Peak Current Mode Bifrequency Control Technique for Switching DC–DC Converters in DCM With Fast Transient Response and Low EMI

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Abstract—Peak current mode bifrequency (PCM-BF) control, a novel control technique for switching dc–dc converters in the discontinuous conduction mode (DCM), is proposed in this paper. It realizes output voltage regulation by employing high- and low-frequency control pulses with preset switching frequencies. At the beginning of each control pulse cycle, the output voltage is sampled and compared with reference voltage to determine whether high- or low-frequency control pulse should be generated as control pulse. Compared with conventional pulse-width-modulation-based PCM control (hereafter called PCM-PWM), which realizes output voltage regulation by adjusting the duty ratio of the control pulse cycle by cycle, the PCM-BF control is simple, cost effective, and enjoys fast transient response. Moreover, more low-frequency control pulses are generated for light load, which improve the power conversion efficiency at light load. Besides, high- and low-frequency control pulses with different switching frequencies spread the spectrum over discrete frequencies, resulting in low electromagnetic interference. A buck converter operating in the DCM is taken as an example to illustrate the applications and benefits of the PCM-BF control technique. Simulation and experimental results are presented to verify the analytical results.

Index Terms—Bifrequency (BF) control, discontinuous conduction mode (DCM), electromagnetic interference (EMI), peak current mode (PCM) control, switching dc–dc converter, transient response.

I. INTRODUCTION

C

ONVENTIONAL pulse width modulation (PWM) control strategies (such as voltage-mode and current-mode control) have been widely utilized for the control of switching dc–dc converters, which enjoy various benefits, such as small ripple, small steady-state error, and constant switching frequency. However, the transient response of these PWM controllers is slow in nature due to bandwidth limitation, which greatly challenges the design of its feedback control loop [1]. A lot of efforts are, therefore, devoted to improving the transient characteristics and numerous control methods have been proposed. Hysteric control [2]–[6], sliding mode control [7]–[9], and constant ON/OFF time control [10]–[12] have been presented to improve transient response of switching dc–dc converters by eliminating error amplifier and its corresponding compensation circuitry in the feedback loop. However, their switching frequencies vary dynamically with respect to line or load variations, which make it difficult to optimize the electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) design.

On the other hand, high-frequency switching dc–dc converter produces high \( \frac{dv}{dt} \) and \( \frac{di}{dt} \) due to fast switching transitions, which results in serious EMI problems and more likely causes intolerable EMI emission. As a result, EMI becomes an inevitable concern in the design of high-frequency switching dc–dc converter. Spreading of the switching frequency provides the most effective and cost saving approach for EMI suppression [13]. The random-switching control technique [14], [15] by adding a random perturbation to switching instant and the switching frequency modulation technique [16]–[19] by modulating the PWM switching signal with carrier signal, such as sinusoidal signal, were investigated to reduce the EMI emission. The spectrum power is spread over some small sidebands of switching frequency and the EMI emission is thus reduced. However, the implementations of these modulation techniques are complicated and the spectrum spreading over continuous frequency range challenges the EMI filter design.

Recently, pulse train control technique, which realizes output voltage regulation based on the presence and absence of high- and low-power control pulses of the same switching frequency and different duty ratios, was proposed to improve the transient performance and to simplify the controller design of switching dc–dc converters [20]–[24]. As the switching frequencies of these two different control pulses are the same, it still features the same EMI problem as the conventional PWM control technique does.

To overcome the aforementioned issues and to improve the performance of switching dc–dc converters, a novel control technique, called peak current mode bifrequency (PCM-BF) control, for switching dc–dc converters operating in the discontinuous conduction mode (DCM), is proposed in this paper. The PCM-BF control realizes output voltage regulation by employing high- and low-frequency control pulses instead of adjusting the duty ratio of the control pulse cycle by cycle as conventional PWM does. In the PCM-BF control scheme, there are two control loops, i.e., voltage loop and current loop. The voltage loop is used to determine whether high- or low-frequency control pulse should be generated as control pulse, and the current loop is used to determine the ON-time of the control pulse during the corresponding switching cycle. The adoption of current loop

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benefits with additional features, such as easier realization of current-limiting, overcurrent protection, and current sharing of parallel operation of switching dc–dc converters.

The proposed PCM-BF control technique is simple, cost effective, robust against parameters variations, and enjoys fast transient response. In addition, more low-frequency control pulses generated for light load make the power conversion efficiency high at light load. Besides, two control pulses, high- and low-frequency control pulses, with different switching frequencies spread the spectrum over discrete frequencies and reduce the spectrum power of the switching signal, which result in lower electromagnetic interference (EMI) and make the design of EMI filter easier.

The operation principle of the PCM-BF control technique is illustrated in Section II, and the stability of the PCM-BF-controlled DCM buck converter is analyzed in Section III. In Section IV, the steady-state repetition cycle and the effect of circuit parameters on the combination of high- and low-frequency control pulses are investigated. Sections V and VI give the simulation and experimental results of the PCM-BF-controlled DCM buck converter to verify the theoretical analysis. Section VII summarizes the conclusion remarks, as well as the overall evaluation of the proposed control technique.

II. PCM-BF CONTROL TECHNIQUE

A. Operation Principle

Fig. 1 shows the proposed PCM-BF-controlled buck converter. At the beginning of each control pulse cycle, the output voltage $v_o$ is sampled and compared with the reference voltage $V_{ref}$, the D flip-flop is used to determine whether the high-frequency control pulse $P_H$ with switching period $T_H$ or the low-frequency control pulse $P_L$ with switching period $T_L$ should be generated according to the output of the comparator, and the RS flip-flop is triggered to turn ON the power switch. It can be seen from Fig. 1 that the PCM-BF controller only consists of comparators, timers, D flip-flop, and RS flip-flop, without error amplifier and its corresponding compensation circuitry as the conventional PWM does; thus, the PCM-BF controller is simple and easy to design. Furthermore, due to the fact that the bandwidth limitation of error amplifier of the conventional PWM and its corresponding compensation circuitry are no more existed, the PCM-BF controller benefits with much faster transient response than that of the conventional PWM.

Fig. 2 illustrates the operation principle of the PCM-BF-controlled buck converter operating in the DCM. As shown in Fig. 2, when $v_o$ is lower than $V_{ref}$ at the beginning of a control pulse cycle, $P_H$ is active. On the other hand, when $v_o$ is higher than $V_{ref}$, $P_L$ is active. Control pulses $P_H$ and $P_L$ will be ended and the next control pulse will be initiated after the time intervals $T_H$ and $T_L$, respectively.

When $S$ is turned ON, the inductor current $i_L$ ramps up linearly, with a slope of $(V_{in} - v_o)/L$, from zero to the preset current limiting value $I_{Lim}$, and the reset signal of RS flip-flop is then triggered to turn OFF $S$, which makes $i_L$ decrease linearly to zero and keeps at zero until the beginning of next control pulse cycle.

From Fig. 2, the turn-ON time $t_{ON}$ of $S$ can be given as

$$t_{ON} = \frac{I_{Lim}L}{V_{in} - v_o}. \tag{1}$$

The average input current within the high- and low-frequency control pulse cycles can be given, respectively, as

$$I_{in,T_H} = \frac{t_{ON}I_{Lim}}{2T_H} \quad \text{and} \quad I_{in,T_L} = \frac{t_{ON}I_{Lim}}{2T_L} \tag{2}$$

and the input power within the high- and low-frequency control pulse cycles can be obtained, respectively, as

$$P_{in,T_H} = \frac{V_{in}t_{ON}I_{Lim}}{2T_H} \quad \text{and} \quad P_{in,T_L} = \frac{V_{in}t_{ON}I_{Lim}}{2T_L}. \tag{3}$$

Assuming $T_L = kT_H$ ($k > 1$), we can get $P_{in,T_H} = kP_{in,T_L}$, which means that the input power within one high-frequency control pulse cycle is $k$ times of that within one low-frequency control pulse cycle. From (3), we can know that if the switching period $T_L$ tends to infinite or the current limiting value $I_{Lim}$ tends to zero, the input power tends to zero to make the converter operate at lighter load or under standby condition.

For the PCM-BF-controlled buck converter, the output power $P_o$ should satisfy with $P_{in,T_L} \leq P_o \leq P_{in,T_H}$. Therefore, when...
$P_H$ is applied, the input power is larger than that required by the load, and the extra energy is stored in the capacitor, which makes the output voltage increase. On the other hand, when $P_L$ is applied, the input power is less than that required by the load, and the capacitor is discharged to provide extra power to the load, which makes the output voltage decrease.

During the steady state, the combination of $P_H$ and $P_L$ makes up a steady-state repetition cycle. By adjusting the combination in the steady-state repetition cycle, the output voltage can be regulated. Thus, it can be known that the steady-state period of the PCM-BF-controlled switching dc–dc converter is not a single control pulse as conventional PWM technique, but a repetition cycle consisting of several $P_H$ and $P_L$. Thus, similar to frequency jitter technique [25], [26], control pulses with different switching frequencies (high- and low-frequency) make the spectrum of the switching signal spread over some discrete frequencies and the spectral power level is thus reduced. Therefore, PCM-BF control technique can effectively reduce EMI noise and make the design of EMI filter easier.

### B. Stable Operation Region

For the PCM-BF-controlled buck converter operating in the DCM, there exists following inequation

$$\frac{t_{ON}}{T_H} < \frac{V_o}{V_{in}} \quad (4)$$

Substituting (1) into (4), we can get

$$T_H v_o^2 - V_{in} T_H v_o + V_{in} I_{lim} L < 0. \quad (5)$$

The solution of (5) gives

$$V_{o,L} < v_o < V_{o,H} \quad (6)$$

where

$$V_{o,L} = \frac{V_{in} - \sqrt{\frac{v_o^2}{2} - 4V_{in} I_{lim} L/T_H}}{2}$$

and

$$V_{o,H} = \frac{V_{in} + \sqrt{\frac{v_o^2}{2} - 4V_{in} I_{lim} L/T_H}}{2}.$$

Equation (6) gives the lower and upper boundaries of the output voltage for the PCM-BF-controlled buck converter operating in the DCM.

On the other hand, when all the control pulses are low- or high-frequency control pulses, under the assumption of 100% power conversion efficiency, the lower and upper boundaries of output power are determined as $P_{in,T_L}$ and $P_{in,T_H}$, respectively. As shown in Fig. 3, the output power ranges are restricted between the output voltages $v_o$ corresponding to points $C$ and $D$. While the output voltage is lower than the corresponding output voltage at points $C$ or higher than the corresponding output voltage at points $D$, the output power curve, i.e., $P_o = v_o^2/R_1$, will run out of the stable operation region for the specific load, and the PCM-BF-controlled buck converter is thus out of control.

In order to extend the stable operation region, according to (3), the most simple and straightforward way is to decrease the switching period $T_H$ and to increase the switching period $T_L$. However, the larger the difference between the switching periods $T_H$ and $T_L$, the larger the difference between the delivered power within the control pulses $P_H$ and $P_L$, and thus, the larger the output voltage ripple. The solution for this problem is to adopt multifrequency control pulses rather than BF control pulses, by utilizing more comparators and logic devices, or by adding a pulse skipping mode [27], [28] for load power smaller than $P_{in,T_L}$ and for the stand-by operation. It should be noted here that comparators and logic devices are much easier to realize than error amplifier in an IC; thus, realization of multifrequency control or pulse skipping mode are not a big deal in IC design.

### III. Stability Analysis

Energy iterative model of capacitor can be established by referring to [21] to investigate the stability of the PCM-BF-controlled DCM buck converter.
From [21], the energy iterative model of the capacitor of the PCM-BF-controlled DCM buck converter can be obtained as

$$E_{C,(n+1)T} = K(T)E_{C,nT} + A(T)E_{in}$$  \( (7) \)

where \( E_{C,nT} \) and \( E_{C,(n+1)T} \) correspond to the energy stored in the capacitor at the beginning and at the end of the \( n \)th control pulse cycle, \( E_{in} \) is the input energy in one control pulse cycle, and

$$K(T) = \frac{1 - \frac{T}{2}}{1 + \frac{T}{2}} , \quad A(T) = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{T}{2}} , \quad E_{in} = \frac{V_{in}t_{ON}I_{lim}}{2}.$$  \( (8) \)

Equation (7) gives the recursive relation of capacitor energy. As the switching periods \( T_H \) and \( T_L \) of control pulses are usually much smaller than the time constant of the output \( RC \) circuit, the recursive coefficient \( K(T) \) is larger than zero and smaller than 1. Thus, the energy iterative model is convergent, which makes the energy stored in the capacitor converge to the desired value

$$E_{C}^* = \frac{1}{2}CV_{ref}^2.$$  \( (9) \)

In the PCM-BF control, at the beginning of a control pulse cycle, when the energy stored in the capacitor is less than \( E_{C}^* \), \( P_H \) is applied to increase the energy stored in the capacitor. Similarly, when the energy stored in the capacitor is higher than \( E_{C}^* \), \( P_L \) is applied to decrease the energy stored in the capacitor. Thus, the closed-loop control strategy of the proposed PCM-BF-controlled DCM buck converter can be given as

$$E_{C,(n+1)T} = \begin{cases} K(T_H)E_{C,nT} + A(T_H)E_{in} & E_{C,nT} < E_{C}^* , \\ K(T_L)E_{C,nT} + A(T_L)E_{in} & E_{C,nT} > E_{C}^* . \end{cases}$$  \( (9) \)

Fig. 4 shows an example of the time evolution of \( E_{C,nT} \) of the PCM-BF-controlled switching dc–dc converter. It can be seen that \( E_{C,nT} \) varies between two energy trajectories, high- and low-energy trajectories. Starting from the initial capacitor energy \( E_{C,0} \), two high-frequency control pulses followed by one low-frequency control pulse, \( E_{C,nT} \) finally enters into a stable area around the desired \( E_{C}^* \), with small fluctuation, no matter how much the initial energy is stored in the capacitor. Therefore, PCM-BF-controlled switching dc–dc converters are always stable. In fact, as long as the output power is within the stable operation region, the PCM-BF control can realize output voltage regulation by regulating the combination of high- and low-frequency control pulses in the steady-state repetition cycle.

IV. STEADY-STATE REPETITION CYCLE AND ITS PARAMETERS SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

Within the steady-state repetition cycle, if there are \( \mu_H \) high-frequency control pulses and \( \mu_L \) low-frequency control pulses, then according to energy conservation rule, we have

$$(\mu_H + \mu_L)E_{in} = P_o(\mu_H T_H + \mu_L T_L).$$  \( (10) \)

From the aforementioned equation, we can have

$$\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L} = \frac{P_oT_L - E_{in}}{E_{in} - P_oT_H}$$  \( (11) \)

which gives the relation of \( \mu_H/\mu_L \) and circuit parameters in the steady-state repetition cycle.

From (11), we have \( \partial(\mu_H/\mu_L)/\partial P_o > 0 \), which means that more high-frequency control pulses will be needed with the increasing of output power.

Fig. 5 shows \( \mu_H/\mu_L \) as the function of output power.

Fig. 6 shows the effect of the input voltage on \( \mu_H/\mu_L \).
TABLE I
CIRCUIT PARAMETERS OF THE PCM-BF-CONTROLLED DCM BUCK CONVERTER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$V_{in}$</td>
<td>Input voltage</td>
<td>20 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_o$</td>
<td>Desired output voltage</td>
<td>6 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L$</td>
<td>Inductance</td>
<td>10 $\mu$H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C$</td>
<td>Output filter capacitance</td>
<td>1880 $\mu$F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_{H}$</td>
<td>High-frequency switching period</td>
<td>15 $\mu$s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_L$</td>
<td>Low-frequency switching period</td>
<td>60 $\mu$s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_{Lim}$</td>
<td>Inductor current limiting value</td>
<td>5.61 A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE II
RATIO $\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L}$ FOR DIFFERENT LOADS UNDER SPECIFIC $\eta$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$P_o/\eta$</th>
<th>$\eta$</th>
<th>$\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L}$</th>
<th>Control Pulse Combination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>$2P_H\cdot P_L$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>$3P_H\cdot P_L$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>$5P_H\cdot P_L$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>$11P_H\cdot P_L$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>$23P_H\cdot P_L$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>$\infty$</td>
<td>$\infty P_H$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 6. $\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L}$ as the function of output power with $V_{in}$ as a parameter.

Furthermore, for the qualitative analysis of parameters sensitivity, from (1), (7), and (11), we can have

$$\frac{\partial E_{in}}{\partial V_{in}} < 0, \quad \frac{\partial E_{in}}{\partial L} > 0, \quad \frac{\partial E_{in}}{\partial I_{Lim}} > 0$$

(12a)

and

$$\frac{\partial (\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L})}{\partial V_{in}} = \frac{\partial (\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L})}{\partial E_{in}} \frac{\partial E_{in}}{\partial V_{in}} > 0$$

$$\frac{\partial (\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L})}{\partial L} = \frac{\partial (\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L})}{\partial E_{in}} \frac{\partial E_{in}}{\partial L} < 0$$

$$\frac{\partial (\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L})}{\partial I_{Lim}} = \frac{\partial (\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L})}{\partial E_{in}} \frac{\partial E_{in}}{\partial I_{Lim}} < 0$$

$$\frac{\partial (\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L})}{\partial T_H} > 0, \quad \frac{\partial (\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L})}{\partial T_L} > 0.$$  

(12b)

These equations reveal the facts that in the steady-state repetition cycle, $\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L}$ will increase with the increasing of the input voltage, the switching periods of high- and low-frequency control pulses, and increase with the decreasing of the inductance or current limiting value.

Moreover, from (11), we can know that the capacitance has no effect on the ratio of $\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L}$, which only affects the output voltage ripple. It should be noted here that all the discussions given earlier are made according to (10), with the assumption of 100% power conversion efficiency. If the power conversion efficiency $\eta$ is less than 100%, (11) can be rewritten as

$$\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L} = \frac{P_o T_L - \eta E_{in}}{\eta E_{in} - P_o T_H}. \quad (13)$$

In this case, the ratio $\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L}$ is usually larger than that when $\eta = 100%$.

Table II gives the ratio $\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L}$ for different load under specific $\eta$ in the steady-state repetition cycle, with the circuit parameters listed in Table I. As shown in Table II, the lower the power conversion efficiency, the larger the ratio $\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L}$. Moreover, with the increasing of load power, the effect of power conversion efficiency on the ratio $\frac{\mu_H}{\mu_L}$ increases obviously.

V. SIMULATION ANALYSIS

In this section, simulation results of the PCM-BF-controlled buck converter in the DCM are provided with the circuit parameters as listed in Table I.

Fig. 7 shows the simulation results of the steady-state capacitor-energy trajectory for 6-W output power, from which it can be seen that there are only two capacitor-energy points $A$ and $B$, located on high- and low-energy trajectories, respectively. When the capacitor energy is located at point $A$, it will move to point $B$ next time, and vice versa. It means that the steady-state repetition cycle is $1P_H - 1P_L$, which is verified by the corresponding time-domain simulation results shown in Fig. 8, with the voltages at points $A^*$ and $B^*$ corresponding to the capacitor energies at points $A$ and $B$ in Fig. 7.

Fig. 9 shows the steady-state capacitor-energy trajectory for 12-W output power. As shown in Fig. 9, when the capacitor energy is located at point $A$, which is lower than the desired capacitor energy $E_C^*$, $P_H$ will be applied and the capacitor energy will move to point $B$. As the capacitor energy is still lower than $E_C^*$, $P_H$ will be applied sequentially to increase the capacitor energy until it moves to point $C$, where it is higher than $E_C^*$.  

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**Fig. 7**

Capacitor-energy trajectory with 6-W output power (simulation results).

**Fig. 8**

Time-domain simulation results with 6-W output power, showing voltages at points $A^*$ and $B^*$ corresponding to the capacitor energies at points $A$ and $B$ in Fig. 7.

**Fig. 9**

Capacitor-energy trajectory with 12-W output power (simulation results), showing the sequential application of $P_H$ to increase the capacitor energy until it moves to point $C$. The capacitor energy is still lower than $E_C^*$.
Then, $P_L$ is applied to decrease the capacitor energy to point $D$ located on the low-energy trajectory. The capacitor energy will move to point $A$ on the high-energy trajectory next time to initiate a new repetition cycle again.

From Fig. 9, there are 12 capacitor-energy points, of which 11 are located on the high-energy trajectory and one is located on the low-energy trajectory. It means that the steady-state repetition cycle is $11P_H - P_L$. Corresponding time-domain simulation results shown in Fig. 10 verify the control pulse combination predicted by the capacitor-energy trajectory, where the voltage at points $A^*$, $B^*$, $C^*$, and $D^*$ correspond to the capacitor-energy points $A$, $B$, $C$, and $D$ in Fig. 9.

Comparing Fig. 10 with Fig. 8, it can be seen that more high-frequency control pulses are applied to increase output power, as can also be obtained from Fig. 5.

Fig. 11 shows step load transient response of the PCM-BF- and PCM-PWM-controlled DCM buck converters, with load current varying from 1 to 2 A at 6 ms. In order to make it comparable, the switching period of PCM-PWM is designed as 15 $\mu$s, as the same as the switching period of $P_H$. From Fig. 11, it can be seen that the PCM-BF control technique provides much faster transient response. It takes only one high-frequency control pulse cycle to reach the steady state for the PCM-BF control, but for the PCM-PWM control, about 140 switching cycles are required.

However, from Fig. 11, it can be seen that the output voltage ripple of the PCM-BF-controlled DCM buck converter is a little larger than that of the conventional PCM-PWM-controlled DCM buck converter, due to the discrete duty ratios of control pulse. This drawback can be overcome by increasing the number of control pulses from bifrequency to multifrequency.
to decrease the difference between duty ratios of control pulses and, thus, to decrease the output voltage ripple.

Fig. 12 shows the spectrum of the drain–source voltage $V_{DS}$ of the power MOSFET under the PCM-PWM and PCM-BF controls. As shown in Fig. 12, the power level of the spectrum of $V_{DS}$ of the PCM-BF is much lower than that of the PCM-PWM. The operation at two different switching frequencies can effectively spread the spectrum of switching noise over two different switching frequencies; abundant side-frequency components are, thus, produced and the peak value of the spectrum of $V_{DS}$ is reduced. Although $V_{DS}$ spectrum reduction in the case of the PCM-BF control against the PCM-PWM control does not assure the EMI noise below the EMI regulation (e.g., EN55025), lower $V_{DS}$ spectrum makes it easier to satisfy EMI regulations by optimizing the circuit parameters design and PCB layout.

VI. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The prototype of the PCM-BF-controlled buck converter as shown in Fig. 1 is implemented with the same circuit parameters as for simulation.

Figs. 13 and 14 depict the output voltage ripple, inductor current, and control pulse for 6- and 12-W output powers, respectively. It can be seen that with the increasing of output power, the number of high-frequency control pulses increases evidently. Experimental results verify the analysis and simulation results.

It should be noted here that from Fig. 14, the ratio $\mu_H/\mu_L$ in the steady-state repetition cycle is 15:1, which is different from 11:1 as shown in Fig. 10. This difference is due to the fact that the power conversion efficiency of the experimental circuit is not 100%. From the combination of control pulses shown in Fig. 14, the power-conversion efficiency can be obtained from (13) as 95%, which is very close to the measured power-conversion efficiency of 94.7%.
Fig. 15. Measured power conversion efficiency of the PCM-BF- and PCM-PWM-controlled DCM buck converters.

Fig. 16. Experimental results of step load transient response of the PCM-PWM- and PCM-BF-controlled buck converters.

Fig. 17. Experimental results of the spectrum of $V_{DS}$.

Fig. 15 gives the measured power-conversion efficiency of the PCM-BF- and PCM-PWM-controlled DCM buck converters at different output powers, respectively. It can be seen that the power conversion efficiency of the proposed PCM-BF-controlled buck converter is always between that of PCM-PWM-controlled buck converter with the switching period as the same as that of high- and low-frequency control pulses of the PCM-BF control (15 and 60 $\mu$s). At light load, the power-conversion efficiency of the PCM-BF-controlled buck converter is close to that of the PCM-PWM-controlled buck converter with low switching frequency, due to the fact that low-frequency control pulses are dominant in the steady-state repetition cycle, which results in the decrease of the switching losses.

Fig. 16 shows the experimental results of load transient response of the PCM-PWM- and PCM-BF-controlled buck converters under load current step variation from 1 to 2 A and 2 to 1 A, respectively, which well verifies the simulation results shown in Fig. 11.

Fig. 17 shows the experimental results of the spectrum of the drain–source voltage $V_{DS}$ of the power MOSFET of the PCM-PWM- and PCM-BF-controlled buck converters, which well verifies the simulation results shown in Fig. 12.

VII. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a novel control technique, called the PCM-BF control, for switching dc–dc converters is proposed and illustrated in detail by taking buck converter operating in the DCM as an example. The PCM-BF-controlled converter is always
stable once the output power is within the preset output power range. Furthermore, the PCM-BF enjoys advantages over conventional PWM control techniques, such as easier design and implementation, faster transient response, higher power conversion efficiency at light load, and lower EMI noise. Simulation and experimental results are given to verify the theoretical analyses.

Although PCM-BF control technique is only applied to the DCM buck converter in this paper, it can also be used to the control of switching dc–dc converters with other topologies, such as boost, buck-boost, flyback, etc., and will find application in the areas, such as ac/dc adapter, LED lighting power supply, and so on.

REFERENCES


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