Introduction
The B-G474E-DPOW1 Discovery kit is a complete digital power starter kit controlled by the STMicroelectronics Arm® Cortex®-M4 core-based STM32G474RET6 microcontroller. The kit showcases the features of digital power including LED dimming, buck-boost with variable load, Power Delivery (USB Type-C™), and audio class-D amplification.

This application note focuses on the buck converter onboard this Discovery kit and teaches the principles of voltage-mode control, how to design a compensator to stabilize and regulate the voltage-mode controlled buck converter and how to implement this onboard the STM32 microcontroller.

Figure 1. B-G474E-DPOW1 top view

Figure 2. B-G474E-DPOW1 bottom view

Pictures are not contractual.
The B-G474E-DPOWER Discovery kit runs with the STMicroelectronics Arm® Cortex®-M4 core-based STM32G474RET6 microcontroller.

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2 Buck converter operation

The B-G474E-DPOW1 Discovery kit contains a synchronous buck converter power stage. The simplified schematic of the power stage for a synchronous buck converter is shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Simplified power stage schematic

2.1 Principle of operation

The operation of the synchronous buck is as follows. At the beginning of the switching period, the PWM of the top switch (Q1) is set HIGH and the bottom switch (Q2) is set LOW. This turns on MOSFET Q1 and turns off MOSFET Q2. With the Q1 switch conducting, the current through the inductor L1 begins increasing linearly. At the end of the high-side duty cycle, the switch Q1 is turned off.

A dead-time is inserted between the high-side and low-side PWM for switches Q1 and Q2 to prevent shoot-through, where both switches are partially on at the same time causing a large current to flow through Q1 and Q2 and can damage the MOSFETs. When this dead time has elapsed the low-side PWM for the switch Q2 goes HIGH which turns on the switch Q2. At this time the inductor acts to continue the flow of current and the current now flows through switch Q2. The current through the inductor begins decreasing linearly. This switching action is described in the buck converter waveforms of Figure 4.
The output filter capacitor $C_{out}$ filters the AC component of this current while the DC component of this current is the output load current, $I_{out}$. As this is a step-down converter, the output voltage is always less than or equal to the input voltage. In continuous conduction mode, the steady-state duty cycle of the high-side switch $Q1$ can be calculated in (1).

$$D = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

There are two main control methods for the buck converter. These are voltage mode control and peak current mode control. The software example preloaded onto the starter kit provides an example of a well-tuned digital voltage-mode controlled buck converter.
3 Voltage mode control explained

3.1 Advantages and disadvantages

Voltage mode control is one of the most popular control methods due to its simplicity and effectiveness in regulating an output voltage given any changes in load. Under voltage mode control, the output voltage is measured and compared with the desired set point or reference. The difference between the actual output voltage and the desired output voltage is used as an input to a controller and the output of the controller determines the new value of the duty cycle to close the control loop.

Therefore, unlike other methods of control such as peak current mode, the voltage mode controller only needs information about the output voltage in order to close the control loop and provide a regulated and stable output voltage. Typically, some current information is required to provide an overall power limit. Alternatively, this can be crudely achieved by limiting the maximum duty cycle.

Further advantages of voltage-mode control include the ability to step down the voltage by a significant amount and maintain proper regulation for small and no loads. The PCB layout process for a voltage-mode controlled buck converter is typically simplified due to not requiring a switch or inductor current sense transducer, and voltage mode control is less sensitive to non-optimal PCB layouts.

As discussed so far, voltage mode control has good load regulation. It compensates for any changes in load to maintain a set output voltage. However, in its standard implementation, voltage mode control has poor line regulation. There is a delay between the line voltage increasing or decreasing and the duty cycle adjusting to compensate for the subsequent change in output voltage. Therefore, it is common to add a feed-forward term to the control loop, which is a measure of the input voltage.

3.2 Step-by-step control loop

Figure 5. Buck converter voltage control loop

The simplified control loop of a voltage mode converter is shown in Figure 5. Here, the power stage containing the switching MOSFETs, output filter inductor, and output filter capacitor are all shown within the block Hp(s). This is referred to as the plant transfer function. The controller, which is designed to compensate for this control loop, is shown as the block $H_c(s)$. This is referred to as the controller transfer function. The PWM block is usually included as part of the plant, Hp(s) block, however, it is separated so that the effects of this block can be analyzed independently.

For the purposes of this discussion, the current work is performed in the continuous-time domain, also known as the s-domain, and this is why the plant and controller are a function of the Laplace operator, s. The translation from the continuous-time domain to the discrete-time domain is discussed later in this application note.

At a steady-state, the plant power stage provides a fixed output voltage given the fixed input voltage and duty cycle. In Figure 5 the output voltage of the power stage is fed back and compared with a reference, Vref. This is the desired output voltage and therefore if there is any deviation from the reference there is a non-zero error term.

The error term is used as an input to the controller, $H_c(s)$. The controller manipulates the error term in some way depending on the type of controller that is designed. The output of the controller is the duty cycle which is used as an input to the power stage and modulates the MOSFET switches.

This closed-loop control process can be easily visualized by means of a numerical example. For now, let us assume that the controller $H_c(s)$ is a simple proportional controller with unity gain and the reference is the desired output voltage of 3.3 V.

If the output voltage dropped down to 3.2 V due to an increase in output load, then the error term can be calculated as follows:
As the proportional controller has unity gain, the output of the controller can be calculated as follows:

\[ Y(s) = X(s) \times H_C(s) \]

\[ Y(s) = 1 \times 0.1 \text{V} \]

\[ Y(s) = 0.1 \text{V} \]

The output of the controller is then used as an input for the PWM block. The PWM block takes the controller output and converts this to an effective duty cycle. There are several different methods for achieving this and, for analog voltage mode control, this is typically achieved using a PWM comparator and an RC ramp as shown in Figure 6.

**Figure 6. PWM comparator comparing RC ramp to control voltage**

Within the PWM block the control voltage, Vctrl, which is the output of the previous controller block, is compared with an RC ramp using a comparator. The output of the comparator is HIGH when the control voltage is larger than the RC ramp voltage. Therefore, to achieve a 100% duty cycle the control voltage needs to be equal to the maximum RC ramp height. This is typically internal to many analog ICs and the implementation differs in digital and is discussed later in this application note. If, for now, it is assumed that the maximum ramp height is 1 V, then the duty cycle can be calculated as follows:

\[ \text{Duty} = X(s) \times \text{PWM} \text{COMP} \]

\[ \text{Duty} = 0.1 \text{V} \times \left( \frac{100\%}{1 \text{V}} \right) \]

\[ \text{Duty} = 10\% \]

This is then used as an input to the plant block which contains the power stage and thus subsequently determines the output voltage and the loop is now closed. This simplified analysis helps to explain the different blocks within the closed-loop system. However, in reality, the analysis performed is small-signal analysis with the purpose of determining the s-domain transfer functions for the different blocks within the system.

The small-signal analysis aims to describe the behavior and therefore the output of the system given small changes in the input. The stability of the system can then be determined using this analysis. The modeled behavior of the system is used, through means of s-domain transfer functions, to characterize the plant and then analytically design a compensator to stabilize the control loop.
3.3 Buck plant transfer function

The derivation of the buck power stage transfer function is straightforward under voltage-mode control. The output filter inductor resonates with the output filter capacitor forming a double pole in the plant transfer function. Consider the output LC filter of the buck converter shown in Figure 7.

**Figure 7. LC output filter of the buck converter power stage**

![LC output filter diagram](image)

The transfer function of the LC filter can be determined using Laplace and by analyzing the impedances in series and parallel.

\[ Z_1 = sL \]

\[ Z_2 = \frac{1}{sC} \parallel R \]

\[ Z_2 = \frac{R + \frac{1}{sC}}{R} \]

\[ Z_2 = \frac{R}{sC R + 1} \]

\[ H_{LC}(s) = Z_2 Z_1 + Z_2 \]

Putting this in the standard form for a second-order polynomial:

\[ H_{LC}(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 \omega_{LC}^2 + s \frac{1}{Q \omega_{LC}} + 1} \]

Therefore:

\[ \omega_{LC} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} \]

\[ Q = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\omega_p} \sqrt{LC}} \]

From this analysis, it can be seen that the double pole has an undamped natural frequency, \( \omega_p \), and a resonant peak depending on the Q. The typical Bode plot of this double pole output filter is shown in Figure 8.
In the Bode plot shown in Figure 8, the low-frequency gain is 0 dB. This is because the LC filter has no effect at low frequencies. However, in reality, there is some low-frequency gain introduced by the PWM block. As discussed earlier, the gain of this depends upon the height of the RC ramp in analog, in digital the implementation of the PWM gain differs as there is no RC ramp or analog comparator. The effect of the PWM block is that the low-frequency gain is shifted up by some amount. The amount by which the Bode plot is shifted by can be calculated as follows:

\[
G_{PWM} = \frac{\text{output}}{\text{input}}
\]

\[
G_{PWM} = \frac{V_{OUT(MAX)}}{V_{RAMP(MAX)}}
\]

This equation is valid at other ramp heights provided that the corresponding duty cycle and output voltage are calculated. For example:

\[
G_{PWM} = \frac{V_{OUT(50\% \ \text{duty})}}{V_{RAMP(50\% \ \text{duty})}}
\]
3.4 Capacitor ESR zero

The model discussed so far does not include the parasitic elements of the output filter capacitor. The parasitic elements of the capacitor are shown in Figure 9.

Figure 9. Ideal capacitor and capacitor with parasitic elements

The parasitic equivalent series resistance (ESR) has a significant impact on the plant transfer function for the buck converter. The parasitic equivalent series inductance of the capacitor is usually only dominant at much higher frequencies and therefore it can be ignored in this transfer function.

Likewise, the inductor has the parasitic elements as shown in Figure 10. Typically, only the DC resistance (DCR) of the inductor winding is considered as the interwinding capacitance is only an issue at high frequencies which are above that of the control loop.

Figure 10. Ideal inductor and inductor with parasitic elements

The effect of the capacitor ESR is that the zero is formed in the power stage transfer function. The zero is shown in the numerator of the plant transfer function in (2).

\[
H_p(s) = \frac{1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{ESR}}}{\frac{s^2}{\omega_{LC}^2} + \frac{1}{Q\omega_{LC}} + 1}
\]  

(2)

The location of the zero is given in (3) and is dependent on the capacitance and the ESR value.
The addition of the capacitor ESR and inductor DCR also affects the damping of the double pole and the natural frequency. The updated equation for the Q and natural frequency of the double pole is given in (4) and (5).

\[
\omega_{ESR} = \frac{1}{C \cdot R_{ESR}}
\]

(3)

\[
\omega_{LC} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC\left(1 + \frac{R_{ESR}}{R}\right)}}
\]

(4)

\[
Q = \frac{1}{\omega_{LC}\left(\frac{1}{R} + C\left(R_{ESR} + \left(1 + \frac{R_{ESR}}{R}\right)R_{DCR}\right)\right)}
\]

(5)
4 Voltage mode compensator design

4.1 Loop stability criteria

Consider the control loop of the buck converter shown in Figure 11. In this figure, the forward and loop paths of the control loop are identified. The transfer function for the closed-loop system is given in (6).

\[ TF = \frac{\text{Forward}}{1 - \text{Loop}} \]  

(6)

The closed-loop transfer function can be derived by applying this to Figure 11:

\[ H_{CL}(s) = \frac{\text{Forward}}{1 - (-\text{Loop})} \]  

(7)

The loop response also called the open-loop, is the compensator transfer function \( H_c(s) \) combined with the plant or power stage transfer function \( H_p(s) \) and also includes the modulator gain – the PWM block. The Bode plot of a typical loop response is shown in Figure 12.
Several terms can be defined from this Bode plot. The first is the crossover frequency. This is the frequency at which the gain plot crosses the 0 dB axis. If the gain plot is falling at a rate of 20 dB/decade around the crossover frequency, then below the crossover frequency, which means at a lower frequency going left on the frequency X-axis, the gain plot has positive gain, meaning that it has a gain greater than 1.

At the crossover frequency, the value of the phase in the open-loop determines the stability of the closed-loop system. If the phase is -180° or less with a gain greater than or equal to 1 then the closed-loop system becomes unstable. This can be seen from the denominator of (7).

Therefore, to ensure stability, the phase of the open-loop system must be greater than -180° at the crossover frequency. This term is defined as the phase margin and is the amount by which the phase is above the -180° at the crossover frequency. Typically, the compensator is designed such that the phase margin is 45° or more at the crossover frequency. A phase margin of 45° equates to a loop phase of -135°. Therefore, the loop phase is 45° above the -180° point of instability. The phase margin is shown as 64° in Figure 12.

4.2 Crossover and phase margin specification

The choice of crossover frequency and phase margin determines how well the converter responds to line and load transients. Typically, the higher the crossover frequency is the faster the response and recovery in the time domain. However, there are certain limitations that prevent the choice of a crossover frequency that is too high. In a standard analog voltage-mode controlled buck, the plant phase rolls-off due to the double pole. The capacitor ESR zero adds phase to the loop however it cannot be relied upon to achieve stability. Furthermore, the op-amp internal to analog control ICs introduces a phase roll-off as the frequency approaches the bandwidth.
With a digital compensator, there is no analog op-amp bandwidth to consider. However, the delays within the digital system introduce a phase loss. As the frequencies approach the sampling frequency this phase loss becomes significant. A method for calculating the anticipated phase loss is covered later in this application note. Therefore, a recommended starting point for the crossover frequency between 1/10th and 1/20th of the sampling frequency. This is assuming that the sampling frequency is the same as the switching frequency.

**Crossover specification:** 1/10th to 1/20th of the sampling/switching frequency

As discussed earlier, the phase margin is an indicator of the stability of the system. With 0° of phase margin, the system becomes unstable. For <30° of phase margin, the system likely has multiple oscillations in the time domain when subjected to the line and load transients. For 45° of phase margin, the system likely has one ring in the time domain after recovery from a transient. Therefore, 45° of phase margin is typically the minimum allowable.

Conversely, a larger phase margin may result in a slower response to line and load transients. For example, a phase margin of 60° may result in zero overshoot, no ringing, and a slower recovery. Therefore, there must be a balance between the choice of crossover frequency and the amount of phase margin that the combined system has. In Figure 13 the step response for a system with decreasing crossover frequency and phase margin is shown (from grey to green). The response becomes slower and more oscillatory as the crossover and phase margin are both decreased.

**Figure 13. Step response for a system with decreasing crossover and phase margin (grey to green)**

![Step response graph](image)

Phase margin specification: a minimum of 45° of phase margin at the crossover frequency, ideally between 50° and 60°

**4.3 Types of compensators**

A compensator needs to be designed and added into the loop in order to shape the loop response to meet the desired crossover frequency and phase margin specifications. In the analog domain, a compensator usually consists of an inverting op-amp with a compensation network of capacitors and resistors around the negative feedback path. The combinations of capacitors and resistors determine the location of the poles and zeros of the compensator.

There are typically two types of compensators which are used for stabilizing power supplies. These are universally referred to as the Type II and Type III compensator. For voltage mode control, the Type III compensator is required. This is because Type II does not provide enough zeros to compensate for the phase lag due to the double pole of the voltage mode buck plant transfer function. The circuit for a Type III compensator is shown in Figure 14.
The transfer function for this circuit can be derived in the same manner as that of the buck power stage. For brevity, the full transfer function is included without derivation in (8).

\[
H_C(s) = \left(\frac{s}{\omega_{CP0}} + 1\right) \left(\frac{s}{\omega_{CZ1}} + 1\right) \left(\frac{s}{\omega_{CZ2}} + 1\right)
\]

(8)

The transfer function in (8) has two zeros, two poles, and a pole at the origin. The locations of these zeros and poles are determined by the capacitors and resistors in the compensation network according to (9) through (13).

\[
\omega_{CZ1} = \frac{1}{R_2 C_1}
\]

(9)

\[
\omega_{CZ2} = \frac{1}{C_2 (R_1 + R_3)}
\]

(10)

\[
\omega_{CP0} = \frac{1}{R_1 (C_1 + C_3)}
\]

(11)

\[
\omega_{CP1} = \frac{(C_1 + C_3)}{R_2 C_1 C_3}
\]

(12)

\[
\omega_{CP2} = \frac{1}{R_3^2}
\]

(13)

In digital, this compensator is implemented on the MCU and the translation from analog to digital is discussed in the next section.

4.4 Compensator pole/zero placement

The locations of the poles and zeros of the compensator need to be selected such that, when the compensator is combined with the plant power stage, the open-loop frequency response meets the stability criteria of:

- Desired crossover frequency
- Desired phase margin at the crossover
- A shallow slope of -20 dB/decade around the crossover

There are several different methods that can be applied to achieve this. In this application note, the straightforward and intuitive method of the pole/zero cancellation is applied. Consider the plant transfer function discussed earlier:

- The plant has a double pole due to the resonance between the output filter inductor and capacitor.
- The plant has a single zero due to the ESR of the output filter capacitor.
- The plant has a DC gain.
The effects of the plant double pole can be partially canceled out by placing the two compensator zeros at the natural frequency of the double pole. It is of course not possible to completely cancel out the complex conjugate double pole of the plant with two real zeros in the compensator, however, it lessens the effect of the double pole and provide 180° of phase boost at around one decade above this frequency:

\[
\{\omega_{CZ1}, \omega_{CZ2}\} = \omega_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}
\]

Now that the two zeros of the compensator are placed, the two poles of the compensator and the pole at the origin still remain. One of the compensator’s poles can be used to cancel out the parasitic ESR zero of the power stage. This effectively eliminates the gain and phase contribution from the parasitic ESR zero. However, this is reliant on the accurate determination of the actual ESR value for the capacitor or capacitors used.

\[
\omega_{CP1} = \omega_{ESR} = \frac{1}{C_{RESR}}
\]

The second compensator pole can be placed at half the switching frequency and in doing so the high-frequency gain is attenuated while not having a significant impact on the phase at around the crossover frequency.

\[
\omega_{CP2} = \pi F_s
\]

The final term of the compensator to calculate is the pole at the origin. As the name implies, this compensator pole is at the origin, and therefore setting the position of the pole at the origin is, in fact, changing the gain and not moving the pole. This can be used to adjust the crossover frequency of the loop. Adding the pole at the origin to the compensator introduces the constant -20 dB/decade gain roll-off which is desirable around the crossover frequency. The pole at the origin also provides very high low-frequency gain which removes steady-state errors and rejections and low-frequency perturbations of the control loop.

\[
\omega_{CP0} = \omega_{RAMP} \times \frac{V_{IN}}{V_{RAMP}} \times \frac{\omega_X}{1 + \frac{\omega_X^2}{\omega_{ESR}^2}} \times \frac{1 + \frac{\omega_X^2}{\omega_{CZ1}^2}}{1 + \frac{\omega_X^2}{\omega_{CZ2}^2}} \times \frac{1 + \frac{\omega_X^2}{\omega_{CP1}^2}}{1 + \frac{\omega_X^2}{\omega_{CP2}^2}}
\]

The method discussed so far gives the user control over the crossover frequency but not the phase margin. Typically, it may result in a large phase margin, however, in a digital system the phase loss due to the digitization delays may result in a significant amount of phase margin erosion. Therefore, it is possible to derive an equation that analytically calculates the precise location of one of the compensator zeros in order to achieve the specified phase margin. This is achieved by solving the equality shown in (19) for the compensator zero \(\omega_{CZ1}\).

\[
\angle(H_p(j\omega)H_C(j\omega)) = -\pi + \theta_M
\]

(19) states that the phase of the plant combined with compensator must be equal to -180° plus the desired phase margin at the crossover frequency. Again, with some trigonometry, this equality can be solved for \(\omega_{CZ1}\) and the result is given in (20).

\[
\omega_{CZ1} = \frac{\omega_X}{\tan\left(-\frac{\pi}{2} + \phi_M - \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{\omega_{PP1}} - \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{\omega_{PP2}} + \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{\omega_{CP1}} - \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{\omega_{CP2}} - \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{\omega_{CZ2}}\right)}
\]

Where \(\omega_{PP1}\) and \(\omega_{PP2}\) are the complex conjugate poles of the double pole formed by the inductor and capacitor in the plant.

This equation requires the calculation of the inverse tangent of complex numbers necessitating the use of a mathematical package to evaluate. For this application note, the software tool Biricha ST-WDS is used to perform the calculations and is available for download free of charge from the Biricha website www.biricha.com/st-wds. This tool is discussed in detail through means of a complete design example later in this application note.
Discrete-time controller

5.1 Bi-linear transform

With the poles and zeros of the compensator placed in the continuous-time domain, the s-domain, they must be converted into the discrete-time domain in order to implement the controller on the MCU. To implement the discrete-time controller, the continuous-time Type III compensator, which is discussed in the previous section, is converted into its discrete-time equivalent.

There is a direct mapping between the continuous-time domain, the s-domain, and the discrete-time domain, the z-domain. The relationship is shown in (21).

\[ z = e^{sT} \] (21)

There are several different methods that can be used to covert an s-domain transfer function into the discrete-time z-domain. A commonly used method is the bilinear transform (also called the Tustin or trapezoidal transform). This transform approximates the continuous-time signal based on a trapezoid from \( k \) to \( k+1 \). An example of this is shown in Figure 15.

**Figure 15.** Continuous-time signal sampled in discrete time using a trapezoidal approximation

This trapezoidal approximation gives rise to the transform given in (22).

\[ s \leftrightarrow \frac{2(1 - z^{-1})}{s(1 + z^{-1})} \] (22)

This transform has the advantage that a system with stable poles and zeros, which means a left-half plane, transforms into a system with stable z-domain poles and zeros. The stable region in the z-domain is the area on or inside the unit circle. Therefore, the mapping is shown in Figure 16.
There is inevitably some distortion with the mapping given that the entirety of the left-half s-plane is mapped to the unit circle in the z-domain. However, this distortion is only significant as the frequency approaches the sampling frequency. For this power supply application, most of the compensator poles and zeros are significantly below the sampling frequency. Furthermore, the crossover frequency is specified between 1/10th and 1/20th of the sampling frequency and there is no significant distortion from the mapping around this frequency.

However, this transform does not include the effects of the pure time delays in the discrete-time system and there is an additional phase roll-off that is not considered here. This manifests itself as a phase erosion at the crossover frequency and this must be taken into account when the compensator is being designed.

5.2 3p3z controller

The bilinear transform is applied to the s-domain Type III compensator by replacing every instant of $s$ in the s-domain transfer function with the bilinear mapping. The initial substitution is given in (23) and the simplified result is given in (24).

$$H_C[z] = \left( \frac{\omega CP_0}{2} \frac{1 - z^{-1}}{1 + z^{-1}} \right) \left( \frac{2}{T S} \frac{1 - z^{-1}}{1 + z^{-1}} + 1 \right) \left( \frac{\omega C Z_1}{\omega C Z_2} \right)^{-1} + 1$$

$$H_C[z] = \frac{B_3 z^{-3} + B_2 z^{-2} + B_1 z^{-1} + B_0}{-A_3 z^{-3} - A_2 z^{-2} - A_1 z^{-1} + 1}$$

In the discrete-time z-domain, the transfer function now has three z-domain poles and three z-domain zeros. Therefore, this controller is now referred to as a three-pole three-zero controller or 3p3z for short.

The numerator of the transfer function is grouped into like terms consisting of 'B' coefficients and likewise, the denominator is grouped into like terms consisting of 'A' coefficients. These coefficients are given in (25) to (31).

$$B_3 = \frac{T S \times \omega CP_0 \times \omega CP_1 \times \omega CP_2 \times (-2 + T S \times \omega CZ_1) \times (-2 + T S \times \omega CZ_2)}{(2 + T S \times \omega CP_1) \times (2 + T S \times \omega CP_2) \times \omega CZ_1 \times \omega CZ_2}$$

$$B_2 = \frac{T S \times \omega CP_0 \times \omega CP_1 \times \omega CP_2 \times (-4 + 3T S^2 \times \omega CZ_1 \times \omega CZ_2 - 2T S \times (\omega CZ_1 + \omega CZ_2))}{(2 + T S \times \omega CP_1) \times (2 + T S \times \omega CP_2) \times \omega CZ_1 \times \omega CZ_2}$$

$$B_1 = \frac{T S \times \omega CP_0 \times \omega CP_1 \times \omega CP_2 \times (-4 + 3T S^2 \times \omega CZ_1 \times \omega CZ_2 + 2T S \times (\omega CZ_1 + \omega CZ_2))}{(2 + T S \times \omega CP_1) \times (2 + T S \times \omega CP_2) \times \omega CZ_1 \times \omega CZ_2}$$

$$B_0 = \frac{T S \times \omega CP_0 \times \omega CP_1 \times \omega CP_2 \times (2 + T S \times \omega CZ_1) \times (2 + T S \times \omega CZ_2)}{(2 + T S \times \omega CP_1) \times (2 + T S \times \omega CP_2) \times \omega CZ_1 \times \omega CZ_2}$$
The controller coefficients can be calculated using the following equations:

\[
A_3 = \frac{(-2 + Ts \times \omega_{CP1}) \times (-2 + Ts \times \omega_{CP2})}{(2 + Ts \times \omega_{CP1}) \times (2 + Ts \times \omega_{CP2})}
\]

\[
A_2 = \frac{(12 - Ts^2 \times \omega_{CP1} \times \omega_{CP2} - 2 \times Ts \times (\omega_{CP1} + \omega_{CP2}))}{(2 + Ts \times \omega_{CP1}) \times (2 + Ts \times \omega_{CP2})}
\]

\[
A_1 = \frac{(-12 + Ts^2 \times \omega_{CP1} \times \omega_{CP2} - 2 \times Ts \times (\omega_{CP1} + \omega_{CP2}))}{(2 + Ts \times \omega_{CP1}) \times (2 + Ts \times \omega_{CP2})}
\]

There is no need to calculate these controller coefficients by hand as the software tool Biricha ST-WDS available from www.biricha.com/st-wds performs these calculations.

Finally, now that the controller is in the discrete-time 3p3z form, it can be converted into a linear differential equation which can be easily implemented on the MCU. This takes advantage of the shifting property of the z-domain transfer function and converts from z-domain to discrete sample in (32).

\[
\]

Where \(y[n]\) is the output for the current sampling interval. The structure of this controller is depicted in Figure 17.

For this voltage mode buck converter, the current output of the controller may be the new value of duty cycle which is used in the following switching period. Therefore, there is now an equation which can implement the analytically designed controller and is calculated by the MCU at every sampling interval when there is a new sample available.
5.3 Pure time delays

In this discrete-time digital system, there are additional time delays which are not present in the equivalent analog continuous-time system. A pure time delay in the discrete-time system results in a phase delay that is proportional to the frequency and time delay.

There are two sources of time delay in the digital system. The first is the time from which the output voltage sample is taken, to the time at which it is used. This is referred to as the calculation delay. In effect the older the sample the more phase delay is associated with the sample. As an ideal example, a convenient time to trigger the ADC and sample the output voltage may be at the beginning of the switching period. In this case, the output voltage is sampled, converted, and used in the controller to provide the new value of the duty cycle. This sampling and calculation time may take several hundred nanoseconds and the new value of duty cycle is ready to use towards the end of that switching period. This situation is described in Figure 18.

![Figure 18. Sources of delay within the discrete-time system](image)

However, as the new duty cycle is not used until the following switching cycle, the total time delay for this calculation time is considered to be one complete switching period. Of course, if the user can delay the trigger for the ADC until later in the switching period then it is possible to reduce this time delay.

The second contribution to the time delay is that of the zero-order-hold (ZOH) introduced by this sampled data system. The ADC is triggered once per switching cycle, this sampled data is used to calculate the new value of duty cycle and that duty cycle is held constant for the remainder of the next switching period. Therefore, there is one zero-order-hold in this system. The frequency response of a ZOH is given in (33).

\[
F_{\text{ZOH}}(j\omega) = \frac{1 - e^{-j\omega T_S}}{j\omega}
\]  

(33)

This can be shown to be a complex number expressed in polar form, and therefore the phase angle is given in (34).

\[
\angle F_{\text{ZOH}}(j\omega) = -\frac{\omega T_S}{2}
\]  

(34)

To understand how this phase angle can relate to a time delay, consider as an example the 1-Hz sine wave shown in Figure 19. If this sine wave is delayed by 0.5 s, the result is the sine wave shown as a dashed line in Figure 19.
It is clear from this that the time-delayed sine wave now has a phase delay of 180°. Therefore, the equation to calculate the phase delay of a sine wave given the pure time delay $T_D$ is given in (35).

$$p.d. = -2\pi f T_D$$  \hspace{1cm} (35)

This indicates that there is some phase delay across all frequencies, however, when $T_D << 1/f$ the phase delay is negligible. This is true for very low frequencies assuming that the phase delays in the digital system can be kept to a minimum.

The frequency at which this phase delay may become a concern is the crossover frequency of the open-loop system as this is where the phase margin is defined. Earlier in this application note, it is specified that the phase margin has a minimum value of 45° to ensure a transient response which is not oscillatory in the time domain. Therefore, the amount of phase loss at the crossover frequency can be calculated given the known time delays in the digital system.

$$p.e. = -2\pi f X T_D$$  \hspace{1cm} (36)

The expected phase erosion at the crossover frequency can be added to the desired phase margin such that this phase loss is compensated for at design time. This can be achieved by adding the expected phase erosion to the phase margin specified in (36). This adjusts the location of the compensator zero to add the required phase boost and compensate for this phase loss such that the resulting overall phase margin meets the specification.

### 5.4 Digital gains

The output of the 3p3z controller in Figure 20 is scaled by a factor, $K$. This scaling factor is responsible for negating all of the additional gains introduced by the digital system. The compensator poles and zeros are analytically calculated to achieve the specified crossover frequency and phase margin. If the additional gains within the digital system are not accounted for then the overall loop gain, and thus phase margin, is incorrect.
Consider the block diagram of the digital control loop shown in Figure 20. The output voltage Vout needs to be scaled down to a voltage suitable for sampling by the ADC onboard the MCU. This is the purpose of the potential divider formed by R1 and Rb. This also determines the setpoint value that the controller must regulate. The gain of the pre-ADC scaling potential divider can be calculated in (37).

\[
G_{PD} = \frac{R_b}{R_1 + R_b}
\]  

(37)

Then the ADC onboard the MCU converts the voltage, which is between 0 V and 3.3 V and provides a 12-bit output, meaning a number between 0 and 4095. Therefore, the gain of the ADC can be calculated using (38).

\[
G_{ADC} = \frac{2^{12} - 1}{3.3 \, \text{V}}
\]  

(38)

The output of the controller is used to update the duty cycle register and therefore this must be in the correct scaling. The PWM is implemented using the HRTIM module onboard the MCU and the timer compare register is used to control the effective duty cycle. The HRTIM module outputs a duty cycle of 100% when the timer compare register is set to the period value. Therefore, the gain of the PWM module can be calculated using (39). This is similar to the RC ramp and analog comparator gain seen earlier in the analog voltage-mode example.

\[
G_{PWM} = \frac{100\%}{\text{period}}
\]  

(39)

In order to achieve the correct loop gain, the controller must negate these additional gains. That is achieved using the scaling factor K, which can be calculated in (40).

\[
K = \frac{1}{G_{PD}G_{ADC}G_{PWM}}
\]  

(40)

Finally, the ADC output is compared with the digital reference set point. This digital reference must be in the same scaling as the ADC output and take into account the divider on the input of the ADC. Therefore, the reference can be calculated using (41).

\[
V_{REF} = V_{OUT}G_{PD}G_{ADC}
\]  

(41)
6 Software implementation

6.1 Targeted application

The following configuration sets up the STM32 MCU to operate a closed-loop voltage mode buck converter using the onboard peripherals including the ADC, DMA, and HRTIM. The FMAC is used to implement the 3p3z controller. This implementation means that the main core usage is reduced to an absolute minimum and is the preferred option allowing the MCU to be utilized for other tasks, or running more power supplies. The example software project to accompany this application note is called Buck_VoltageMode_HW as it uses as many hardware peripherals as possible. However, it is possible to use the main core to implement the 3p3z controller instead of the FMAC. In this case, the configuration is different from that discussed below and an example of this is provided in the project titled Buck_VoltageMode_SW.

6.2 Configuration using STM32CubeMX

The following section contains step-by-step instructions for recreating the STM32CubeMX project for the buck converter under-voltage mode control on the Discovery kit. This complete project can be downloaded by following the links provided within this application note appendix. However, the full configuration is included here for completeness.

Open STM32CubeMX by clicking on the icon below (note the version number/icon may differ slightly):

![Figure 21. STM32CubeMX icon](image)

Now create a new STM32CubeMX project. This project configures the MCU peripherals and also generates an IAR Embedded Workbench® project. IAR™ is used to compile and link the code as well as for programming and debugging the MCU.

Within the STM32CubeMX window click on File, New Project.

![Figure 22. New project selection](image)

The new project device selector window now opens. Within this window click on the Board selector tab and filter down the boards by selecting the Discovery kit for the Type and STM32G4 for the MCU/MPU Series.
This may filter down the available boards on the right-hand side of this window to include the B-G474E-DPOW1 Discovery kit which this application note is using. Double click on this board within the table. A prompt is displayed asking if the user likes to initialize all peripherals with their default mode. Click Yes. This sets up the pins and peripherals with their default setting for this particular evaluation board.

Before making any changes to the project, save the project by going to File, Save Project As...
The name given to the folder, *Folder Name*, is also the name of the project. If this folder does not exist it is created. Click *Save* when done.

On the right-hand side of the main window click *Project Manager* and select the preferred toolchain and version from the dropdown list as shown in Figure 27.
6.2.1 Clock configuration

Select the Clock Configuration tab which is along the top of the main STM32CubeMX window. Locate the PLL section and change the peripheral clock divider to /6. Then select the clock source for the ADC12 Clock Mux to PLLP. These settings are highlighted in the image below.
The ADC12 clock may now be 56.66 MHz.

6.2.2 GPIO peripheral configuration

For this application note, a digital pin is configured to allow timing measurements to be performed. On the Pinout & Configuration tab, locate the pin PB9 towards the top left of the microcontroller. Left-click on the pin PB9 and select GPIO_Output as per the image below.

Then, right-click on PB9 and select Enter User Label. This allows us to change the name of the pin so that it can be easily referenced within the code. This pin is called GPO1.
Enter this into the pop-up box as per the image below.

**Figure 30. GPIO renaming**

Now expand the System Core category on the left-hand side of the window. Click on GPIO. Under the GPIO tab, click on the row for PB9. Change the Maximum output speed setting to Very high as per the image below.
Figure 31. GPIO maximum output speed setting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pin</th>
<th>existing label</th>
<th>new label</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PB7</td>
<td>LD4 [Green LED]</td>
<td>LED_RIGHT_GREEN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PB5</td>
<td>LD5 [Red LED]</td>
<td>LED_UP_RED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA15</td>
<td>LD2 [Blue LED]</td>
<td>LED_DOWN_BLUE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PB1</td>
<td>LD3 [Orange LED]</td>
<td>LED_LEFT_ORANGE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The configuration for GPO1 is now complete.
Now, some of the default pin labels must be changed to work with the example code provided. Within the pinout view of the MCU, locate the following pins, right-click on them and select Enter User Label and change the label to the new label listed in the table below.
The GPIO configuration is now complete.
6.2.3 ADC peripheral configuration

The peripherals can now be configured. On the top menu select Pinout & Configuration and then on the left-hand pane, expand the System Core list and click on DMA. The DMA is used to copy the result from the ADC result register to the FMAC for the execution of the controller. By default, there is no DMA request configured and therefore one must be added for the ADC. On the DMA1, DMA2 tab, click the Add button. Select ADC1 as the DMA Request source. Set the Mode to Circular and untick increment address for memory. Change the Data Width to Word for both Peripheral and Memory. The configuration window may now look like the screenshot in Figure 33.

The DMA configuration on this tab is now complete. Next, the ADC is configured. Expand the Analog peripheral list and click on ADC1. Click on the GPIO Settings tab and the list of pins already configured is shown. These are configured based on the EVM default which is loaded when the project is created. However, the USBPD_VIN is not required for this project and this can be removed by changing IN8 to Disable.
On this screen, it can also be seen that the ADC Channel 4 (ADC_IN4) has the user label BUCKBOOST_VOUT and is connected to PA3. This is the output voltage of the buck converter. This is required in the next configuration step.

Click on the **Parameter Settings** tab. Here, under the **ADC_Settings** section, the **Data Alignment** may be changed to **Left Aligned**. This stores the 12-bit result from the ADC in the 16-bit results register with left alignment. That means the upper 12-bits (plus 1 sign bit) of the 16-bit register is used.

Change the **DMA Continuous Requests** setting to **Enabled**.

Under the **ADC_Regular_ConversionMode** section, set the **External Trigger Conversion Source** to **High Resolution Trigger 1 event**. Then set the **External Trigger Conversion Edge** to **Trigger detection on the rising edge**.

For this voltage mode buck converter, only one ADC conversion is required. This is the output voltage rail that is regulated. Therefore, the number of conversions is currently set to one. This conversion can be configured by expanding the **Rank** subcategory.

Set the **Channel** to **Channel 4** (this is the channel associated with the output voltage from the previous step). Then configure **Offset Number** to **1 Offset**. The offset feature of the ADC allows an offset to be subtracted from the ADC value before it is stored in the results register. This is used to perform the error calculation, $V_{ERR} = V_{REF} − V_{OUT}$, in hardware.

Set the **Offset** value to **REF**. REF is a term that is defined in the code later on. By default, STM32CubeMX has error checking on the input fields. To disable this and allow the currently unknown value REF to be entered into this input field, click on the cog symbol on the right-hand side of the input value and change the check to **No check**.
Still, on the ADC1 configuration pane, click on the NVIC Settings tab and disable the ADC interrupt by unchecking the ADC1 and ADC2 global interrupt checkbox.

The ADC configuration is now complete.

### 6.2.4 HRTIM configuration

Next, the hi-resolution timer module is configured to generate the PWM. On the left-hand side peripherals pane, expand the Timers category, and click on HRTIM1. The Discovery kit has multiple switching power stages onboard and the timers for these are configured by default when the project is created. However, for this voltage mode buck converter, only Timer C is required. Disable all of the other timers as shown in the screenshot below.
The power stage of the Discovery kit contains boost switches that are following the buck stage and are used when operating as a non-inverting buck-boost converter. These boost switches are controlled by Timer D, however, in this application note, the boost switches are not driven by PWM. The boost switches form part of the buck power stage current path, and therefore they must be configured in either a HIGH or LOW state to allow the buck stage to function correctly.

Now that Timer D is disabled, go back to the Pinout view of the microcontroller. PB15 and PB14 may be highlighted in yellow. These are the pins that control the boost switches. Left-click on PB15 and PB14 and configure them both as a GPIO_Output.

Right-click on PB15 and select Enter User Label. Enter the label: BUCKBOOST_P2_DRIVE.

Right-click on PB14 and select Enter User Label. Enter the label: BUCKBOOST_N2_DRIVE.

Within the program code, these pins are set either HIGH or LOW to enable or disable the boost switches and allow the converter to operate under buck mode.

Next, within the HRTM1 configuration pane, click on the Timer C configuration tab. First, the Time Base Settings section must be configured. Set the period value to 27200, and the tool may automatically switch from hex to decimal when pressing enter. The resulting PWM period may now be calculated as 200 000 Hz.

The next section on the Timer C configuration tab is the Timing Unit section settings. Here, change the Dead Time insertion to Deadtime is inserted between output 1 and output 2. This enables the deadtime section which allows the outputs to be configured such that both high-side and low-side switches are never driven at the same time.
Further down the Timer C configuration tab is the sections for configuring the compare units. These compare units allow events to be configured based on a comparison between the individual compare unit and the timer counter. For this example, three compare units are configured as follows.

For **Compare Unit 1** section change the configuration setting to **Enable**. Enter a **Compare Value** of 0. This is the initial value of the duty cycle fixed to 0%. The compare event is used later on as a reset source to clear the output.

For **Compare Unit 2** section change the configuration setting to **Enable**. Enter a **Compare Value** of 24480. This is the maximum value of the duty cycle fixed to 90%. The compare event is used later on as a reset source to clear the output.

For **Compare Unit 3** section change the configuration setting to **Enable**. Enter a **Compare Value** of 50. This is the event that is used to trigger the ADC sample. This can be moved to a clean point in the switching cycle, which means away from the turn on or turn off of the switch.
The next section to configure on the Timer C configuration tab is the Dead Time section. Locate this section and set the Rising Value to 75 and Falling Value to 300.

The last two sections to configure on the Timer C configuration tab are the Output 1 Configuration and Output 2 Configuration sections. These are located towards the bottom of the tab.

Under the Output 1 Configuration section, change the Set Source Selection number to 1. Change the 1st Set Source event to Timer period event forces the output to its active state.

Change the Reset Source Selection number to 2. Change the 1st Reset Source event to Timer compare 1 event forces the output to its inactive state. Then change the 2nd Reset Source event to Timer compare 2 event forces the output to its inactive state.

Finally, set the Fault Level to Output at inactive level when in FAULT state.
The Output 2 Configuration section is left unchanged as this output is driven by the dead-time configuration entered earlier.

Finally, the ADC trigger must be configured for the HRTIM1 module. Under HRTIM1 select the ADC Triggers C configuration tab. Enable the ADC Trigger 1 and set the Update Trigger Source to Timer C, enter the number of Trigger Sources Selection to 1. From the 1st Trigger Source drop-down box, select ADC Trigger on Timer C compare 3. This is the event that triggers the ADC.
6.2.5 FMAC configuration

The last peripheral which requires configuration is that of the FMAC. As discussed earlier, the FMAC is used to execute the controller and compute the new value of the duty cycle for this voltage mode buck converter. To enable the FMAC, expand the Computing category on the left-hand side of the window. Select FMAC and on the configuration pane tick the Activated box. Also, tick the box to enable the FMAC interruption under the NVIC Settings tab.

6.2.6 IRQ handler configuration

By default, STM32CubeMX creates interrupt handlers for the configured peripherals. These are created in a separate interrupt handler .c file within the project. If the user wishes to create their own interrupt handler function then the automatic generation of the IRQ handler function must be disabled for that peripheral.

In this application note, the user writes his own SysTick handler function and therefore the automatic generation of this IRQ handler must be disabled. To do this click on the NVIC sub-category within the System Core category on the left-hand side of the window. Click on the Code Generation tab.

Untick the Generate IRQ handler checkbox for Time base: System tick timer as per the image below.
Within the code, the DMA interrupt is disabled and therefore the IRQ handler for the DMA is also not needed and can be unticked.

Finally, generate the project by clicking the **GENERATE CODE** button. This creates the necessary project files for the selected IDE. In this example, IAR Embedded Workbench® from IAR Systems is used. However, there are multiple IDEs for which STM32CubeMX can generate project files, including the free use of STM32CubeIDE from STMicroelectronics.

A prompt appears once the project files are created, which asks if the user likes to open the project. Click **Open Project** to load the project into the selected IDE.

The main.c file contains the code for this project, open the main.c file and read the comments.
6.3 Program flow description

The `main.c` file contains the majority of the code for setting up and initializing the peripherals. Some of the code within this file is automatically generated by the STM32CubeMX tool as per the configuration process in the previous step of this application note. The `main.c` file is structured as shown in Figure 47.

Within these code files, there are comments similar to `USER CODE BEGINS HERE` and `USER CODE ENDS HERE`. It is essential that any additional code added to the project is kept between these two comments. This is because, outside of these comments, the code is automatically generated by the STM32CubeMX tool. If any changes are made to the project configuration within the tool, and the code is re-generated by clicking `GENERATE CODE`, the additional changes made outside of these comment bounds are lost. Keeping the user code within these comment bounds ensure that the code persists after the next time the code is re-generated using the STM32CubeMX tool. Figure 48 shows examples of the user code locations highlighted in fuchsia.
Figure 48. Example of user code locations within main.c

```c
/* USER CODE BEGIN 1 */

/* USER CODE END 1 */

/* MCU Configuration----------------------------------------------*/

/* Reset of all peripherals, Initializes the Flash interface and the Systick. */
HAL_Init();

/* USER CODE BEGIN Init */

/* USER CODE END Init */

/* Configure the system clock */
SystemClock_Config();

/* USER CODE BEGIN SysInit */

/* USER CODE END SysInit */

/* Initialize all configured peripherals */
MK_GPT0_Init();
MK_DMA_Init();
MK_RTC_Init();
MK_ADC1_Init();
MK_HRIIR1_Init();
MK_FMVC_Init();

/* USER CODE BEGIN 2 */

/**# Configure the FMAC peripheral ################################**/

sFmacConfig.InputBaseAddress = INPUT_BUFFER_BASE;
sFmacConfig.InputBufferSize = INPUT_BUFFER_SIZE;
sFmacConfig.InputThreshold = INPUT_THRESHOLD;
sFmacConfig.CoeffBaseAddress = COEFFICIENT_BUFFER_BASE;
```

The structure of the main function within the `main.c` file is represented in Figure 49. This is the function that the MCU jumps to after power on – the entry point within the code. Therefore, this function contains calls to all of the initialization functions to set up the peripherals onboard the MCU. After this, the controller for the buck converter is set up and initialized with the calculated coefficients. Finally, the ADC is started and begins sampling the output voltage and the PWM outputs are enabled to drive the buck switches.
The sampling of the ADC module is triggered by the HRTIM module, in this case by comparing unit 3, which is set to a number of HRTIM ticks after the beginning of the switching period to avoid switching noise corrupting the sample. Once the sampling and conversion are complete, the ADC triggers the DMA to copy the result directly from the ADC results register to the FMAC input register. This process is depicted in Figure 50.
6.4 Interrupt service routine

After the FMAC completes the execution of the 3p3z controller, it triggers an interrupt. The interrupt causes the MCU to jump from wherever it is, most likely sitting in the while(1) loop within main(), and execute the code within the FMAC ISR. The FMAC ISR is a separate function that is located towards the end of the stm32g4xx_it.c file included with this project. It has the function name `FMAC_IRQHandler(void)`.

The purpose of this FMAC ISR is to perform bounds checking on the output of the 3p3z controller executed using the FMAC. The output of the controller is the new value of the duty cycle and is written to the compare unit 1 register of the HRTIM. However, the compare unit has a maximum value equal to that of the period register. Therefore, the logic depicted in Figure 51 is implemented within the user code section of the FMAC ISR.
6.5 3p3z controller coefficients

The 3p3z controller coefficients are defined in the header file, main.h. This can be easily accessed by locating the #include "main.h" towards the top of the main.c file, right-clicking on main.h and selecting Open main.h from the menu. Within this header file, there are several defines for the pin names which are automatically generated by STM32CubeMX.

Further down this file, there is a /* USER CODE BEGIN Private defines */ section where the definitions for the FMAC configuration begin. The controller coefficients are defined below the FMAC configuration parameters. These coefficients (B0, B1, B2, B3, A1, A2, A3) are given in a fixed-point hexadecimal form. Earlier in this application note, it is shown how the compensator poles and zeros, in the continuous-time domain, are converted into discrete-time controller coefficients. The last step required is to convert these discrete-time controller coefficients into fixed point form for use on the fixed point FMAC.

6.6 ST-WDS configuration

The power supply design tool ST-WDS from Biricha is used to generate the fixed-point controller coefficients for this controller implemented on the FMAC. ST-WDS is free-to-use and can be downloaded for free from the Biricha website, visit www.biricha.com/st-wds for more information.

The .wds file associated with this application note is included in the project downloads in the appendix of this application note. However, the process for re-creating the WDS project settings is included here for completeness.
The initial screen of ST-WDS is shown in Figure 52. The left-hand pane is used for entering the specification of the power supply along with the other pertinent design parameters. The right-hand pane displays the control loop Bode plots, schematic and outputs the required digital controller coefficients.

To calculate the digital controller coefficients the power supply specification must first be entered. On the Specification tab, enter the specification shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Discovery kit specification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specification tab parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topology</td>
<td>Buck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input supply max</td>
<td>5 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input supply nom</td>
<td>5 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input supply min</td>
<td>5 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output maximum current</td>
<td>0.2 A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output voltage</td>
<td>3.3 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltage ripple (peak to peak)</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Load step 100% to...</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltage overshoot</td>
<td>5 mV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demand efficiency</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control mode</td>
<td>Voltage, Digital control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switching frequency</td>
<td>200 kHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pure time delay</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crossover frequency</td>
<td>8 kHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase margin</td>
<td>50°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specification tab parameter</td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum duty limit</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum duty limit</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Specification tab may now look like the screenshot shown in Figure 53.
The Transformer tab is not used as this is a buck converter and this tab is only applicable for topologies which include a power stage transformer. Next, click on the Semiconductors tab and enter the specification shown in Table 3.
### Table 3. Semiconductors tab parameter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semiconductors tab parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ON resistance</td>
<td>56 mΩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rise time</td>
<td>20 ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fall time</td>
<td>20 ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parasitic capacitance (Coss)</td>
<td>79 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forward voltage drop</td>
<td>0.02 V</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Semiconductors tab may now look like the screenshot shown in Figure 54.

### Figure 54. ST-WDS semiconductor tab

The Output Filter tab is next and has the specification shown in Table 4.
Table 4. Output filter parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Output filter tab parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specified peak to peak ripple</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L0 inductance</td>
<td>51 μH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L0 DCR</td>
<td>380 mΩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C0 capacitance</td>
<td>100 μF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C0 ESR</td>
<td>170 mΩ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Output Filter tab may now look like the screenshot shown in Figure 55.
On the next tab, **Controller Design**, a Type III compensator is automatically designed by ST-WDS by placing the compensator poles and zeros so as to achieve the desired crossover frequency and phase margin. There is no need to enter any parameters into this tab as the poles and zeros are already calculated and may match those given in Table 5.

### Table 5. Controller design parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Controller design parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pole at the origin</td>
<td>1195.78 Hz</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The last configuration tab is Digital (Non-Isolated). Enter the specification given in the following table.
Table 6. Digital non-isolated parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Digital non-isolated tab parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PWM master clock frequency</td>
<td>5440 MHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum PWM period count</td>
<td>27200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADC bits</td>
<td>12 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADC range</td>
<td>3.3 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-ADC input scaling</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 57. ST-WDS digital non-isolated tab

Now that the controller coefficients are calculated, they need to be converted into the format required for use with the fixed point FMAC. To do this within ST-WDS, click on the Coeffs (ST) tab on the right-hand pane. Here, set the Controller Type and Output setting to FMAC (Fixed Point). Earlier within the STM32CubeMX configuration, the ADC result is configured to be left-aligned. Therefore, click on the ADC Result Left-Aligne d radio button within ST-WDS. The pane may now look like Figure 58.
Figure 58. Fixed point controller coefficient calculation in ST-WDS

The fixed-point coefficients are now displayed at the bottom of the window. It is now possible to copy these to the clipboard for use within the code. Click the **Copy Hex to Clipboard** button. The following coefficients may now be on the clipboard:

```c
#define B0 (0x5521)  
#define B1 (0x5564)  
#define B2 (0xAB31)  
#define B3 (0x4AEE)  
#define A1 (0x616)   
#define A2 (0xFE93)  
#define A3 (0xFF57)  
#define pre_shift (+3)  
#define post_shift (+5)  
#define REF (819)  
#define DUTY_TICKS_MIN (0)  
#define DUTY_TICKS_MAX (24480)
```

These are the coefficients that are used within the example application.

### 6.7 CCM-SRAM usage

The CCM-SRAM is an area of memory that is tightly coupled to the Arm® Cortex® core. This allows the core to execute the code at the maximum clock rate without any wait-states as typically found when execution from the Flash memory.

This functionality is ideal for routines that are time-critical such as the control loop implementation discussed in this application note. The STM32G474RE device featured on the Discovery kit contains 32 Kbytes of CCM-SRAM that can also be accessed via the DMA.

In order to use the CCM-SRAM area of memory, the memory areas must be defined in the linker files and the code must be copied from the Flash memory to the CCM-SRAM area at program startup. Therefore, there are several steps to follow in order to achieve this. The application note *Use STM32F3/STM32G4 CCM SRAM with IAR™ EWARM, Keil® MDK-ARM and GNU-based toolchains (AN4296)* contains step-by-step instructions for implementing this functionality using the different IDEs.
7 Design example

7.1 Power stage component selection

The Discovery kit is designed to allow the user to explore the many features that the STM32G4 Series has to offer. This section focuses on the design of the buck-converter power stage and presents the design equations used to select the appropriate components.

The buck converter is implemented on this Discovery kit as part of a buck-boost converter. It means that there are boost switches as well as buck switching FETs. The extract from the schematic shown in Figure 59 identifies the relevant switches. The full schematic can be downloaded from B-G474E-DPOW1

**Figure 59. Discovery kit schematic: buck-boost power stage**

When using the converter in buck mode the boost switches are not driven (the high-side switch is ON, the low-side switch is OFF) and the simplified circuit shown in Figure 60 can be used to describe the power stage.
There are some constraints on the choice of the power stage components as this power stage is used for both buck and boost applications. In this design example, the buck specification given in Table 7 is considered. The power stage can also be designed using the ST-WDS Power Supply Design Tool from Biricha, however, the equations for selecting the power inductor and filter capacitor are presented here for completeness.

### Table 7. Power stage parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specification</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Input voltage</td>
<td>5 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output voltage</td>
<td>3.3 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output current ($I_O$)</td>
<td>0.2 A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ripple current ($\Delta I_L%$)</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output voltage ripple</td>
<td>1% peak-to-peak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switching frequency</td>
<td>200 kHz</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First, the steady-state duty cycle is calculated using (42). This does not take into account any of the parasitics.

$$D = \frac{V_{OUT}}{V_{IN}} = \frac{3.3 \text{ V}}{5 \text{ V}} = 66\%$$

#### 7.1.1 Power inductor

The power stage inductor is sized based on the maximum allowable ripple current at the switching frequency given the input and output voltage specification. Using the standard equation for the voltage rise on an inductor given in (43) rearranged for inductance, the inductance required to meet the specification can be calculated using (44).

$$V = L \cdot \frac{dI}{dt}$$

$$L_0 = \frac{D \cdot T_S \cdot (V_{IN} - V_{OUT})}{\Delta I_L\% \cdot I_O}$$
Where $T_S$ is the switching period. Therefore:

$$L_0 = \frac{66\% \cdot 5\mu s \cdot (5V - 3.3V)}{50\% \cdot 0.2A} = 56\mu H$$

(45)

The REDEXPERT online tool from Würth Elektronik can be used to identify a suitable inductor. For this power stage, a 51 $\mu$H inductor is selected.

### 7.1.2 Output filter capacitor

The output filter capacitor is sized based on either the output voltage ripple requirement or the transient load step requirement, whichever requires the larger value of capacitance. The majority of the voltage ripple at the switching frequency on the output voltage of the buck converter is due to the voltage generated across the parasitic equivalent series resistance (ESR) of the electrolytic capacitor used in the output filter. The maximum value of the ESR can be calculated given the voltage ripple requirement and the known current ripple.

$$R_{ESR(max)} = \frac{V_{RIPPLE}}{\Delta I}$$

(46)

$$R_{ESR(max)} = \frac{V_{OUT} \cdot V_{RIPPLE}\% \cdot L_0}{5 \cdot T_S \cdot (V_{IN} - V_{OUT})}$$

(47)

$$R_{ESR(max)} = \frac{3.3V \cdot 1\% \cdot 51\mu H}{66\% \cdot 5\mu s \cdot (5V - 3.3V)} = 0.33\Omega$$

(48)

For a given series of electrolytic capacitors, the product of the capacitance and ESR is relatively constant. Therefore, given the maximum ESR value calculated previously, the required capacitance can be calculated. For the WCAP-ASLL aluminum electrolytic capacitors from Würth Elektronik, this constant is around 1.7x10$^{-5}$, therefore the capacitance can be calculated in (49).

$$C_{0(min)} = \frac{1.7 \cdot 10^{-5}}{R_{ESR(max)}}$$

(49)

$$C_{0(min)} = \frac{1.7 \cdot 10^{-5}}{0.33} = 51\mu F$$

(50)

As this is the minimum value of output capacitance, a capacitor with 100 $\mu$F is selected.

### 7.2 PCB layout

The layout of the buck converter is shown in Figure 61. In this figure, various key components of the buck converter are identified. When laying out the buck converter PCB, it is important to consider good PCB design practices. For example, loops with high $di/dt$ must be minimized. Although this is a very low-power design, switching noise can still couple onto critical traces such as those routed to the ADC.

In this design, resistors R18 and R22 (towards the lower right-hand side of the buck converter) form the resistive divider which scales the output voltage of the buck converter before it is fed to the ADC. There may be an anti-aliasing filter on the ADC input to remove frequencies above the Nyquist frequency. This can be formed by placing a capacitor in parallel with R18. On this PCB there is a footprint for this, C2, however, no capacitor is placed. A potential improvement may be to add this capacitor. This may also help reduce any high-frequency switching noise which can be picked up by this trace.

The ADC pin for this output voltage feedback is PA3 which is a short distance away from this divider with no high $dv/dt$ traces crossing this trace and a full unbroken ground plane for the return current, therefore, the signal may already be clean.

In Figure 61 the current path of the buck converter is shown as a series of colored arrows. The fushia arrow indicates the current through the current sense transformer (not used for voltage mode) and high-side MOSFET. During the off-time of the high-side switch, the current flows through the low-side MOSFET, which is indicated by a blue arrow. The output filter inductor and capacitor are in the output current path highlighted by the green arrows.
Figure 61. Hardware layout of the power stage

- Load bank
- Load bank
- Output Filter Capacitor
- Current sense transformer
- High Side MOSFET
- Low Side MOSFET
- Output Filter Inductor
8 Getting started

8.1 Overall usage

The STM32 MCU onboard the Discovery kit comes pre-flashed with example software. This example software exercises the other functions of the Discovery kit such as control of the RGB LED. To run the buck converter, the user must first compile the project associated with this application note and flash the MCU.

The following dependencies are required to do this:

- PC with Windows® 7 or later
- STM32 compatible IDE, such as STM32CubeIDE, IAR Embedded Workbench® or Keil® µVision
- STM32CubeMX (from v5.6.0) together with STM32Cube firmware library for G4 (from v1.2.0) installed

To get started simply:

1. Connect the micro-USB cable from the PC to CN3 on the Discovery kit.
2. Apply power via the USB-C and connect this to CN2 on the Discovery kit.
3. Ensure that the jumper JP1 is in the USB PD-VIN position.

8.2 Loading the project

This voltage mode buck example project, as well as the associated ST-WDS design files, are available from the Biricha website:

www.biricha.com/ST-Discovery-Kit

Opening the Project

1. Open STM32CubeMX by clicking on the Example.ico as shown below. (Note: the icon and the path may be different.)

2. Generate the project by clicking the GENERATE CODE button within STM32CubeMX.

3. This generates the project for the selected IDE. In this case, it is an IAR™ project.
4. When prompted with the dialog box, open the project by clicking Open Project.

Figure 64. Project opening
5. Depending on the IAR Embedded Workbench® used version, the default debugger may need to be changed to ST-LINK/V3. Right-click on the project name and select Options.

Figure 65. Example options

Then select ST-LINK and choose ST-LINK/V3. Click OK to finish.
Figure 66. ST-LINK version selection

Options for node "example"

Category:
- General Options
- Static Analysis
- Runtime Checking
- C/C++ Compiler
- Assembler
- Output Converter
- Custom Build
- Build Actions
- Linker
- Debugger
- Simulator
- CADI
- CMSIS DAP
- GDB Server
- I-jet
- J-Link/J-Trace
- TI Stellaris
- Nu-Link
- PE micro
- ST-LINK
- Third-Party Driver
- TI MSP-FET
- TI XDS

Setup
- Emulator: ST-LINKV3
  - Serial no: blank
  - Shared mode: unchecked
  - Always prompt for probe selection: unchecked
- Reset: Connect during reset

Communication
- Interface: SWD
  - Interface speed: Default

Breakpoints
- Access Port: Auto
  - Specify: unchecked

OK Cancel
6. Inside the IAR™ IDE click the Download and Debug icon which compiles and downloads the code to the MCU.

**Figure 67. Code compilation and downloading**

7. In the Application, User folder, the three generated C-files are:
   a. main.c: Initialization code
   b. stm32g4xx_hal_msp.c: MCU support package initialization
   c. stm32g4xx_it.c: Interrupt handlers for ISRs

8. The code is now ready to run. The IDE moves the program counter to the `int main(void)` function.

**Figure 68. Program counter set for running**
9. The buttons along the top menu bar have the functions described below. Click the Go button to run the code.

**Figure 69. Top menu buttons**

- **Go** – This runs the code
- **Break** – This halts the code
- **Stop debugging** – This terminates the debug session
- **Reset** – This resets the code to the beginning and restarts

10. Click on Stop Debugging to end the debug session.

11. The firmware is downloaded into the microcontroller Flash memory and as such, IAR™ can now be closed if the debugging features are not being closed. The same program restarts each time power is applied to the Discovery kit as it is running from the MCU Flash memory.

12. Close IAR™ to stop the debugger. If IAR™ asks to Terminate the debug session click OK.

### 8.3 Onboard load

The buck converter on the Discovery kit includes two onboard load banks. Figure 61 shows the two load banks and position of two test pins which indicate whether the load bank is enabled (test pins are not populated). When TP1 is pulled LOW, load bank 1 is ON. When TP2 is pulled LOW, load bank 2 is ON. The load banks have total resistance and, given the 3.3 V output voltage, the power consumption shown in Table 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Load (%)</th>
<th>Load (Ω)</th>
<th>Iout (A)</th>
<th>Pout (W)</th>
<th>LED status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0%</td>
<td>∞ Ω</td>
<td>0 A</td>
<td>0 W</td>
<td>All OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Load 1 OFF</td>
<td>Load 2 OFF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50%</td>
<td>33 Ω</td>
<td>0.1 A</td>
<td>0.33 W</td>
<td>Green</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Load 1 ON</td>
<td>Load 2 OFF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>16.5 Ω</td>
<td>0.2 A</td>
<td>0.66 W</td>
<td>Green and orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Load 1 ON</td>
<td>Load 2 ON</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that the PTC (F1, F2) adds approximately 1 Ω of resistance in series with each load bank. The load banks can be controlled by the MCU through means of toggling an output pin which is connected to a MOSFET. The MOSFET switches the resistive load bank in and out of the circuit as shown in Figure 70.
Furthermore, the user can control the switching of the load using the joystick onboard the Discovery kit. The operation of the onboard load banks can be controlled as follows:

- **Left**: Manual adjustment of load
  - Up: Increase load
  - Down: Decrease load
- **Right**: Automatic load switching (transient mode)

The automatic load switching, or transient mode, is used later in the application note to test the transient response of the buck converter and the control loop regulating the output voltage. The status of the load bank during the transient is indicated by the LEDs on board the Discovery kit. If the load bank 1 is enabled, the green LED is lit. If the load bank 2 is enabled, the orange LED is also lit.

### 8.4 Source files

The downloadable package for this application note consists of the following files:

**STM32CubeMX project files:**

- **Buck_VoltageMode_HW.ioc**
  - This file contains all of the configuration data for STM32CubeMX setting up pins and peripherals used. The closed-loop is mostly hardware, thanks to the FMAC usage for the controller computation.

- **Buck_VoltageMode_SW.ioc**
  - This file contains all of the configuration data for STM32CubeMX setting up pins and peripherals used. The closed-loop is using the MCU for the controller computation.

- **Buck_VoltageMode_SW_CCM_SRAM.ioc**
  - This file contains all of the configuration data for STM32CubeMX setting up pins and peripherals used. The closed-loop is using the MCU for the controller computation, which is located in CCM-RAM for the best efficiency.

**Source codes:**

- **main.c**
  - This file provides the `main.c` function and associates support functions for this application to control the hardware on the board

- **stm32g4xx_hal_msp.c**
  - Microcontroller support package initialization functions

- **stm32g4xx_it.c**
  - Interrupt service routines

- **system_stm32g4xx.c**
  - Provides the `SystemInit()` initialization functions for this MCU configuring the system clock
ST-WDS from Biricha files:

- **Buck_VoltageMode_xxx.wds**
  - Matching the STM32CubeMX project file, the ST-WDS configuration file allows the user to load up the design of the buck converter in the PSU design tool from Biricha. The user can then modify the control loop parameters and obtain the updated controller coefficients.

Omicron Lab Bode Analyzer Suite files:

- **Buck_VoltageMode_xxx.bode3**
  - Matching the STM32CubeMX project file, the Bode Analyzer Suite configuration file sets up the tool for loop measurement of the buck converter. The file contains the previously measured traces stored in the memory locations.

### 8.5 Open-loop operation

Before exercising the buck converter under closed-loop control, it is prudent to check the switching waveforms and dead-time are correctly functioning. This check can be performed under the open-loop operation of the buck converter. This means that the controller is taken out of the loop and the buck switches are driven with a fixed duty cycle.

The example software is written such that when a compiler directive is defined, the FMAC interrupt is not enabled and the HRTIM module is set up with a fixed duty cycle.

To run the buck converter under open-loop, locate and uncomment the line of code `#define RUN_OPEN_LOOP`.

Within the `main()` function, the function call to set up the compare unit with a fixed duty cycle is now called rather than the function, to enable the FMAC interrupt.

To check the HRTIM output waveforms, connect oscilloscope probes to the following pins:

- **PB12 - BUCKBOOST_P1_DRIVE** – High-side buck MOSFET
- **PB13 - BUCKBOOST_N1_DRIVE** – Low-side buck MOSFET

These signals must not be HIGH at the same time as this may lead to a potential shoot-through event. During the configuration of STM32CubeMX, dead-time is inserted between the two channels to ensure that the switches are never ON at the same time. The amount of dead-time can be measured using the scope and compared to the value set earlier in this application note.

The dead-time ticks \( f_{DTG} \) are generated from \( f_{HRTIM} \) and a prescaler. For the configuration discussed earlier in this application note:

- \( f_{DTG} = f_{HRTIM} \times 8 \), and because \( f_{HRTIM} = 170 \text{ MHz} \):
  - \( f_{DTG} = 170 \text{ MHz} \times 8 = 1360 \text{ MHz} \), therefore:
    - 1 dead-time tick = 0.735 ns

Earlier, the dead-time is configured to have:

- Rising value = 75 ticks = 55 ns
- Falling value = 300 ticks = 220 ns

Therefore, between the falling edge of PB13 and the rising edge of PB12, there are 55 ns of dead-time as measured in Figure 71. Between the falling edge of PB12 and the rising edge of PB13, there are 220 ns of dead time as measured in Figure 72.
Figure 71. Rising edge dead-time, Ch1: high-side FET, Ch2: low-side FET, dead-time measured as 54 ns
The output voltage of the buck converter is currently not regulated as the FMAC ISR is not running. Instead, a fixed duty cycle is providing some output voltage by driving the switches in a complementary manner. With none of the loads enabled the output voltage may be around 2.2 V. If the load is added by moving the joystick left or right then the output voltage also changes.

8.6 Closed-loop control

8.6.1 Load regulation

The converter is initially tested under open-loop conditions with no control over the output voltage. The next step is to close the control loop in order to regulate the output voltage.

To run the buck converter under closed-loop control, locate and comment the line of code `#define RUN_OPEN_LOOP` by changing it to `// #define RUN_OPEN_LOOP`. Re-build the project then download and debug the code.

With the converter running, the digital FMAC compensator now regulates for any changes in the load on the converter. The load regulation can be tested by varying the on-board load using the joystick and measuring any change in the output voltage.
Table 9. Closed-loop load regulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Load</th>
<th>Iout</th>
<th>Vout</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0% Load 1 OFF</td>
<td>0 A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0% Load 2 OFF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50% Load 1 ON</td>
<td>0.1 A</td>
<td>3.3 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50% Load 2 OFF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100% Load 1 ON</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100% Load 2 ON</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.6.2 Transient response

The on-board load allows the user to perform transient response tests on the closed-loop digital power supply in order to assess the controller’s performance. The transient response test is a useful method of determining if the implemented controller is stable, the speed of the response, and whether there is a sufficient phase margin in the system.

The converter's transient response can be measured using an oscilloscope. To measure the transient response, set up the oscilloscope as follows:

- Channel 1 -> Connect to header marked Vout
- Channel 2 -> Put probe tip in the hole marked TP1
- Set coupling on Channel 1 to AC and set the volts per division to 20 mV
- Set the horizontal scale, in seconds per division time base, to 100 µs
- From the Trigger Menu: Set the trigger to the falling edge of Channel 2 and set the Mode to Normal.

Set the load to transient-mode by pressing the Up arrow on the blue joystick. The orange load LEDs must now flash with half a second interval. When the green LED is ON, the load is set to 50%. When both LEDs are ON, the load is set to 100%. The undershoot and the settling time can then be observed on the oscilloscope during the 50% to 100% load transient. Using the example project provided with this Discovery kit, the converter may have a well-tuned controlled loop as shown in Figure 73.
Figure 73. Output voltage (Ch3) transient from load change 50% to 100% (Ch1), output voltage undershoot = 30 mV, settling time = 150 μs

Figure 73 shows the transient response of the closed-loop digital buck converter for a 50% to 100% step load transient with a settling time of fewer than 150 μs and an undershoot of less than 40 mV with no ringing.

8.6.3 Impact of crossover frequency on the transient response

The transient response of the converter in Figure 73 indicates a stable and well-designed controller. This is using the controller which is described in detail in Section 4 of this application note. The controller is designed to have a crossover frequency of 8 kHz and a phase margin of 50°. The choice of crossover frequency and phase margin in the frequency domain affects the transient response as seen in the time domain.

For example, if ST-WDS is used to redesign the controller using a lower crossover frequency, then it may result in a slower transient response and is shown in Figure 74. In this plot, the controller is redesigned with a crossover frequency of 4 kHz, half that of the previous controller.
It follows therefore that if the crossover frequency is increased the transient response speeds up also and undershoot reduces. However, there is an upper limit to the crossover frequency as at higher frequencies the phase erosion becomes more significant and reduces the loop phase margin. The issue of phase erosion in the discrete-time system is discussed in detail in Section 8.6.4.

8.6.4 Impact of phase margin on the transient response

The phase margin is a measure of the relative stability of the control loop. The lower the phase margin the more oscillatory the transient response in the time domain. ST-WDS is used again to redesign the controller using a lower phase margin. The new controller is designed with the same crossover as initially, 8 kHz, however a phase margin of 30°. The resulting controller coefficients can be pasted into the code which is then recompiled and downloaded onto the MCU. The transient response is given in Figure 75 for the system with a phase margin of 30°.
In Figure 75 there are several oscillations on the transient response as it recovers from the transient back to its steady-state. The initial recovery time is shorter than when the phase margin is 50°, however, the output voltage overshoots from the desired setpoint, and the net result is that there are oscillations during the recovery. If the phase margin is reduced further, the oscillations take longer to decay. With a phase margin of 0°, the system may oscillate indefinitely.
8.6.5 Bode plot measurement under closed-loop control

The real-life loop response of the buck converter can be verified through measurement using a frequency response analyzer. In this application note, the Bode 100 vector network analyzer from Omicron Lab is used to perform the measurement. The Bode 100 injects a sinusoidal signal into the feedback loop of the power supply and measures how that signal changes as it passes through the controller and the plant power stage.

A small modification is required to the Discovery kit in order to measure the loop. The feedback path of the output voltage must be broken and an injection resistor needs to be inserted. The injection transformer is then connected across this resistor. The injection transformer superimposes the sinusoidal signal from the Bode 100 onto the feedback voltage which is being used to close the loop.

The schematic for this modification is shown in Figure 76. The measurement probes are then connected as follows: CH1 (or the control measurement point) is connected to the end of the injection resistor which is not connected to the output voltage. Then CH2 (or the output measurement point) is connected to the end of the injection resistor which is directly connected to the output voltage. The grounds of the probes may be connected to the header marked GND closest to this. Note that JP2 and JP3 are not fitted by default on this board.

Figure 76. Connection setup for control-to-output transfer function measurement

A frequency sweep from 100 Hz to 100 kHz is recommended (up to half the switching frequency) with the signal injection level adjusted to give a continuous smooth measurement result without affecting the steady-state response of the loop. Once a clean continuous measurement is obtained, the .bode3 file can be saved from within Omicron Lab’s Bode Analyzer Suite and then imported into ST-WDS as shown in Figure 77.
In Figure 77 the actual measurement of the loop (control-to-output) transfer function is plotted as the black trace. This is compared with the simulated loop plotted in green. The magnitude plot shows a good correlation between simulated and measured loop responses with a crossover frequency of 8 kHz in simulated and 7.33 kHz as measured.

The phase response is also a good match at the lower frequencies. Around the double pole frequency of the plant (2 kHz) there is some discrepancy which is likely due to the AC resistance of the inductor which is not included in the plant model. This has some effect on the Q factor of the complex conjugate pole and therefore the rate at which the phase transitions. The result is a higher phase margin than anticipated. If the phase margin is too high, it is possible to redesign the control loop to take account of the additional phase. However, it is also prudent to check the crossover and phase margin at different loads. This is discussed in the next section.
8.7 Waveform display in IAR™

If the user has access to IAR™, then it is possible to use the timeline feature within this to plot variables captured using data log breakpoints. This is suitable for slow-changing variables in real-time, or for fast-changing variables which are stored in a buffer and then transferred via the debugger to the IDE at a slower rate.

An example of this functionality is included in the project provided Buck_VoltageMode_SW. Note that this project executes the 3p3z controller called within the ADC ISR implementing a controller running on the main core rather than the FMAC. To exercise this example, open the Buck_VoltageMode_SW.ioc file within the folder and click GENERATE CODE. Open IAR™, build, and run the code. Note that, there is now an additional function within the SysTick_Handler ISR located towards the top of the main.c file:

```
WaveFormDisplay(&Vout, &CompareReg);
```

Double click on Vout and then right-click on the highlighted text and select Set Data Log Breakpoint for 'Vout'. Repeat this process for CompareReg.
Figure 78. Add data log breakpoint to capture the variable each time it is updated

```c
LoadHandler();
}

// Play back data capture
WaveFormDisplay();

// USER CODE END SystemInit
HAL_InitTick();
// USER CODE BEGIN SystemInit

// USER CODE END SystemInit

// USER CODE END 0

/**
 * @brief The application entry point.
 * @retval int
 *
 * int main(void)
 {
 // USER CODE BEGIN Main

 // USER CODE END

 // NUC Configuration

 // Reset of all peripheral

 // Ini

 @}*/

// Set Data Log Breakpoint for 'Vout'

Set Next Statement
Add to Quick Watch: 'Vout'
Add to Watch: 'Vout'
Add to Live Watch: 'Vout'
Move to PC
Run to Cursor
Character Encoding
Options...
```

This forces the debugger to record the value of these variables each time they are updated. For this reason, the update of these variables is performed in a slower function within the `SysTick_Handler` so as not to overload the debugger.

The data is captured within the ADC ISR located in the `stm32g4xx_it.c` file. The code snippet below shows the data being passed to the `WaveFormRecord()` function each time the ISR is called.
if (Waveform.m_State == WAVEFORM_RECORD) {
    WaveFormRecord(VoltageSensing, Demo.CtrlFloat.m_Out);
}

The waveform structure state is changed to WAVEFORM_RECORD every time the user presses the load increment/decrement button on the Discovery kit. This can be seen in the HAL_GPIO_EXTI_Callback() GPIO interrupt function which is included in STM32G474RE_Discovery.c. This function calls WaveFormTrigger() which in turn changes the state to begin recording the waveform during the ADC ISR.

From the ST-Link menu on the toolbar click on Timeline as shown in the image below.

Figure 79. Enable timeline view to monitor real-time update of variables on a graph

This shows the timeline pane in the IAR™ workspace. If the graph pane is not visible, the user may need to right-click in the blue area and click Enable.

Right-click on the Vout blue graph window and untick Hexadecimal, set Size -> Large and Zoom -> 100 ms. Repeat this process for CompareReg. The graph windows must look like the figure below.
Figure 80. The timeline view requires some manual adjustment of the scale to view the information presented.

If the waveforms are invisible, try right-clicking on the graph window, going to Navigate -> End and then use the horizontal scroll bar to scroll the view to the left until the window is filled.

As mentioned above, the data captured by the ADC is re-played by the function WaveFormDisplay at a much slower rate to allow the debugger to capture the data via the data log breakpoint. Therefore, the horizontal time axis is now much slower than the sampled signal.

It is now possible to zoom in on the output voltage to view the transients in more detail by changing the scale. Right-click on the Vout graph pane and click on Viewing Range. In the dialog box, select Custom Limits and enter limit values to fill the entire vertical axis with data from the output voltage. This may take several attempts to find the appropriate values. In Figure 81 the values 765 and 785 are used for the output voltage and 15000 and 20000 are used for the compare register. The graph window must now look like this:

Figure 81. Timeline view with an adjusted scale showing the voltage transients and change in duty cycle
9 Measured results

In this section the buck converter onboard the Discovery kit is exercised using the voltage mode control example provided and the measurement results are captured and discussed.

9.1 Load regulation

The converter is now operating under closed-loop control and, as there is an integrator within the control loop, there is good load regulation. This means that the converter responds to any changes in load and regulate such that the output voltage remains constant.

This can be tested by observing the output voltage on the oscilloscope and varying the load using the joystick. The duty cycle is also monitored and this changes somewhat between the different load steps due to losses within the power stage.

Figure 82 shows the output voltage and PWM for 0% load – with the onboard load banks disabled. The oscilloscope measures the output voltage with a mean value of 3.32 V with a duty cycle of 61.2%. The load is then increased to 50% of the rated output current in Figure 83 and the output voltage remains constant at 3.32 V and the duty cycle increases to 65.55%. Finally, the load is increased to 100% of the rated output in Figure 84 and again the output voltage remains at 3.32 V and the duty cycle increases to 66.28%. This indicates that the controller is regulating the output voltage of the buck converter given the changes in load.

Figure 82. Output voltage (Ch3) and PWM (Ch1) at 0% load
Figure 83. Output voltage (Ch3) and PWM (Ch1) at 50% load

Ch3 Mean 3.32 V
Ch1 Freq 201.0kHz
Ch1 Duty 65.55%
Ch1 2.00 V
Ch3 500mV
20.00 %
9.2 Transient response tests

As discussed in Section 8, the transient response can provide useful information about the stability of the closed-loop system. The transient response of the buck converter can be measured by placing one oscilloscope channel on the output voltage and another oscilloscope channel on the test point associated with the onboard load being switched. The output voltage channel is AC coupled in order to see the deviation from the setpoint at the moment of the load transient. More details on how to measure the transient response are provided in Section 8.
Figure 85. Output voltage (Ch3) transient from load change 50% to 100% (Ch1), output voltage undershoot = 30 mV, settling time = 150 µs

Figure 85 shows the transient response for a step-change in load from 50% to 100%. The output voltage on Channel 3 deviates from the steady-state by 30 mV and recovers back to steady-state within 150 µs. Importantly, there is no ringing in the recovery. This is an indication that there is a sufficient phase margin in the loop to ensure stability. A transient response with ringing is shown in Section 8.

It is prudent to check the transient response across a range of line and load conditions. In Figure 86 the transient response is shown for a step-change in load from 0% to 50%. The dynamics of the system are different at light load and therefore the response is significantly slower. In this instance, the recovery takes 420 µs. However, the recovery still shows no sign of oscillation and therefore indicates that the system is stable.
9.3 Frequency response measurement results

The transient response can provide some information about the stability of the system and how the system responds to a large signal disturbance. However, it does not provide all of the information necessary to quantify the stability of the system. This information can be obtained by measuring the frequency response of the converter. A detailed procedure describing the measurement of the frequency response of the buck converter is given in Section 8.
Figure 87. Measured loop response of the digital voltage mode loop at 100% load

Figure 87 shows the measured control-to-output loop response of the buck converter at 100% load. The measurement of the loop is plotted as the black trace and compared with the simulated loop in green. A crossover frequency of 7.33 kHz is measured which is close to the desired crossover frequency of 8 kHz. A phase margin of 61° is achieved in the real measurement compared to 50° with the simulation. The discrepancy between the measured and simulated results is predominately due to the AC resistance of the inductor which is not included in the plant model. This has some effect on the Q factor of the complex conjugate pole and therefore the rate at which the phase transitions.

In Figure 88 the loop response of the buck converter at 50% load is measured. As expected, the overall loop response is very similar to that of the system at 100% load however there is some change in the damping of the double pole as the load changes. Therefore, the crossover frequency and phase margin change slightly – the system is still stable.

With no load, the system dynamics change considerably. The system takes longer to respond to any changes and this is observed in the transient load step test. The frequency response at 0% load is shown in Figure 89 and exhibits a much lower crossover frequency of 5.4 kHz however a higher phase margin of 92°. The system is therefore still stable as observed during the transient response test.
**Figure 88. Measured loop response of the digital voltage mode loop at 50% load**

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<td>Low : 5kHz</td>
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- **Stability Fix**: Nominal 10kHz 50° 11dB 24.5dB/dec n/a
- **Measured**: 1kHz 71° 45dB 23.5dB/dec n/a

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![Graph](image1)

**Figure 89. Measured loop response of the digital voltage mode loop at 0% load**

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- **Stability Fix**: Nominal 10kHz 50° 11dB 24.5dB/dec n/a
- **Measured**: 1kHz 71° 45dB 23.5dB/dec n/a

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![Graph](image2)
9.4 **ISR plots (featuring FMAC and CPU load benefits)**

The controller for this buck converter is implemented using the FMAC module onboard the STM32G4 device. The FMAC module is a hardware module that can execute the controller in a few system clock cycles and is not using up any of the main core bandwidth. An ISR is called when the FMAC has finished the computation of the controller. In order to measure the timings, a GPIO pin is set HIGH upon entering the FMAC ISR.

In Figure 90 the time from the ADC trigger to the FMAC ISR interrupt is measured. The ADC is triggered when the compare unit 3 match occurs shortly after the rising edge of the PWM signal, Channel 1, in Figure 90. When the ADC is triggered, the sample of the output voltage is taken, converted and then copied to the FMAC using the DMA controller. After the FMAC has finished execution the ISR is triggered. The GPIO pin is then set HIGH as the MCU enters the ISR as shown on Channel 4 in Figure 90. The total time for this sample, conversion and calculation process is measured as 840 ns.

![Figure 90. PWM (Ch1) and FMAC ISR duration (Ch4), ADC trigger to ISR pin HIGH = 840 ns](image)

The FMAC ISR is solely used for bounds checking of the controller output to a minimum and maximum value and then updating of the counter compare module register to set the new value of duty cycle. Therefore, this is a very brief ISR containing only a few lines of code. The duration of the ISR is measured in Figure 91 as 100 ns. Although this timing measurement does not include the time required to push and pop the stack before and after the ISR, there is still clearly ample bandwidth remaining on the MCU to run other controllers or implement other functions.
For STM32 MCUs without the FMAC module, the controller can be executed on the main core within the ADC ISR. The process for execution is then as follows. The ADC is triggered at the same point in time, the ADC samples the output voltage and completes the conversion. Now an interrupt is triggered which is serviced by the main core. The time from the ADC trigger to entering the interrupt can be measured from Figure 92 as a GPIO is again set HIGH as the ISR is entered. This time is measured as 500 ns.

Within the ADC ISR, the 3p3z controller is executed. This means that the duration of the ISR is significantly longer than the FMAC ISR. The ADC ISR containing the 3p3z controller executes within 700 ns as measured in Figure 93 Therefore, the total time from the ADC trigger to the PWM update is 1.2 µs. This compares to 940 ns when the controller is implemented using the FMAC. However, the main core is now occupied for an additional 600 ns versus running the controller on the FMAC. Nevertheless, there is ample bandwidth to run other controllers or perform other functions when using either the main core or FMAC to implement the controller.
Figure 92. PWM (Ch1) and ADC ISR duration (Ch4). ADC trigger to ISR pin HIGH = 500 ns.
Figure 93. PWM (Ch1) and ADC ISR duration (Ch4), ISR duration = 700 ns
Summary

This application note details the design and operation of the digitally controlled voltage mode buck converter onboard the Discovery kit. The controller is implemented using the FMAC onboard the STM32G4 MCU from STMicroelectronics.

It is shown that, by applying control theory, the voltage mode buck converter can be stabilized to achieve a high crossover frequency and phase margin with an ideal transient response. All of the equations required to calculate the digital controller coefficients are provided in this application note. The software tool ST-WDS from Biricha can also be used to perform the same calculations with ease and can be used to obtain the required controller coefficients.

There are several webinars that are created to accompany this application note. Visit www.biricha.com/st to access the webinars related to this Discovery kit.

Biricha Digital Power also runs regular hands-on training workshops that cover the principles of power supply design, the fundamentals of control theory, the transition to the discrete-time domain and step-by-step embedded programming. These workshops are beneficial to both analog power supply design engineers who need to get familiar with digital power and embedded systems engineers who need to understand how to design and stabilize digital power supplies.

For more information on these workshops, visit www.biricha.com/st
Appendix A  Download links

- Discovery kit schematic and PCB design files:
  www.st.com/stm32g4-dpower-disco
- Workshops and training:
  www.biricha.com/st
- Project, ST WDS, Bode Analyzer Suite downloads:
  www.biricha.com/ST-Discovery-Kit
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