_{g1}+L_{ss1})L_T^2)}, \frac{L_{ss1} L_f}{((L_{g1}+L_{ss1})L_T^2)}, \frac{L_{ss1}(L_{p2} R_L-L_f R_{p2})}{((L_{g1}+L_{ss1})L_T^2)} \\ -g_m(C_{gd1}+C_{gs1}), \frac{C_{gd1}}{C_T^2}, 0, \frac{C_{gd1}+C_{gs1}}{C_T^2}, 0, 0 \\ 0, 0, -\frac{L_f+L_{p2}}{L_T^2}, -\frac{L_f R_{p1}+L_f R_{p2}+L_{p2} R_{p1}}{L_T^2}, -\frac{L_f}{L_T^2}, \frac{L_f R_{p2}-L_{p2} R_L}{L_T^2} \\ 0, 0, 0, \frac{1}{C_{oss2}}, 0, -\frac{1}{C_{oss2}} \\ 0, 0, -\frac{L_{p2}}{L_T^2}, \frac{L_{p1} R_{p2}-L_{p2} R_{p1}}{L_T^2}, \frac{L_{p1}}{L_T^2}, -\frac{C_{pss2}}{L_T^2} \end{bmatrix} \\
B_2 = & \left[ \frac{C_{gd1} V_{th} g_m}{C_T^2}, \frac{-(L_f L_{ss1}+L_{ss1} L_{p2}) V_{dc}+L_T^2 V_{goff}+L_{ss1} L_{p2} V_N}{L_T^2(L_{g1}+L_{ss1})}, \frac{(C_{gd1}+C_{gs1}) V_{th} g_m}{C_T^2}, \frac{(L_f+L_{p2}) V_{dc}-L_{p2} V_N}{L_T^2}, 0, \frac{L_{p2} V_{dc}-(L_{p1}+L_{p2}) V_N}{L_T^2} \right]^T
\end{aligned} \tag{T2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \left[ \frac{dv_{gs1}}{dt}, \frac{di_{g1}}{dt}, \frac{dv_{ds1}}{dt}, \frac{di_{d1}}{dt}, \frac{di_L}{dt} \right]^T = A_3 [v_{gs1}, i_{g1}, v_{ds1}, i_{d1}, i_L]^T + B_3 \\
A_3 = & \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{C_{gd1} g_m}{C_T^2}, \frac{C_{ds1}+C_{gd1}}{C_T^2}, 0, \frac{C_{gd1}}{C_T^2}, 0 \\ -\frac{1}{L_{g1}+L_{ss1}}, -\frac{R_{g1}}{L_{g1}+L_{ss1}}, \frac{L_{ss1}(L_f+L_{p2})}{((L_{g1}+L_{ss1})L_T^2)}, \frac{L_{ss1}(L_f R_{p1}+L_f R_{p2}+L_{p2} R_{p1}+L_f R_{on})}{((L_{g1}+L_{ss1})L_T^2)}, -\frac{L_{ss1}(L_f R_{on}-L_{p2} R_L+L_f R_{p2})}{((L_{g1}+L_{ss1})L_T^2)} \\ -g_m(C_{gd1}+C_{gs1}), \frac{C_{gd1}}{C_T^2}, 0, \frac{C_{gd1}+C_{gs1}}{C_T^2}, 0 \\ 0, 0, -\frac{L_f+L_{p2}}{L_T^2}, -\frac{L_f R_{p1}+L_f R_{p2}+L_{p2} R_{p1}+L_f R_{on}}{L_T^2}, \frac{L_f R_{p2}-L_{p2} R_L+L_f R_{on}}{L_T^2} \\ 0, 0, -\frac{L_{p2}}{L_T^2}, \frac{L_{p1} R_{p2}-L_{p2} R_{p1}+L_{p1} R_{on}}{L_T^2}, -\frac{L_{p1} R_L+L_{p2} R_L+L_{p1} R_{p2}+L_{p1} R_{on}}{L_T^2} \end{bmatrix} \\
B_3 = & \left[ \frac{C_{gd1} V_{th} g_m}{C_T^2}, \frac{-(L_f L_{ss1}+L_{ss1} L_{p2}) V_{dc}+L_T^2 V_{goff}+L_{ss1} L_{p2} V_N+L_f L_{ss1} V_R}{L_T^2(L_{g1}+L_{ss1})}, \frac{(C_{gd1}+C_{gs1}) V_{th} g_m}{C_T^2}, \frac{(L_f+L_{p2}) V_{dc}-L_{p2} V_N-L_f V_R}{L_T^2}, \frac{L_{p2} V_{dc}+L_{p1} V_R-(L_{p1}+L_{p2}) V_N}{L_T^2} \right]^T.
\end{aligned} \tag{T3}$$

## VI. CONCLUSION

This article analyzes the dead-time transient in GaN-based TCM converters and evaluates the dead-time loss theoretically based on an improved GaN HEMT model. To comprehensively analyze the effect of the dead-time, the switching processes under the insufficient and superfluous dead-time are analyzed. By adding the voltage rising/falling time of the gate driver, the dynamic threshold voltage, and the equivalent gate-drain capacitance, the improved GaN HEMT model can more accurately simulate the gate delay time, the SCRC voltage, and the turn-ON process under the insufficient dead-time. As verified by the experiments, the proposed model shows high accuracy in the dead-time loss prediction. As the experimental and the simulated results show, the effect of the dead-time will change as the operation condition changes, so a comprehensive loss evaluation should consider both the operation range and the

dead-time. Moreover, the proposed model can also be used to find a dead-time with the lowest comprehensive dead-time loss for a certain operating condition.

## APPENDIX

In Section III, (8)–(15) is derived to describe the equivalent circuits listed in Fig. 4, where  $L_{p1} = L_{t1} + L_{ss1}$ ,  $L_{p2} = L_{t2} + L_{ss2}$ , and  $V_R = -V_{th} + V_{Goff}$

$$v_{gs1} = V_{goff} - i_{g1} \cdot R_{g1} - L_{g1} \frac{di_{g1}}{dt} - L_{ss1} \left( \frac{di_{d1}}{dt} + \frac{di_{g1}}{dt} \right) \tag{8}$$

$$i_{g1} = C_{gs1} \frac{dv_{gs1}}{dt} + C_{gd1} \left( \frac{dv_{gs1}}{dt} - \frac{dv_{ds1}}{dt} \right) \tag{9}$$

$$i_{d1} = \frac{v_{ds1}}{R_{on}} + C_{ds1} \frac{dv_{ds1}}{dt} + C_{gd1} \left( \frac{dv_{ds1}}{dt} - \frac{dv_{gs1}}{dt} \right) \quad (10)$$

$$V_{dc} - V_N = v_{ds1} + L_{p1} \frac{di_{d1}}{dt} + i_L \cdot R_L + L_f \frac{di_L}{dt} + i_{d1} R_{p1} \quad (11)$$

$$V_{dc} = v_{ds1} + v_{co2} + (L_{p1} + L_{p2}) \frac{di_{d1}}{dt} - L_{p2} \frac{di_L}{dt} + R_{p1} \cdot i_{d1} + R_{p2} (i_{d1} - i_L) \quad (12)$$

$$C_{oss2} \frac{dv_{co2}}{dt} = i_{d1} - i_L \quad (13)$$

$$i_{d1} = g_m (v_{gs1} - V_{th}) + C_{ds1} \frac{dv_{ds1}}{dt} + C_{gd1} \left( \frac{dv_{ds1}}{dt} - \frac{dv_{gs1}}{dt} \right) \quad (14)$$

$$V_{dc} = v_{ds1} + V_R + (L_{p1} + L_{p2}) \frac{di_{d1}}{dt} - L_{p2} \frac{di_L}{dt} + R_{p1} \cdot i_{d1} + (R_{on} + R_{p2}) (i_{d1} - i_L). \quad (15)$$

According to (8)–(15), the GaN HEMT model is written into the form of the state (T1)–(T3) shown at the top of the previous page, where:  $L_T^2 = L_{p1}L_{p2} + L_{p1}L_f + L_{p2}L_f$ ,  $C_T^2 = C_{gd1}C_{gs1} + C_{gd1}C_{ds1} + C_{ds1}C_{gs1}$ .

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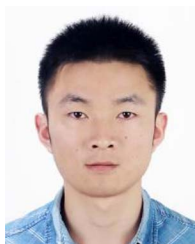
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