# An Adaptive Current-Source Gate Driver for High-Voltage SiC MOSFETs

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Abstract—This paper presents a novel current-source gate driver for Silicon Carbide (SiC) metal oxide semiconductor fieldeffect transistors (MOSFETs) with adaptive functionalities. The proposed driver aims to decouple and improve controllability of di/dt, dv/dt, as well as to decrease turn-on and turn-off delay times compared to conventional totem-pole voltage-source gate drivers and conventional current-source gate drivers. The circuit topology of the proposed gate driver and the working principle are analysed for the turn-on and turn-off processes. Furthermore, the driving requirements in terms of gate voltage and gate current for SiC MOSFETs that determine the design and tuning of gate drivers are presented. The performance of the proposed gate driver is validated experimentally on a 3.3 kV/750 A SiC MOSFET half-bridge power module. It is shown that, compared to conventional voltage-source gate drivers, the driver is capable of significantly reducing turn-on and turn-off delay times by approximately 57% and 33%, respectively. Moreover, the proposed gate driver enables 233% controllability of di/dtand 87% of dv/dt.

Index Terms-Gate drivers, SiC MOSFETs adaptive driving.

#### I. INTRODUCTION

C ILICON Carbide (SiC) metal oxide semiconductor fieldeffect transistors (MOSFETs) exhibit several advantages in high-voltage and high-power applications, due to the lower power losses and faster switching transients, higher blocking voltage, and higher maximum operating temperatures, compared to Silicon-based counterparts [1]. SiC MOSFETs allow for improved electrical and thermal performance of power converters for medium-voltage direct current (MVDC) and [2]-[4], high-voltage DC (HVDC) grids [5], [6], as well as, MV drives [7]-[9]. With significant trends leading towards increasing switching speeds in power electronic applications, very short rise and fall times during switching transients are desirable to reduce the anticipated hard-switching losses. The key to reach very fast switching transients is to utilise powerful gate drivers. Gate driver topologies are classified as voltagesource gate drivers (VSGD) and current-source gate drivers (CSGD). The conventional totem-pole VSGD (CVSGD) and the conventional full-bridge CSGD (CCSGD) are shown in Fig. 1a and Fig. 1b with their equivalent RLC circuits shown in Fig. 1c and Fig. 1d. For the CVSGD, the driving energy is provided by the electric field in the driver DC-link with  $V_{HL} = V_H + V_L$ . For the CCSGD, the driving energy is provided by the magnetic field in the driver inductor  $L_M$ ,





(a) Conventional totem-pole voltage-source gate driver (CVSGD).



CVSGD



(d) Equivalent *RLC* circuit of the CCSGD.

Fig. 1: Circuit schematics and equivalent circuits of CVSGD and CCSGD.

which prior to the turn-on and turn-off instants is charged to  $I_m$  by applying  $V_{HL}$ .

The CVSGD utilise a totem-pole circuit and gate resistors for controlling the gate current. However, they pose limitations in switching speeds as the gate current is reduced with reducing voltage difference between the driving voltage source and gate-source voltage. On the other hand, CSGD seem to be more promising compared to CVSGD. In particular, CSGD can provide a more constant gate current during switching transients and hold the ability to variate the initial turn-on and turn-off gate currents, hence enabling adjustable switching speeds.

Current-source gate drivers can be designed either as inductor-less – typically current-mirror based – drivers [10]– [12] or inductor-based – typically continuous-current and discontinuous-current mode gate drivers [13], [14]. Inductorbased CSGD, i.e. gate drivers utilizing inductor in the driver circuit as an energy-storage component, have been widely presented in literature for power semiconductor switches [14]– [31]. Common gate driver circuit topologies ranges from halfbridge [20], [21], [25], [29] variations to full-bridge [14], [16]–[19], [22], [24], [26], [31], [32] variations, with other topologies using four- [27] and two- [28] switch circuits with coupled inductors. CSGD are capable of supplying a more constant gate current compared to CVSGD drivers, providing charge to the gate at a higher rate, hence increasing the semiconductor switching speed. The peak gate-drive current is

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configurable by adjusting the driver pre-charge current level of  $L_M$ , hence the overall switching speed is adaptive. However, none of these drivers has the ability to inject (i.e., during turn-on) or sink (i.e., during turn-off) a second current peak to the gate, and thus limiting their ability to independently control the device's di/dt and dv/dt. Aside from increased switching speed compared to CVSGD, the existing driver concepts in literature are thus limited to adaptively adjust the overall switching speed, that is di/dt and dv/dt together, rather than independently.

The proposed adaptive current source gate driver (ACSGD) aims to independently control the turn-on and turn-off voltage and current rise and fall rates, di/dt and dv/dt by supplying two separate gate current peaks. Besides, the proposed AC-SGD is capable of adaptively adjusting the turn-on and turnoff delay times of the devices. The controllability of turn-on and turn-off delay times enable accurate dead-time control, and can significantly reduce dead-time requirements which may have impact on power electronic systems such as the dual active bridge (DAB) converter [33]. The adjustable di/dtand dv/dt allows for control of electromagnetic emissions, introducing electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) flexibility and reduced converter filter size. The di/dt and dv/dt control can limit both drain-current and drain-source voltage overshoots, allowing converter switches to operate closer to its maximum safe operating area (SOA), and hence facilitating a more optimal converter design. The controllable di/dt and dv/dt enable accurate switching loss manipulation. The driver can significantly reduce device switching losses compared to CCSGD and CVSGD or control di/dt and dv/dt for active thermal control (ATC) purposes, improving reliability and lifetime of power electronic converters [34].

The paper is organized as follows. Section II gives an overview of gate driver design considerations for SiC MOS-FETs. Section III introduces the proposed adaptive current source gate driver, its circuit topology, working principles and mathematical analysis, while Section IV presents experimental validation of the proposed driver with comparisons to CVSGD. System-level benefits using the proposed ACSGD are discussed in V. Lastly, conclusions are shown in Section VI.

# II. GATE DRIVER DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS FOR SIC MOSFETS

Driving SiC MOSFETs, (i.e. turning the MOSFET on and off), is in essence the process of manipulating charge in the physical structure of the device. For turn-on, the goal is to move sufficient charge from the the driver energy buffer (i.e.,  $V_{HL}$ ) to the gate in order to create an inversion layer between source and drain such that current may flow. For turn-off, the opposite process applies, where the gate charge is removed such that the inversion layer collapses and current can no longer flow through the MOSFET's channel. The movement of the gate charge can be captured by considering the equivalent device capacitances, that is the input capacitance  $C_{iss} = C_{gs} + C_{gd}$ , the output capacitance  $C_{oss} = C_{ds} + C_{gd}$  and reverse transfer capacitance  $C_{rss} = C_{gd}$ , as illustrated in



Fig. 2: Equivalent SiC MOSFET circuit during switching transients.

Fig. 2. These capacitances are integral to the evolution of the gate-source voltage,  $v_{GS}$ , drain current,  $i_D$  and drain-source voltage,  $v_{DS}$ . Accurate models of SiC MOSFET transient evolution of  $v_{GS}$ ,  $i_D$  and  $v_{DS}$  and the significance of the equivalent device capacitances have been analysed in literature [35]–[38].

The gate-drain capacitance  $C_{gd}$  is dependent on  $v_{DS}$  and  $v_{GS}$  [39], as seen in Fig. 3, thus the input capacitance  $C_{iss}$ depends on both  $v_{GS}$  and  $v_{DS}$ . The gate-drain capacitance  $C_{qd}(v_{DS}, v_{GS})$  of the device under test (DUT) Mitsubishi FMF750DC-66A SiC MOSFET half-bridge power module (3.3 kV/750 A) used in this paper was measured using the Keysight B1505A Power Device Analyzer and it is shown in Fig. 3a, while  $C_{gd}$ ,  $C_{gs}$  and  $C_{iss}$   $v_{GS}$  dependencies are shown in Fig. 3b. Their dependency on both  $v_{GS}$  and  $v_{DS}$  is clear, hence, the values of both  $v_{GS}$  and  $v_{DS}$  at the switching instant determine the response of  $v_{GS}$  and consequently constrain the driver design and operating parameters. The evolution of  $v_{GS}$  is impacted by the transients of  $i_D$  and  $v_{DS}$ , however, the impact of  $v_{DS}$  on the gate charge is minimal for highvoltage SiC MOSFETs due to the generally lower value of  $C_{oss}$  compared to  $C_{iss}$ . The total SiC MOSFET gate charge  $Q_q$ , that is the total amount of charge to be moved to and from the gate to charge  $v_{GS}$  from  $V_L$  to  $V_H$  and vice versa during switching transients, is given by

$$Q_g = \int C_{iss}(v)dV \tag{1}$$

The gate charge of the DUT is measured for low values of  $i_D (i_D < 10mA)$  using the Keysight B1505A Power Device Analyzer and visualised in Fig. 4a. The impact of  $v_{DS}$  on  $Q_g$  is low, as the gate charge difference  $\Delta Q_{g(f)} = Q_{g(f_2)} - Q_{g(f_1)}$  between the required gate charge  $Q_{g(f_1)}$  at  $v_{DS} \approx 1V$  and the required gate charge  $Q_{g(f_2)}$  at  $v_{DS} \approx 1000V$  being 3.5% of



Fig. 3: Measured device capacitances of the Mitsubishi FMF750DC-66A SiC MOSFET half-bridge power module used as DUT.

 $Q_{q(f_2)}$ . The resulting average capacitance

$$C_{iss} = \frac{\Delta Q_g}{\Delta v_{GS}} = \frac{Q_{g(f_n)}}{V_{HL}} \tag{2}$$

at  $v_{DS} \approx 1V$  is  $C_{iss(f_1)} \approx 336 nF$  and at  $v_{DS} \approx 1000V$  is  $C_{iss(f_2)} = 348nF$ . To visualise the impact of varying values of  $i_D$  on  $Q_q$ ,  $Q_q$  is measured during double-pulse testing of the DUT as seen in Fig. 4b. With the  $i_D$  dependency on  $v_{GS}$  in the saturation region, a higher value of  $v_{GS}$  is required to obtain a higher value of  $i_D$ . The red (light and dark) measurements are performed at 400V, while the blue (light and dark) measurements are performed at 1000V. Two drain current  $I_D$  values (i.e. the value of  $i_D$  determined by the double-pulse duration) are compared. The value of  $v_{DS}$  impacts  $Q_q$  primarily after the Miller region (after  $v_{DS}$  rise and fall, as  $C_{oss}$  is being charged and discharged) as seen from the zoomed-in areas in Fig. 4b. Hence, gate driver design procedures can be assumed independent on  $v_{DS}$  with good accuracy, and the capacitance value for  $v_{DS} \approx 1V$  is used during design process to keep a safety margin for  $v_{GS}$  overshoot and consequently possible gate oxide destruction. The drain current load value  $I_D$  is more critical for determining the Miller region  $(V_{GS}^{aux(n)}(I_D))$  used for the variable dv/dt operation (see section IV-C) than the value of the blocking voltage  $V_{DS}$ .

#### A. Voltage and Current Source Gate Drivers

CVSGD are limited in providing fast driving capabilities due to the total gate resistance consisting of an internal,  $R_{g(int)}$ , and an external,  $R_{g(ext)}$ , resistive component  $R_g =$  $R_{g(int)} + R_{g(ext)}$ , and the maximum allowed upper  $V_H$  and lower  $V_L$  drive voltage limit of  $V_{DRV}$  (Fig. 2). Most of the discrete SiC MOSFETs and SiC MOSFET power modules have



Fig. 4: (a)  $Q_g(v_{GS})$  measurements of device gate charge using the power device analyzer at low  $i_D$  of the Mitsubishi FMF750DC-66A SiC MOSFET half-bridge power module used as DUT and (b)  $Q_g(v_{GS})$  measurements of DUT device gate charge using double pulse test with varying load values  $I_D$  and blocking voltages  $V_{DS}$ .

a fixed  $R_{g(int)}$  incorporated by the manufacturers. Moreover, the gates can only withstand certain maximum and minimum voltage stress values  $(V_{GS}^{max}/V_{GS}^{min})$ , which eventually limit the maximum utilised  $V_H$  and  $V_L$  values. Considering these limitations, the CVSGD driver current is limited to

$$i_g = \frac{(V_{HL} - v_{GS})}{R_g} = \frac{V_{HL}}{R_g} e^{-t/\tau_{iss}}$$
(3)

with  $\tau_{iss} = R_g C_{iss}$ . The time duration  $T_{V(1)}$  of which a CVSGD can move the arbitrarly amount of charge  $Q_{g(1)}$  is given by

$$T_{V(1)} = -\tau_{iss} \ln\left(\underbrace{\frac{Q_{g(1)}}{\underbrace{C_{iss}V_{HL}}}}_{Q_{g(f_n)}}\right) \tag{4}$$

and the switching speed obtainable by CVSGD is thus theoretically limited by  $R_g$  for maximum values of  $V_{HL}$  set by manufacturer limits  $(V_{GS}^{max}/V_{GS}^{min})$ .

In case of CCSGD, the additional energy storing element,  $L_M$ , yields significant benefits in terms of switching speed flexibility. Considering the equivalent *RLC* circuit of the CCSGD given in Fig. 1d, the differential equation describing the evolution of  $v_{GS}$  is given by

$$\frac{d^2 v_{GS}}{dt^2} + \frac{R_g}{L_M} \frac{d v_{GS}}{dt} + \frac{v_{GS}}{C_{iss}L_M} = \frac{V_{HL}}{C_{iss}L_M}$$
(5)

Equation "(5)" is written in the Laplace domain as

$$v_{GS}(s)\underbrace{\left(s^{2}+2\alpha_{s}s+\omega_{0_{s}}^{2}\right)}_{d(s)} =$$

$$\underbrace{\frac{V_{H}\omega_{0_{s}}^{2}}{s}+sV_{L}+\frac{I_{m}}{C_{iss}}+\frac{R_{g}}{L_{M}}V_{L}}_{n(s)}$$

$$\alpha_{s}=\frac{R_{g}}{2L_{M}}, \ \omega_{0_{s}}^{2}=\frac{1}{C_{iss}L_{M}}$$
(6)

To obtain the fastest response of  $v_{GS}$  without oscillatory behaviour,  $v_{GS}$  should have a critically damped response, requiring a damping  $\zeta_s = \alpha_s/\omega_{0_s} = 1$ . For a given  $C_{iss}$ and  $R_g$ ,  $L_M$  should then be chosen as

$$L_M = C_{iss} \left(\frac{R_g}{2}\right)^2 \tag{7}$$

to preserve a damping of 1. For a critically damped response,  $v_{GS}$  have a single pole  $s_s = -\alpha_s$ , with its timedomain response described by

$$v_{GS}(t) = V_H + \underbrace{e^{-\alpha_s t}}_{e(t)} \cdot \underbrace{(k_{s_1}^v t + k_{s_2}^v)}_{l(t)}$$

$$k_{s_1}^v = \frac{I_m}{C_{iss}} + \alpha_s k_{s_2}^v, \ k_{s_2}^v = -V_{HL}$$
(8)

and the gate current  $i_g$  given by

$$i_{g}(t) = C_{iss} \frac{dv_{GS}}{dt} = C_{iss} e^{-\alpha_{s}t} \cdot (k_{s_{1}}^{i}t + k_{s_{2}}^{i})$$

$$k_{s_{1}}^{i} = -\alpha_{s} k_{s_{1}}^{v}, \ k_{s_{2}}^{i} = k_{s_{1}}^{v} - \alpha_{s} k_{s_{2}}^{v}$$
(9)

For a set of chosen values of  $R_g$  and  $L_M$ , the response of  $v_{GS}$  is determined by the charged value of  $I_m$ . Even though the response of  $v_{GS}$  is critically damped, the response may still exhibit an overshoot depending on the value of  $I_m$ . For a certain value of  $I_m = I_m^{os}$ , the zeroes of  $v_{GS}(s) = n(s)/d(s)$  traverse into the dominant pole region of  $v_{GS}(s)$  as seen in Fig. 5a, which will lead  $v_{GS}$  to be susceptible to overshoot as seen in Fig. 5b/5c. The point of which  $I_m = I_m^{os}$  equates to the point of which the slope of l(t) in "(8)" becomes positive, changing sign once for t > 0. With the decaying term e(t) being positive for t > 0, l(t) might push  $v_{GS}$  above  $V_H$ . A lower boundary for which an overshoot will not happen is thus given by

$$k_{s_1} \le 0 \to I_m \le I_m^{os} = \alpha_s C_{iss} V_{HL} = \frac{R_g}{2L_M} C_{iss} V_{HL} \quad (10)$$

hence the peak pre-charge value  $I_m$  of  $i_m$  should not exceed  $I_m^{os}$ .

A comparison of  $v_{GS}$  rise times  $T_r$  between CVSGD and CCSGD for  $v_{GS}$  traversing from  $V_L$  to the voltage level  $V_{GS}^r$ with circuit values given in Table I are shown in Fig. 6. The CCSGD is capable of obtaining flexible  $T_r$  by adjusting  $I_m$ , while the  $T_r$  of CVSGD is constant at a certain value of  $R_g$ , hence  $T_r$  directly determined by  $R_g$ . As seen from Fig. 6, for  $I_m > I_m^{os}$ , the CCSGD enters the overshoot region (OSR) marked by blue circles and dotted lines in Fig. 6.





(b) Gate current,  $i_g$ , response for varying values of  $I_m$ .



(c) Gate-source voltage,  $v_{GS}$ , response for varying values of  $I_m$ . Fig. 5

The maximum energy dissipation of the gate drivers is given by

$$E_D = \int_0^\infty R_g i_g^2 dt \tag{11}$$

The energy dissipation of the CVSGD is constant and given by

$$E_D^V = 0.5 C_{iss} V_{HL}^2 \tag{12}$$

with "(3)" used in "(11)". The energy dissipation of the CCSGD depends on the value of  $I_m$  as given in "(9)". Similarly, by using "(9)" in "(11)" with the condition  $I_m = I_m^{os}$  yielding  $k_{s_1}^1 = 0$  and  $\alpha_s = 2/(R_g C_{iss})$  for  $\zeta_s = 1$ , the energy dissipation of the CCSGD is given by

$$E_D^{C(max)} = \frac{\alpha_s R_g (V_{HL} C_{iss})^2}{2} = C_{iss} V_{HL}^2 = 2E_D^V \quad (13)$$

Therefore, obtaining the maximum  $v_{GS}$  rise-time confined by "(10)" using the CCSGD, results in twice the energy dissipation compared to the CVSGD. For  $I_m$  values greater than the points marked by red circles in Fig. 6, yields lower



Fig. 6: Rise-time values,  $T_r$ , comparison between the CVSGD and CCSGD. Beyond the red line,  $v_{GS}$  goes into the overshoot region (OSR), causing  $v_{GS}$  to exceed  $V_H$ .

TABLE I: Circuit Parameters for Rise-time Estimation

$V_L[V]$	$V^r_{GS}[V]$	$C_{iss}[nF]$	$R_g[\Omega]$	$[I_m^{\min}, I_m^{\max}][A]$
-5	$V_{GS}^{aux(2)} = 9$	350	[3, 6, 9]	[0, 18]

 $T_r$  values of  $v_{GS}$  for CCSGD than CVSGD and, thus, results in faster switching time for CCSGD than CVSGD, albeit at the cost of higher gate driver energy consumption.

# III. PROPOSED ADAPTIVE CURRENT-SOURCE GATE DRIVER

Fig. 7 shows the circuit schematic of the proposed ACSGD with typical driver waveforms for a double current injection operation mode shown in Fig. 8. The driver expands the CCSGD circuit capabilities by adding two additional energy storing inductors,  $L_H$  and  $L_L$ , and an auxiliary circuit branch controlled by  $Q_{aux}$ , allowing for a second gate current injection and sinking. The driver specifically exhibits three main characteristics as follows:

- Variable  $di_D/dt$  and  $dv_{DS}/dt$  by varying  $I_m$ .
- Independent control of  $di_D/dt$  and  $dv_{DS}/dt$  by varying the peak value  $I_{aux}$  of the auxiliary current and timing of  $i_{aux}$  injection or sinking.
- Reduction of the turn-on and turn-off delay times by precharging or pre-discharging  $v_{GS}$  prior to the switching instant.

The working principle of the ACSGD is analysed in the following subsections. The turn-on procedure is described in Sections III-A–III-D, while the turn-off procedure is described in III-E–III-H.

#### A. Turn-on Pre-charge Interval

The turn-on pre-charge interval is initiated at  $t_0$  by turning  $Q_1$  and  $Q_4$  on as illustrated in Fig. 9a. During this interval the



Fig. 7: Circuit schematic of the proposed adaptive current source gate driver.



Fig. 8: Illustrative driver current and voltage waveforms during turn-on.

inductor  $L_M$  is charged to a pre-defined value  $I_m$  as illustrated in Fig. 9b. The interval causes a current,  $i_g^{pre}$ , to flow into the gate prior to the turn-on instant that is initiated at  $t_1$  due to the current divider imposed by  $Z_L$  and  $Z_S$ . The pre-charge current  $i_g^{pre}$  charges the gate-source junction by increasing  $v_{GS}$  to the pre-charge value  $V_{GS}^{pre}$ . Pre-charging  $v_{GS}$  enables shorter turn-on delay times in half-bridge circuits, and thus, impacting the choice of dead-time intervals. In particular, decreasing the turn-on delay time, necessitates a shorter dead-time and, hence, higher switching frequencies can be utilised.

The evolution of  $v_{GS}$  during the pre-charge interval can be described by considering the equivalent RLC circuit shown in Fig. 9c. The discharge resistor  $R_l$  is used to provide a current path for the current  $i_l$  flowing in the lower  $L_L$ -branch when turning  $Q_4$  off, and is chosen high enough so that it has negligible impact on  $i_l$  during the pre-charge interval. Using Kirchhoff's voltage law (KVL) on Fig. 9c yields the equations

$$V_H + V_L = L_M \frac{di_m}{dt} + L_L \frac{di_l}{dt}$$
(14)

and

$$L_L \frac{di_l}{dt} = i_g R_g + v_{GS} + V_L \tag{15}$$

of which the following differential equation for  $v_{GS}$ 





(a) Equivalent circuit during turn-on precharge interval.





(c) Equivalent *RLC* circuit during turn-on precharge interval.

#### Fig. 9: Pre-charge interval.

$$\frac{d^2 v_{GS}}{dt^2} + R_g \left(\frac{L_M + L_L}{L_M L_L}\right) \frac{d v_{GS}}{dt} + \left(\frac{L_M + L_L}{C_{iss(1)} L_M L_L}\right) v_{GS}$$
$$= \frac{V_H L_L - V_L L_M}{C_{iss(1)} L_M L_L}$$
(16)

can be derived, with the characteristic equation written as

$$s^{2} + 2\alpha_{p}s + \omega_{0_{p}}^{2} = 0$$
  
$$\alpha_{p} = R_{g} \left(\frac{L_{M} + L_{L}}{2L_{M}L_{L}}\right), \ \omega_{0_{p}}^{2} = \left(\frac{L_{M} + L_{L}}{C_{iss(1)}L_{M}L_{L}}\right)$$
(17)

Since the pre-charge interval starts from  $v_{GS} = V_L$ , the input capacitance value is  $C_{iss} = C_{iss(1)}$  (Fig. 3b). The solution of "(17)" is obtained for the over-damped and underdamped cases as

$$v_{GS} = \begin{cases} k_{p_1}^v e^{(s_{p_1}t)} + k_{p_2}^v e^{(s_{p_2}t)} + V_P, & \zeta_p > 1 \\ e^{-\alpha_p t} (k_{p_3}^v \cos(w_{d_p}t) + k_{p_4}^v \sin(w_{d_p}t) + V_P, & \zeta_p < 1 \end{cases}$$
(18)

where the damping  $\zeta_p$  is  $\zeta_p = \alpha_p / \omega_{0_p}$ ,  $V_P$  is the Thévenin voltage of the equivalent circuit (Fig. 9c) given by

$$V_P = \frac{V_H L_L - V_L L_M}{L_M + L_L} \tag{19}$$

and the poles  $s_{1,2}$  given by

$$s_{1,2} = -\alpha_p \pm \sqrt{\alpha_p^2 - \omega_{0_p}^2}$$
 (20)



Fig. 10: Gate-source voltage,  $v_{GS}$ , and gate current,  $i_g$ , responses to varying pre-charge interval lengths  $T_{pre}$  for  $L_M = L_H = L_L = 700nH$ ,  $R_{g(ext)} = 1.5\Omega$  and  $C_{iss} = 200nF$ .

The current  $i_m$  charging the inductor  $L_M$  is found by solving

$${}_{m} = \int \frac{V_{HL}}{L_{M} + L_{L}} dt + D + \frac{C_{iss(1)}L_{L}}{L_{M} + L_{L}} \frac{dv_{GS}}{dt}$$
(21)

*D* being the integration constant. For the over-damped case with the pre-charge interval time duration  $T_{pre}$ , the solution to "(21)" is

$$i_{m} = T_{pre} \frac{V_{HL}}{L_{M} + L_{L}} + \frac{C_{iss(1)}L_{L}}{L_{M} + L_{L}} \cdot \dots$$

$$\left(k_{p_{0}}^{i} + k_{p_{1}}^{i}e^{(s_{p_{1}}t)} + k_{p_{2}}^{i}e^{(s_{p_{2}}t)}\right), \zeta_{p} > 1$$
(22)

and the under-damped case

i

$$i_m = T_{pre} \frac{V_{HL}}{L_M + L_L} + \frac{C_{iss(1)}L_L}{L_M + L_L} e^{(-\alpha_p t)} \cdot \dots$$

$$\left(k_{p_3}^i \cos(\omega_{d_p} t) + k_{p_3}^i \sin(\omega_{d_p} t)\right), \ \zeta_p < 1$$
(23)

with the damped oscillation frequency  $\omega_{d_p}$  given by

$$\omega_{d_p} = \sqrt{\omega_{0_p}^2 - \alpha_p^2} \tag{24}$$

The values of  $k_{p_n}^v$  and  $k_{p_n}^i$  are given in Table II. By adjusting  $I_m$  within the interval  $[0, I_m^{os}]$ , the overall switching speed of the device under test (DUT) can be controlled. For a set of designed driver parameters  $L_M$ ,  $L_H$ ,  $L_L$ ,  $R_g$  and  $C_{iss}$ , varying  $T_{pre}$  results in varying values of  $V_{GS}^{pre}$  and  $I_m$ . This is shown in Fig. 10, where  $T_{pre}$  is varied for the driver parameters  $L_M = L_H = L_L = 700nH$ ,  $R_{g(ext)} = 1.5\Omega$  using a passive load at  $C_{iss} = 200nF$ . The  $T_{pre}$  length should thus not be chosen too long as to charge  $v_{GS}$  to a value exceeding the threshold voltage  $V_{th}$  (i.e.  $V_{GS}^{pre} \leq V_{th}$ ) to avoid premature turn-on.

# B. Turn-on

The turn-on process is initiated at the time instant  $t_1$  by turning  $Q_4$  off while keeping  $Q_1$  on, injecting the current  $i_m$ charged with an amplitude  $I_m$  during the pre-charge interval, into the gate, yielding  $i_g = i_m$  as shown in Fig. 11. The This article has been accepted for publication in IEEE Transactions on Power Electronics. This is the author's version which has not been fully edited and content may change prior to final publication. Citation information: DOI 10.1109/TPEL.2022.3208827

TABLE II: Pre-charge Interval Coefficient Expressions

$k_{p_1}^v$	$k_{p_2}^v$	$k_{p_3}^v$	$k_{p_4}^v$	$k_{p_0}^i$	$k_{p_1}^i$	$k_{p_2}^i$	$k_{p_3}^i$	$k^i_{p_4}$
$s_2 \frac{(V_L + V_P)}{s_1 - s_2}$	$k_{p_1}^v + V_L + V_P$	$-(V_L+V_P)$	$k_{p_3}^v \frac{\alpha_p}{\omega_{d_p}}$	$-(k_{p_1}^v s_1 + k_{p_2}^v s_2)$	$s_1 k_{p_1}^v$	$s_2 k_{p_2}^v$	$(k_{p_4}^v\omega_{d_p}-\alpha_pk_{p_3}^v)$	$-(k_{p_4}^v\omega_{d_p}+\alpha_pk_{p_3}^v)$





(a) Equivalent circuit during turn-on.

Fig. 11: First turn-on.

resulting equivalent circuit can be defined by the equivalent RLC circuit of Fig. 1d, hence the analysis described in Section II-A is also applicable for this interval with  $V_L = V_{GS}^{pre}$  and  $C_{iss} = C_{iss(2)}$ . The value of  $I_m$  should thus not exceed

$$I_m \le \alpha_s C_{iss} \left( V_H + |V_{GS}^{pre}| \right) \tag{25}$$

turn-on.

to avoid an overshoot in  $v_{GS}$  (Fig. 5). The value of  $I_m$  together with the driver design parameters determines the overall switching speed of the DUT.

#### C. Turn-on Auxiliary Charge Interval

At the time instant  $t_2$  after turn-on, the auxiliary charging interval is initiated. During this time interval the inductors  $L_H$ and  $L_L$  are charged with  $i_{aux}$  by turning  $Q_{aux}$  on while keeping  $Q_1$  on as illustrated in Fig. 12. Again, it is assumed that the discharge resistors  $R_h$  and  $R_l$  have sufficiently high values, so their impact on  $i_{aux}$  is negligible. Thus, the amplitude of  $i_{aux}$  is calculated as

$$I_{aux} = T_{aux} \frac{V_{HL}}{(L_H + L_L)} \tag{26}$$

#### D. Auxiliary Turn-on

The working principle of the auxiliary turn-on is dependent on whether a current injection or a current sinking is desired at the auxiliary turn-on instant  $t_3$ .

1) Auxiliary Injection: At the time instant  $t_3$  after the charging of  $i_{aux}$  has reached its desired amplitude  $I^i_{aux}$ ,  $i_{aux}$  is injected into the gate G as  $i_g = i_m + i_{aux}$ , as illustrated in Fig. 13a, yielding the waveforms shown in Fig. 13c.



(a) Equivalent circuit during the auxiliary charging interval.

(b) Illustrative waveforms of the auxiliary charging interval.

Fig. 12: Auxiliary charge interval.

2) Auxiliary Sinking: If sinking of  $i_g$  is desired at the second turn-on, the auxiliary current  $i_{aux}$  is charged to the value  $I_{aux}^s$  which should be lower than the gate current  $i_g$  at the time instant  $t_3$ . For this case,  $Q_1$  should be turned off while  $Q_2$  is turned on, to commutate  $i_m$  away from the gate G, as illustrated in Fig. 13b. After a short time period after  $Q_1$  is turned off and  $Q_2$  is turned on, the desired  $i_{aux}$  is sank from the gate as  $i_g = i_{aux}$  by turning  $Q_3$  on while turning  $Q_2$  off, yielding the waveforms shown in Fig. 13c.

Injecting or sinking the auxiliary current at a specified time instant  $t_3$  allows for control of either di/dt or dv/dt. For turn-on, setting  $t_3$  before the Miller plateau (i.e., during  $i_D$ rise) allows for control of di/dt, while setting  $t_3$  to the Miller plateau (i.e., during  $v_{DS}$  fall) allows for control of dv/dt. Similarly, at turn-off, setting  $t_3$  at the Miller plateau before  $i_D$  fall allows for control of dv/dt, while setting  $t_3$  after the  $v_{DS}$  rise allows for control of di/dt.

Determining the time instant  $t_3$  can be done by estimating the time duration for  $v_{GS}$  to reach a certain voltage level,  $V_{GS}^{aux}$ . The time duration  $T_{aux-on}$  determining  $t_3$  can be approximated by solving "(8)" numerically

$$f(t) = v_{GS}(t) - V_{GS}^{aux} = 0 \to T_{aux-on} \approx f^{-1}$$
 (27)

The value of  $V_{GS}^{aux}$  depends on the operating mode of the driver. If manipulation of di/dt is desired at a specified drain current value  $I_D$ ,  $V_{GS}^{aux}$  can be determined by solving the device drain current  $i_D$  saturation region transfer characteristics [39]

$$i_D \approx g_s (v_{GS} - V_{th})^x (1 + \lambda v_{DS}) \rightarrow V_{GS}^{aux} = \sqrt[n]{\frac{I_D}{g_s (1 + \lambda v_{DS})}}$$
(28)

where  $g_s$  is the MOSFET transconductance, x is a fitting parameter to be adjusted to the specific device used and  $\lambda$  is the channel modulation index, with the value of  $v_{DS}$  being the device's blocking voltage. If manipulation of dv/dt is desired,  $V_{GS}^{aux}$  corresponds to the Miller plateau voltage, i.e., the value





(a) Equivalent circuit during auxiliary injection.

 $i \qquad T_{aux-on} \qquad i_{aux} \qquad I_{aux}$ 

iary sinking.

(c) Illustrative waveforms of the double gate current injection/sinking during turn-on.

Fig. 13: Turn-on transition showing the impact of injecting (solid line) and sinking (dashed line) auxiliary gate current.

of  $v_{GS}$  during the  $v_{DS}$  fall-time. This value can similarly be determined with "(28)" by setting the drain-current value  $I_D$  equal to the system's load current.

The value of  $V_{GS}^{aux}$  can also be determined by using the  $Q_g(v_{GS})$  measurements as seen in Fig. 4b. These measurements yields highly accurate values of  $V_{GS}^{aux}$  at a given load current value,  $I_D$ , and drain-source blocking voltage,  $V_{DS}$ . The  $Q_g(v_{GS})$  can be obtained experimentally (e.g. through DPT) as seen in Fig. 4b) or by using a Power Device Analyser  $Q_g(v_{GS})$  measurement method for both high  $V_{DS}$  and high  $I_D$  operation [40].

## E. Turn-off Pre-charge Interval

The turn-off pre-charge interval is initiated by turning  $Q_2$ and  $Q_3$  on, charging the inductor  $L_M$  to the value  $I_m$  as illustrated in Fig. 15a. Similarly to the turn-on pre-charge interval, the equivalent current divider caused by the  $L_H$ ,  $L_M$ ,  $R_g$  and  $C_{iss}$  results in a current  $i_g^{pre}$  that flows out of the gate prior to turn-off, as illustrated in the pre-charge equivalent circuit in Fig. 14. Thus, the gate-source voltage will be at a



Fig. 14: Equivalent RLC circuit during turn-on pre-charge interval

TABLE III: Double Pulse Test Circuit Parameters

$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$L_D$ 7nH	$L_S$ 7nH	$L_{up}$ 20nH	$L_{low}$ 20nH	$L_{LOAD} \\ 80 \mu H$	$C_f$ $10\mu F$	$C_{DS}$ $800\mu F$
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lower value  $V_{GS}^{pre}$  than  $V_H$  at turn-off, as illustrated in Fig. 15e.

## F. Turn-off

The turn-off process is initiated at time instant  $t_1$  by turning  $Q_3$  off while keeping  $Q_2$  on, as illustrated in Fig. 15b. The same analysis as provided in Section III-B is valid for the turn-off process, with "(25)" changed as

$$I_m \le \alpha_s C_{iss} \left( V_{GS}^{pre} + |V_L| \right) \tag{29}$$

to avoid undershoot in  $v_{GS}$  below  $V_L$ . The value of  $I_m$  together with the other driver design parameters determines the speed of the turn-off transition.

#### G. Turn-off Auxiliary Charge Interval

At time instant  $t_2$  after the turn-off, the auxiliary charging is initiated. The inductors  $L_H$  and  $L_L$  are charged with  $i_{aux}$ by turning  $Q_{aux}$  on, as illustrated in Fig. 15c. The amplitude of  $i_{aux}$  is determined by "(26)", similarly as for turn-on transition.

#### H. Auxiliary Turn-off

As for the auxiliary turn-on (Section III-D), the specific driver switches that need to turn on and off depend on whether the auxiliary current is to be sinked or injected. If injection (as  $i_g$  is negative during turn-off as defined in Fig. 7, "injection" is here current injected from the gate to the driver power supply) is desired, i.e., a higher negative value if  $I_{aux}$  than  $i_g$  at time instant  $t_3$ ,  $Q_4$  is turned on while  $Q_{aux}$  is turned off, yielding  $i_g = i_m + i_{aux}$ . If sinking is required,  $Q_4$  is turned on, while  $Q_{aux}$  and  $Q_2$  are turned off, yielding  $i_g = i_{aux}$ . To commutate  $i_m$ ,  $Q_1$  is turned on for a short period as explained in section III-D.

#### **IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS**

The proposed ACSGD was experimentally tested on a double-pulse test circuit (DPT) as illustrated in Fig. 16a with a photo of the setup shown in Fig. 16b. The setup consists of a



(a) Equivalent circuit during turn-off pre-charge interval.



off auxiliary charging interval.



(b) Equivalent circuit during the turnoff interval.



 (d) Equivalent circuit during auxiliary current injection.



(e) Illustrative waveforms of the double gate current injection/sinking during turn-off.

Fig. 15: Illustrative waveforms for the turn-off transition showing the impact of injecting or sinking auxiliary gate current.

high-voltage SiC MOSFET half-bridge power module and an inductive load. The electrical parameters for the DPT are given in Table III, while Table IV summarizes the device parameters for the SiC MOSFET power module and Table V summarizing the measurement equipment used during testing.

The following subsection shows experimental results verifying the working principle of the ACSGD for different driver operation modes. These different modes are:



(a) Double pulse test equivalent circuit schematic.



Fig. 16: Double pulse test setup.

#### TABLE IV: DUT Parameters

Device Name	FMF750DC-66A
Rated Blocking Voltage	$V_{BB} = 3.3kV$
Rated DC Drain Current	$I_D = 750A$
Internal Gate Resistance	$R_{q(int)} = 2.5\Omega$
Maximum $v_{GS}$ Voltage Stress	$[V_{GS}^{max}/V_{GS}^{min}] = [20V/-20V]$

- Single pulse Only  $i_m$  is varied with no additional second pulse.
- Variable di/dt An additional current pulse is injected or sank at a specified time instant in order to vary the di/dt of the device.
- Variable dv/dt An additional current pulse is injected or sank at a specified time instant in order to vary the dv/dt of the device.

# A. Single pulse

By varying the pre-charge interval length  $T_{pre} = t_1 - t_0$ , the peak current  $I_m$  provided to the gate at turn-on and turnoff can be varied. This affects the speed at which the gate charge,  $Q_g$ , is provided to the gate, impacting the switching speed of the MOSFET. The variation of  $T_{pre}$  also affects the pre-charge value  $V_{GS}^{pre}$  of  $v_{GS}$  as described in Section III-A, affecting the turn-on and turn-off delay times. The effects of varying  $i_m$  are shown in Fig. 18 for the turn-on transition



(a) PCB top view.



(b) PCB bottom view.

Fig. 17: ACSGD PCB photo.

TABLE V: Measurement Equipment

Scope	DPO4054B	$f_{bw} = 500MHz, 2.5GS/s.$
Voltage Probe $v_{DS}$	Tektronix P5100A	$f_{bw} = 500 MHz$
Current Probe $i_g$	PEM CWTUM	$f_{bw} = 30MHz$
Current Probe $i_D$	PEM CWTUM	$f_{bw} = 30MHz$



(b) Turn-on at  $V_{BB} = 900V$ .

Fig. 18: Single pulse turn-on operation of the ACSGD compared with the CVSGD (teal) with the same external gate resistance  $R_{g(ext)} = 1.5\Omega$ .

700V and a 5.5% reduction at 900V is achieved for the turnon energy  $E_{on}$ , and a 7.5% reduction at 700V and a 7.9% reduction at 900V is achieved for the turn-off energy  $E_{off}$ . An approximately 57% decrease in the turn-on delay time  $T_d^{off}$ and 32% decrease in the turn-off delay time  $T_d^{off}$  is achieved with the highest value of  $I_m$  compared to the CVSGD. An approximately 24% decrease in the total turn-on time  $T_{on}$  and 19.75% decrease in the turn-off time  $T_{off}$  is achieved with the highest value of  $I_m$  compared to the CVSGD.

TABLE VI: Single Pulse Results

	$E_{on}[J]$		$T_d^{on}[ns]$		$T_{on}[ns]$	
$V_{BB}$	700V	900V	700V	900V	700V	900V
CVSGD	0.0718	0.0996	350	350	960	980
$\mathrm{ACSGD}^{I_m^{max}}$	0.0672	0.0941	150	160	730	750
Reduction [%]	6.4	5.5	57.2	54.3	24	23.5
	$E_{off}[J]$		$T_d^{off}[ns]$		$T_{off}[ns]$	
$V_{BB}$	700V	900V	700V	900V	700V	900V
CVSGD	0.0335	0.0406	900	900	1570	1590
$\mathrm{ACSGD}^{I_m^{max}}$	0.0310	0.0374	610	610	1260	1290
Reduction [%]	7.5	7.9	32.2	32.2	19.75	18.9

with  $T_{pre}$  varied between 100 - 400ns and in Fig. 20 for the turn-off transition with  $T_{pre}$  varied between 100 - 500ns. The value of  $I_m$  is varied and compared with a CVSGD having the same external gate resistance  $R_{g(ext)} = 1.5\Omega$  for blocking voltages of  $V_{BB} = 700V$  and  $V_{BB} = 900V$  at a drain current level  $i_D \approx 450A$ .

Results containing turn-on and turn-off energy  $E_{on/off}$ , turn-on and turn-off delay  $T_d^{on/off}$  and total turn-on and turn-off time  $T_{on/off}$  for the CSVGD and ACSGD single pulse mode using maximum  $I_m = I_m^{max}$  are summarized in Table VI. As shown from these tables, a 6.4% reduction at The ACSGD energy use given by "(11)" is shown for the turn-on transition in Fig. 19 and for the turn-off transition in Fig. 21. The driver's energy use is calculated using experimental data from the time instant  $t_0$  to the time point that  $v_{DS}$  reaches approximately the on-state drain-source voltage for turn-on,  $T_{on}$  and from  $t_0$  to the time instant where  $i_D$  is approximately zero,  $T_{off}$ . As seen from Fig. 19, the energy use increases with increasing  $I_m$  (colorbar) and surpasses the



Fig. 19: ACSGD energy use  $E_D[J]$  for the turn-on interval in single pulse mode.



Fig. 20: Single pulse turn-off operation of the ACSGD compared with the CVSGD (teal) with the same external gate resistance  $R_{q(ext)} = 1.5\Omega$ .

associated CVSGD energy use for a certain value of  $I_m$ . The turn-off transition has an similar  $E_D$  trend, although after a certain value of  $I_m$  the  $E_D$  decreases. This is due to the shortened  $T_{off}$ , having a larger decreasing effect on the integral calculation than the increasing amplitude of  $I_m$ . The CVSGD energy use is larger than the ACSGD due to the larger  $T_{off}$  and lack of pre-charge interval.

#### B. Variable di/dt

By varying the time to the auxiliary turn-on  $T_{aux-on}$  and  $T_{aux}$ , the ACSGD can manipulate di/dt and dv/dt of the switched device. By injecting  $i_{aux}$  before (turn-on) and after (turn-off) the Miller plateau ( $v_{DS}$  fall and rise intervals) the  $i_D$  slew rate can be controlled. This is shown in Fig. 22, where varying values of  $i_{aux}$  are injected to the gate at  $t_3$  for an external gate resistor of  $R_{g(ext)} = 1.5\Omega$ . In Fig. 23,  $i_{aux}$  is varied and injected at different time instants  $t_3$  (i.e., varying length of  $T_{aux-on}$ ) for an external gate resistor of  $R_{g(ext)} = 1.5\Omega$ .



Fig. 21: ACSGD energy use  $E_D[J]$  for the turn-off interval in single pulse mode.



Fig. 22: Variable di/dt operation of the ACSGD with external gate resistance of  $R_{g(ext)} = 1.5\Omega$  with  $T_{aux-on} = 400ns$ .

Results containing average and maximum di/dt, turn-on time  $T_{on}$  and turn-on energy  $E_{on}$  for different values of  $T_{aux-on}$  and  $I_{aux}$  are shown in Table VII. It is clear from this table and Fig. 23 that di/dt is controllable using the ACSGD. In particular, the maximum value of di/dt is highly controllable and can vary between 1.24A/ns to 4.5A/nsthat is a maximum increase of 233% when the peak auxiliary current varies from  $I_{aux} = 0$  to  $I_{aux} = I_{aux}^{max}$ . The greatest reduction of turn-on energy loss  $E_{on}$  is obtained for  $T_{aux-on} = 750ns/I_{aux} = I_{aux}^{max}$  with a 33.5% decrease in  $E_{on}$  for the tested parameters.

TABLE VII: Results with variable di/dt

$I_{aux}$	$T_{aux-on}$	avg. $di/dt$	max. $di/dt$	$T_{on}[\mu s]$	$E_{on}[J]$
0	-	$0.67\;A/ns$	$1.24\;A/ns$	0.125	0.1189
$I_{aux}^{max}$	$350 \ ns \\ 500 \ ns \\ 750 \ ns \\ 900 \ ns$	0.87 A/ns 0.91 A/ns 0.91 A/ns 0.88 A/ns	1.35 A/ns 1.46 A/ns 3.2 A/ns 4.5 A/ns	$\begin{array}{c} 0.110 \\ 0.108 \\ 0.107 \\ 0.109 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.1183 \\ 0.1060 \\ 0.0798 \\ 0.0818 \end{array}$

# C. Variable dv/dt

By injecting  $i_{aux}$  during the Miller plateau ( $v_{DS}$  fall and rise interval) the  $v_{DS}$  slew rate can be controlled. This is shown in Fig. 24, where varying values of  $i_{aux}$  are injected to the gate at  $t_3$  when  $v_{DS}$  starts falling for an external gate resistor of  $R_{g(ext)} = 1.5\Omega$ . In Fig. 25,  $i_{aux}$  is varied and injected at different time instants  $t_3$  (i.e., varying length of  $T_{aux-on}$ ) for an external gate resistor of  $R_{g(ext)} = 4\Omega$ . Results containing average dv/dt, turn-on time  $T_{on}$  and turn-on energy  $E_{on}$  for different values of  $R_{g(ext)}$  and  $I_{aux}$  are given in





(d) Turn-on at  $V_{BB} = 900V$  with  $T_{aux-on} = 900ns$ .

Fig. 23: Variable di/dt operation of the ACSGD with external gate resistance of  $R_{g(ext)}=4\Omega$ 

Table VIII. As can be seen from this table, a 73% increase in dv/dt is achieved for  $R_{g(ext)} = 1.5\Omega$  and a 87% increase in dv/dt is achieved for  $R_{g(ext)} = 4\Omega$  with the highest value of  $I_{aux} = I_{aux}^{max}$  compared to no  $i_{aux}$  injection.

# V. DISCUSSION

The ACSGD is shown to be able to provide flexible turnon and turn-off delay times, controllable turn-on and turnoff switching times, as well as adjustable di/dt and dv/dtvalues. Therefore, the ACSGD is a suitable driver concept for

TABLE VIII: Results with variable dv/dt

$R_{g(ext)}$	$I_{aux}$	dv/dt	$T_{on}[\mu s]$	$E_{on}[J]$
$1.5 [\Omega]$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ I_{aux}^{max} \end{array}$	$5.5 \; V/ns$ $9.5 \; V/ns$	$0.890 \\ 0.860$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.1009 \\ 0.0987 \end{array}$
$4~[\Omega]$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \ I_{aux}^{max} \end{array}$	4 V/ns 7.5 V/ns	$1.350 \\ 1.290$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.1209 \\ 0.1121 \end{array}$





Fig. 24: Variable dv/dt operation of the ACSGD with external gate resistance of  $R_{g(ext)}=1.5\Omega$ .

power electronic converters where such features are desired. In general, using CCSGD enable the possibility of reduced switching speeds and, hence, reduced switching loss compared to CVSGD, at the cost of increased gate driver energy use. This is beneficial in converter designs having strict efficiency requirements. The ACSGD in single mode operation provides flexibility in turn-on and turn-off delay times and switching speed control. The possibility of reduced turn-on and turn-off delay times is an advantage in dead-time sensitive converter applications such as the DAB converter. Considering the DAB converter operating in buck-mode, it is unable to transfer its rated power if the ratio of the dead-time to the switching period halved is larger than approximately 0.25 [33]. The dead-time can further impact the DAB operation with unwanted effects such as voltage reversal, phase drift, increased reflow power and voltage sag. However, the dead-time should be sufficiently long to discharge the output capacitance  $C_{oss}$  of the converter MOSFETs in order to achieve zero-voltage switching. The optimal dead-time length is thus depending on the converter operating point. The ACSGD's ability to dynamically adapt the dead-time to the converter operating point could thus be highly advantageous in such converters, allowing for a more optimal converter performance.

The adjustable switching speeds are not only desirable



Fig. 25: Variable dv/dt operation of the ACSGD with external gate resistance of  $R_{g(ext)} = 4\Omega$ .

for reduced switching loss possibility resulting in increased converter efficiency, but also for active thermal control (ACT). By actively controlling the switching loss, the junction temperature of the SiC MOSFETs can be controlled. In particular, by increasing the switching losses, the junction temperature increases and vice versa. Thus, the anticipated temperature cycles under load variations can also be controlled. Operating the power devices under load variations for improved reliability, necessitates the junction temperature variations to be kept as low as possible. Thus, the amount of lifetime consumed is minimised, since lifetime is inversely proportional to the temperature variations. The variable di/dt and dv/dt modes can also enable electromagnetic emission control, suitable for application where strict electromagnetic compatibility constraints are of essence.

As seen in Table VI, there is a lower reduction in the turnon and turn-off energies  $(E_{on}/E_{off})$  than in the turn-on and turn-off times  $(T_{on}/T_{off})$ . The reason for this is that the drain current  $i_D$  in the saturation region evolves according to "(28)", hence a reduction in  $(T_{on}/T_{off})$  is not linearly reflected on a reduction in  $(E_{on}/E_{off})$ . For example, a 20% reduction, calculated as

$$\% reduction = 100 \cdot \frac{val_2 - val_1}{val_2}$$
(30)

in  $T_{off}$  does not correspond to a 20% reduction in  $E_{off}$  due to the drain current transfer characteristics and evolution of  $i_D$ , as illustrated in Fig. 26.

The oscillations in the waveforms in the experimental measurements are caused by the energy exchange between the power loop inductance  $L_{low} + L_D + L_S$  and the equivalent device capacitance of the DUT approximated by  $C_{oss}$  [41]. These circuit and device parameters constitute a resonant



(a) Illustration of turn-off waveforms with reduced turn-off time  $T_{off}. \label{eq:constraint}$ 



(b) The corresponding turn-off switching loss  $p_{off}$ .



(c) Illustration of relative reduction in turn-off time compared to turn-off switching energy  $E_{off}$ 

Fig. 26: Illustration of the turn-off procedure showcasing the switching losses variations.

circuit and consequently cause oscillations in  $i_g$  (and  $v_{GS}$ ) through  $C_{qs}$  feedback.

## VI. CONCLUSION

This paper proposes a novel adaptive current source gate driver capable of adaptively control the gate current of highvoltage SiC MOSFETs. The gate current manipulation is achieved by the proposed ACSGD enables independent control of turn-on and turn-off delay times, di/dt and dv/dt. The driver can provide reduced switching loss, shorter turn-on and turn-off delay times and shorter total turn-on and turn-off times compared to conventional voltage and current source gate drivers. Furthermore, the ACSGD ability to independently control di/dt and dv/dt is advantageous with respect to electromagnetic compatibility, the adaptive switching loss capability is advantageous for active thermal control and the adaptive turn-on and turn-off delay times is advantageous for dead-time critical power electronic systems, amongst others. From experiments on a 3.3kV/750A SiC MOSFET half-bridge power module, it has been shown that di/dt can be controlled in a range between 1.24A/ns to 4.5A/ns allowing switching energy reduction from 0.1183J to 0.0818J, respectively. In addition, dv/dt has been shown to be controllable in a range of 87%, while turn-on and turn-off delay times are reduced by 57% and 33%, respectively. These results prove the applicability of the proposed ACSGD to power semiconductor devices requiring adaptive functionalities for improving electrical and thermal performance.

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