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Microfabricated Air-core Toroidal Inductor In Very High Frequency Power Converters

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Abstract—Miniaturization of power supplies is required for future intelligent electronic systems e.g. internet of things devices. Inductors play an essential role, and they are by far the most bulky and expensive components in power supplies. This paper presents a miniaturized microelectromechanical systems (MEMS) inductor and its performance in a very high frequency (VHF) power converter. The MEMS inductor is a silicon-embedded air-core toroidal inductor, and it is constructed with through-silicon vias, suspended copper windings, silicon fixtures, and a silicon support die. The air-core inductors outperform the silicon-core inductors with higher quality factor at higher frequency. This is verified by small-signal measurements. A 20-turn air-core inductor achieved an inductance of 44.6 nH and a quality factor of 13.3 at 33 MHz, while a silicon-core inductor with the same geometry has a quality factor of 9 at 20 MHz. A DC-DC class-E boost converter is designed and implemented using the fabricated MEMS air-core inductor and a high-performance 65 V gallium nitride field effect transistor. The VHF converter achieved a peak efficiency of 78 % at the input voltage of 6.5 Vdc. The MEMS inductor can carry 1 A RMS AC current at 33 MHz and delivers 10.5 W to the output.

Index Terms—Microelectromechanical systems, inductor, DC–DC power converters, zero voltage switching, gallium nitride.

I. INTRODUCTION

POWER supplies are essential sub-systems for modern intelligent electronic devices and systems. They are found in internet of things (IoTs) [1]–[3]. Size, weight, life time, and cost are critical for such applications. While most electronic systems have been advanced rapidly with a dramatic decrease in size and cost, power supply technology is lagging behind. Power supplies are still bulky, inefficient, and costly [4]–[6]. Power supply in package (PwrSiP) [5], [6] and power supply on chip (PwrSoC) [5]–[10] are the vision of energy-storing elements and makes them compatible with the processing flow of integrated circuits. Increasing the switching frequency to the very high frequency range (VHF) (30 MHz – 300 MHz) allows the inductance values needed for PwrSoC to drop to tens of nanohenries (nH).

Taking advantages of microelectromechanical systems (MEMS) fabrication technologies, miniaturized silicon-based inductors can be fabricated with high quality factor, high operating frequency, and high inductance thus enabling their usage in power supplies as energy storage elements. There are two categories of microfabricated inductors: magnetic-core and non-magnetic core inductors. Magnetic-core inductors are typically fabricated with magnetic thin films and two-dimensional (2D) windings such as spiral inductor [11], [12] and race track inductor [13]–[16]). Three-dimensional (3D) windings such as solenoid inductor [17], [18], and toroidal inductor [19], [20] are also possible. High inductance density can be achieved with high permeability core materials, but excessive core loss at VHF operating range is still a major challenge.

Air-core inductors are another solution for VHF power supplies. They have the advantage of no core loss and high frequency operation [21]. Previous works reported on air-core inductors including 2D planar inductors [22], [23], on-substrate 3D inductors [24], [25], and substrate-embedded 3D inductors [26], [27]. In many air-core inductors, the silicon substrate fully or partially remained, which causes undesired parasitic capacitance and eddy-current losses. Thus, quality factor and operating frequency are reduced [27]. Therefore, in the ideal air-core inductor design, the entire core must be removed.

Developing integrated power converter requires miniaturization of energy-storing elements and makes them compatible with the processing flow of integrated circuits. Resonant converters allow the utilization of soft switching techniques due to the intrinsic alternating behavior of current, voltage or both by controlling the switches. Soft switching is desired to minimize the switching losses in the semiconductor devices [28]. High-performance gallium nitride field effect transistors (GaN FETs) have shown a great potential for high-voltage, VHF power supplies. GaN FETs have superior gate charge characteristics compared to other semiconductor transistors [29], [30]. The gate charge (Qg) multiplied by the on-resistance (Ron) figure of merit shows that GaN FETs can be driven easily compared to their silicon counterparts.
A DC-DC resonant converter consists of two stages which include an inverter stage and a rectifier stage. An inverter stage converts the DC input voltage to AC voltage or current, where after a rectifier stage converts AC current or voltage output of the inverter to a DC voltage or current. A common example of a rectifier stage is a class-D current-driven rectifier that was thoroughly studied and presented in [31], [32].

Inverter design is more challenging. Two examples of inverter topologies are class-E and class-D. The advantage of class-E inverter is that only one low side switch is needed to realize a power stage. However, they have a high voltage stress factor across the switch (drain-to-source voltage divided by the input voltage). This voltage stress can be 3.5 to 4 times higher than input supply voltage [33]–[37]. As a result, a high voltage switch with high breakdown voltage is required.

Class-D inverters on the contrary utilize two switches and have lower voltage stress on switches. The voltage stress equals to the input voltage which allows the usage of higher speed, lower voltage devices [36], [38]. To control two switches, precise design of the gate driver circuitry is needed to avoid cross conduction through the switches which may cause catastrophic failure. Other inverter topologies involve extra circuit components to solve the problem of high voltage stress on the switches [34], [36].

This paper, a new silicon-embedded air-core toroidal inductor is presented. It has minimal parasitic capacitance and no substrate eddy-current losses due to a complete removal of silicon core. The miniaturized inductor is fabricated by an advanced 3D MEMS fabrication process, characterized by small-signal measurement, and demonstrated in a resonant power converter. The resonant boost converter is based on an agile Schottky-diode based class-D current-driven rectifier and a class-E inverter. The MEMS inductor is used in the resonant network, and a 65 V GaN FET is used as a switch. The converter is optimized to operate in zero voltage switching (ZVS) mode for minimal switching losses. Large signal high-frequency performance of the fabricated inductor is tested in terms of electrical and thermal performance, and AC current capability.

The paper is organized as follows. Section II presents the design and fabrication of the silicon-embedded air-core toroidal MEMS inductor. Section III describes small signal characterization of the MEMS inductor. IV presents design and simulation of a class-E boost converter. Converter performance is presented in Section V, and conclusions follow in Section VI.

II. INDUCTOR DESIGN AND FABRICATION

A. Inductor Design

The proposed design of a MEMS air-core toroidal inductor is shown in Fig. 1. It is constructed with copper-filled through silicon vias (TSVs), suspended top and bottom windings, five silicon fixtures, and a silicon support die. The TSVs are positioned accordingly to toroidal shape with one TSV at the inner ring and two parallel TSVs at the outer ring. The number of fixtures is selected for mechanical stability of the suspended windings. The copper windings are attached to the silicon support die by silicon fixtures that cover outer TSVs and secure the suspended windings. The layout of input and output terminals includes ground-signal-ground pads for on-wafer measurement and two 800 µm x 800 µm pads for connecting to PCB by wire bonding or flip-chip bonding. The direction of current flow is illustrated by the arrows in Fig. 1. The current flows from the input terminal through the windings, comes back to wafer backside, and gets out to the output terminal via through-silicon interconnects as shown by the arrows in Fig. 1.

This air-core design has four main advantages: low parasitic for high Q at high frequency, no substrate eddy-current losses due to a complete removal of silicon core, low electromagnetic interference (EMI) by using self-contained magnetic flux within the toroidal structure, and high compactness with the silicon-embedded construction.

B. Fabrication Technology

The MEMS inductor is fabricated by a novel 3D fabrication process. The process is developed based on MEMS fabrication technologies with the focus on complementary metal oxide semiconductor (CMOS) compatibility, scalability, and flexibility. The inductors can be fabricated with a wide range of geometry and sizes. The process consists of 12 steps and 4 photomasks. The details of fabrication process can be found in our fabrication paper [39]. In this paper, the fabrication process is summarized in four steps (Fig. 2a) as follows.

First, the TSVs are created by deep reactive ion etching (DRIE) (Fig. 2a). A 350-µm-thick silicon wafer is etched through with holes (50 µm diameter) and narrow fixture trenches (3 µm and 7 µm width) which are defined by photolithography. The holes are etched through, while the trenches are not. By the end of step 1, hollow silicon TSVs are created. Second, copper is deposited as the conductive material (Fig. 2b). After depositing insulation layers including aluminum oxide (Al₂O₃) and silicon dioxide (SiO₂), copper is electroplated into the TSVs and on both wafer sides. The
aluminum oxide ($\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$) is deposited by atomic layer deposition (ALD) using a process developed for depositing $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ on high-aspect-ratio structures [40]. Third, an etching mask is created prior to removal of the silicon core. A 50 nm layer of ALD $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ is deposited. Photoresist (AZ 4562, Microchem., USA) is then spray-coated followed by photolithography. It is crucial for the resist to fill and seal the fixture trenches prior to the next $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ wet etching step using buffered hydrofluoric acid (BHF). Last, the silicon core is removed using isotropic dry etching by an inductively coupled plasma (ICP) silicon etching tool followed by releasing steps including BHF wet etching, deionized water rinsing, and nitrogen drying. By utilizing $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ deposited on the fixture trenches as an etch stop, the silicon core can be removed completely without damaging silicon fixtures. The fixture trenches define the silicon fixtures and support die, thus defining the toroidal core. The process temperature is kept below 200 °C, and this enables post MEMS processing on CMOS wafers and avoid damaging the existing active electronics.

The fabricated MEMS air-core toroidal inductor is shown in Fig. 2. It has 20 turns, 350-µm-tall, and the footprint is 9 mm². The silicon core was removed completely while the silicon fixtures and support die remained undamaged. No winding deformation was observed after the releasing steps.

The fabrication process has the advantages of fabricating inductors with a wide range of sizes and shapes. A process yield of 95% was achieved. Magnetic composite core inductors can also be made using the fabricated TSV air-core inductors and a simple screen-printing process. One limitation of the process is a large winding gap of 94 µm due to the Cu wet-etching step. This can be improved by a minor modification in step 2 of the process. For example photoresist is used as a mold for electroplating of Cu.

The thermal and mechanical stability of the fabricated inductors were tested with a thermal cycling test (250 cycles, -45 to 155 °C) and a drop test up to 2 m, respectively. The results are also presented in our fabrication paper [39]. The inductors with the turn/fixture ratio from 6 (30 turns:5 fixtures) to 10 (30 turns:3 fixtures) were tested. They showed good stability after the tests. The suspended windings did not deform and the inductors were still functional. If a higher robustness is required, the air core inductor can be filled with epoxy for stability enhancement.

III. Small Signal Characterization of Inductor

Air-core and silicon-core MEMS inductors were electrically characterized from 0.9 to 110 MHz using a precision impedance analyzer (Agilent 4294A). A dedicated PCB (Fig. 3a) is used as the interface to test the MEMS inductors. An inductor is mounted on the test board using epoxy which is cured at 220 °C for 30 minutes using a convection oven. The inductor input and output terminals are connected to the test board through three 30-µm-diameter gold wires. Impedance analyzer calibration is done with short connection, open connection, and 50 Ω. The calibration boards are shown in Fig. 3b. Short connection is made by three parallel gold wires.

Inductance ($L$), quality factor ($Q$), and AC resistance ($R_{AC}$) are measured (Fig. 3c, d).

The air-core inductor has an inductance of 44.6 nH, $Q_{\text{peak}}$ of 13.3 at 33.2 MHz. The silicon-core ($\rho = 1 - 20 \, \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$) inductor has an inductance of 43.7 nH and lower $Q_{\text{peak}}$ of 9 at lower frequency of 20 MHz. The optimal operating frequency of the air-core inductor to be used in the converter is at 33 MHz. At 33 MHz, the AC resistance ($R_{AC}$) of the air-core inductor is 0.65 Ω which is two times lower compared to 1.25 Ω of the
silicon-core inductor. The increase in resistance results in a lower Q factor in the Si-core inductors. This is due to a higher parasitic capacitance and the substrate eddy-current loss of the Si-core inductor. The measured results showed a three-fold higher parasitic capacitance in the Si-core inductor with 11.5 pF compared to 3.7 pF of the air-core inductor, thus allowing the air-core inductor to operate at higher frequency with higher Q factor. This paper focuses on the characterization and demonstration of the fabricated air-core inductors, and the models of the air-core toroidal inductors can be found in [41]–[43].

IV. CLASS-E RESONANT BOOST CONVERTER

A. Converter Design

To test the inductor, a class-E resonant boost converter has been selected. The converter is designed to operate in ZVS mode at 33 MHz where the inductor has a maximum Q of 13.3, $R_{AC}$ of 0.65 $\Omega$, and $L$ of 44.6 nH. Fig. 4a shows the topology of the resonant converter. The converter consists of two parts: rectifier and inverter. The first part is a class-D current driven rectifier [31], [32] which is used to drive the load resistance. The rectifier allows DC power flow through $D_2$ to the load and AC power flow through rectification act. A similar concept was reported in [28] where a resonant type rectifier was used instead of class-D in this case. A reported resonant rectifier [28] is not used in this converter to reduce the amplitude of high frequency current flowing in the inductor under test. This will prevent extra AC losses in the inductor. It is beneficial to deal with $D_1$ as a freewheeling diode when $L_2$ current becomes negative. The second part is the inverter which consists of an input choke ($L_1$), a GaN FET ($M_1$), a capacitor ($C_{ext}$) and finally the inductor under test ($L_2$). The GaN FET is driven by a logic buffer with an output stage of five inverters connected in parallel as shown in Fig. 4b. The frequency is set by a silicon oscillator with a fixed duty cycle of 50%. $L_2$ is used as a part of the resonant network, and it also delivers DC current to the load. $L_1$ has a high inductance and it is mainly carrying DC current so, the AC losses are minimal.

The working principle of the proposed converter is described by analyzing the steady-state waveforms of switching node voltage ($V_{SW}$), gate voltage ($V_{GS}$), and inductor under test current ($I_{L2}$). The GaN FET is driven by a logic buffer with an output stage of five inverters connected in parallel as shown in Fig. 4b. The frequency is set by a silicon oscillator with a fixed duty cycle of 50%. $L_2$ is used as a part of the resonant network, and it also delivers DC current to the load. $L_1$ has a high inductance and it is mainly carrying DC current so, the AC losses are minimal.

The working principle of the proposed converter is described by analyzing the steady-state waveforms of switching node voltage ($V_{SW}$), gate voltage ($V_{GS}$), and inductor under test current ($I_{L2}$). It is assumed that the converter perfectly operates in ZVS mode, i.e. the charge stored in the equivalent output capacitance ($C_{eqv}$) of $M_1$ is fully discharged before the FET turns on. One switching cycle can be divided into five-time sub-intervals or states as
State 1: the GaN FET M1 is turned on by the gate driver. L1 is charged linearly from \( V_{IN} \). L2 is discharged through D2 and delivers energy to the load until \( I_{L2} = 0 \). In ideal operation condition, it is required to switch M1 on when the drain to source voltage is 0 V to achieve soft switching.

State 2: the equivalent capacitance of D1 is discharged through L2. \( I_{L2} \) changes direction making D2 reverse biased and D1 forward biased. L1 is still being charged by \( V_{IN} \). During this interval, the current flowing in the GaN FET M1 is the summation of \( I_{L1} \) and \( I_{L2} \) Fig. 5.

State 3: M1 is turned off by the gate driver. L2 continue discharging through D1 and charging the equivalent output capacitance for the GaN FET (\( C_{eqv} \)). \( C_{eqv} \) is a combination of the GaN FET output capacitance and an external ceramic capacitor in the circuit (\( C_{ext} \)). As a result, the switching node voltage (\( V_{SW} \)) is rising. By the end of interval 3, L2 is fully discharged (\( I_{L2} = 0 \)) and \( I_{L1} \) reaches its peak current.

State 4: \( D_2 \) is forward biased while \( D_1 \) is reverse biased. A part of the stored charge in L1 is used to charge \( C_{eqv} \) so, \( V_{SW} \) keeps increasing. Some energy is also transferred to the load through L2 which is charging in the same time. By the end of interval 4, \( C_{eqv} \) is fully charged and \( V_{SW} \) reaches a maximum voltage.

State 5: \( D_1 \) is off and \( D_2 \) is forward biased. \( C_{eqv} \) starts to discharge and its current combined with \( I_{L1} \) flows to the load. L2 keep charging until \( I_{L2} \) reaches its peak value when \( V_{SW} \) equals \( V_{OUT} \). L2 then discharges through \( D_2 \) to the load until \( I_{L2} \) equals \( I_{L1} \) (\( C_{eqv} \) is fully discharged).

B. Simulation

The proposed converter topology is simulated in LT-Spice. The input voltage (\( V_{IN} \)) is set to be 8.4 V DC with a fixed 20 Ω load. The simulated waveforms of the switching node (\( V_{SW} \)), GaN FET gate-to-source voltage (\( V_{GS} \)), and the inductor current (\( I_{L2} \)) are shown in Fig. 6. The switching frequency was chosen to be 33 MHz to match the peak quality factor of the MEMS air-core inductor. \( V_{SW} \) waveform indicates that the converter is operating close to ZVS mode. \( C_{eqv} \) is tuned externally to achieve ZVS operation since \( I_{L2} \) is fixed at 45 nH. A 180-pF external capacitor (\( C_{ext} \)) was optimized to achieve soft switching operation at 33 MHz. The choke inductor L1 is set to a high inductance value as it is assumed to carry DC current with a small AC ripple. L1 is chosen to be 1 μH. From the waveform of \( I_{L2} \), the root mean square (RMS) inductor current is around 1 A with an average of 0.56 A DC. The
simulated voltage conversion ratio $(V_{OUT}/V_{IN})$ is 1.56.

**EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

The proposed converter is implemented on a 4 cm x 4 cm PCB (Fig. 7). There are two main blocks corresponding to an inverter and a rectifier (Fig. 7a). A gate driver with tunable silicon oscillator is in the first inverter block. The gate driver is powered by a 5 V external voltage source. Based on simulation results, all components are selected as presented in Table I. A MEMS air-core inductor is mounted using epoxy and connected to the PCB using gold wire bonding. A magnified view of $L_2$ is shown in Fig. 7b. Here, the integration of $L_2$ is the prime interest because it is used as an energy-storage element in the resonant network. $L_2$ carries a high-frequency AC current, it is therefore challenging to integrate due to the excess core loss. On the other hand, $L_1$ is a 1-µH choke inductor that is used to block the AC current and only carries DC current. The integration of such inductors is less challenging because the unwanted high-frequency effects e.g. eddy currents, core loss, and EMI are not crucial. This allows the use of low-frequency, high-permeability magnetic materials e.g. permalloy (NiFe) and supermalloy (NiFeMo).

The measurement results are shown in Fig. 8 with the measured waveforms of gate and drain voltages. A close operation to ZVS can be observed in Fig. 8 from the waveform of $V_{SW}$ when $V_{SW}$ returns to zero before $M_1$ is turning on. Fig. 9 shows the measured efficiency ($\eta$), power loss ($P_{LOSS}$), output voltage ($V_{OUT}$), and output power ($P_{OUT}$) of the converter with a sweep of input voltage ($V_{IN}$) from 3 V to 10 V. The average conversion ratio $(V_{OUT}/V_{IN})$ is 1.48. The efficiency without gate driver loss ($\eta_{WO\_GD}$) increases from 73.4% to 77.3% with $V_{IN}$ from 3 V to 10 V, and then saturates with an efficiency of about 77%. The converter achieved a peak efficiency of 77.3% at an input voltage $V_{IN} = 6.5$ V with an output voltage of $V_{OUT} = 9.7$ V and an output power level of $P_{OUT} = 6.1$ W. The total power loss $P_D$ is 1.5 W. The converter can deliver up to 14.5 V $V_{OUT}$ and 10.5 W $P_{OUT}$. At the target switching frequency of 33 MHz, the gate driver loss is 0.15 W. The efficiency including the gate driver loss and the oscillator ($\eta_{W\_GD}$) is 75.5%. For testing purposes, the gate driver is built externally, but the gate driver loss can be reduced by proper design of the gate driver with an integrated circuit process.

The MEMS inductor AC power loss was estimated via DC power loss using thermal measurement method. The idea is to drive an increasing DC current through the inductor until its thermal image is matched with its thermal image during AC converter operation. The DC power loss is obtained by multiplying the inductor voltage by the applied DC current. Fig. 10b and c show a matching of inductor temperature for the AC and DC power loss, respectively. A DC current of 1.53 A was measured with a 0.646 V DC voltage. The DC power loss is then calculated to be 0.98 W which equals to the AC power loss. In addition, the high-temperature DC resistance of the inductor is measured to be 0.42 Ω.

Fig. 10 shows thermal images of the converter with 8.4 V $V_{IN}$. The GaN FET temperature is 77.4 °C. Because of Cu reflects in the thermal image, an absolute thermal measurement of Cu is not possible, and the copper windings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Part number</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$L_2$</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>44.6 nH, air-core toroidal inductor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M_1$</td>
<td>EPC8002</td>
<td>65 V GaN FET</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L_1$</td>
<td>LQM32PN1R0MG0L</td>
<td>1 µH, 1.8 A, Multilayer inductor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$D_1$, $D_2$</td>
<td>PMEG4010BEA</td>
<td>40 V, 1A, Schottky diode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{IN}$</td>
<td>GRT188R61H225KE13D</td>
<td>2.2 µF, 50 V, X5R (quantity = 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{OUT}$</td>
<td>GRT188R61H225KE13D</td>
<td>2.2 µF, 50 V, X5R (quantity = 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I1$,$I2$</td>
<td>74LVC1GU04GW-Q100H</td>
<td>Logic inverter chip (quantity = 6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M_1$</td>
<td>LTC6905CS5</td>
<td>Tunable silicon oscillator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{ext}$</td>
<td>GRM1885C1H181JA01D</td>
<td>180 pF ceramic capacitor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
temperature can be estimated by matching the measured DC resistance at room temperature to the DC resistance measured at high temperature. The details of DC resistance measurement at room temperature and the method to estimate the absolute Cu temperature are presented in the Appendix. The temperature of the copper windings is calculated to be 108 °C which is slightly above the temperature of the silicon die in Fig. 10b. The thermal performance of the air-core inductor can be improved by implementing a thermal pad underneath the inductor.

For better performance, the toroidal windings can be further optimized to achieve a lower resistance and a higher inductance density which will result in smaller inductors. The improvements can be made on the TSV design, e.g. increasing the diameter and the density of the circular TSVs will result in a lower resistance. Alternatively, using a single rectangular outer TSV will also increase winding coverage and lead to a lower resistance. Parallel inner TSVs will have a significant improvement in the resistance, but the effective toroidal-core volume will reduce. This can be done with a two-step deep reactive ion etching (DRIE) and electrodeposition process. A simple process modification can increase the winding thickness and density: using mold-based electrodeposition as a replacement for copper wet-etching. Mold-base technology was reported in [44] for a racetrack inductor, which has a copper thickness of 85 µm and a winding gap of 5 µm.

The heat-dissipation performance of the air-core and Si-core inductors was compared in our fabrication paper [39]. The efficiency is 64 % with the Si-core inductor and 68% with the air-core inductor with 30 °C higher than that of the air-core inductor. Indeed, the Si core has a much higher thermal conductivity for heat dissipation, but with the same windings, the air-core inductor has lower resistance compared to that of the Si-core due to: capacitive coupling and the eddy-current loss in the Si substrate. At 33 MHz, the Si-core inductor has a resistance of 1.25 Ω compared to 0.65 Ω of the air-core inductor. To further improve heat dissipation, the MEMS air-core inductor can be filled with thermal epoxy, which has a better thermal conductivity and extremely high resistivity. E.g. EPO-TEK® 921-FL (Epotek, USA) which has k = 1.1 W/mK, and ρ > 6. 10^{13} Ωcm. We developed a screen-printing process and demonstrated an implementation of a magnetic composite core using epoxy and NiZn powders [45]. This process can also be used for making a thermal-epoxy core inductor.

VI. CONCLUSION

A study on silicon-embedded air-core toroidal MEMS inductor for PwrSoC applications has been presented. The proposed microfabrication process enables fabrication of 3D MEMS toroidal inductor with a unique air-core design. The inductors are embedded in a silicon substrate with through-
silicon vias and suspended copper windings. The silicon-core has been removed completely to increase the quality factor and operating frequency. Air-core and silicon-core inductors were electrically characterized and compared. The results imply that the air-core inductors are better for very high frequency operation with higher quality factor at higher frequency. The MEMS air-core inductor has a quality factor of 13.3 at 33 MHz while a silicon-core inductor has a quality factor of 9 at 20 MHz. A VHF class-E boost converter was designed and optimized for zero voltage switching using the MEMS inductor and a GaN FET. The testing results showed that the inductor can handle an RMS current of 1 A and deliver a maximum power of 10.5 W to the output with a peak efficiency of 77.3 %. Based on our results that laid the cornerstone of MEMS inductor applications in power converters, we believe that MEMS inductors will play an important role for the development and realization of the PwrSoC vision.

**APPENDIX**

The absolute temperature of the copper windings (T) can be estimated by a linear approximation (1) [46].

$$T = \frac{R_T}{R_0} - 1 + T_0$$

where $\alpha_{Cu} = 4.29$ (ppm/K) is the temperature coefficient of copper. $T_0$ is room temperature of 22 °C. $R_T$ is the DC resistance measured at $T$ °C which equals to 0.42 $\Omega$. $R_0$ is the DC resistance measured at room temperature. $R_0$ At room temperature, the DC resistance ($R_0$) is re-measured precisely by applying a small DC current and measure the voltage across the inductor. An average $R_0$ of 0.308 $\Omega$ is measured including gold wires and PCB parasitic. The details of DC resistance measurement are presented in Table II. The absolute temperature of the copper windings (T) is calculated to be 108 °C.

**TABLE II**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Applied DC current (mA)</th>
<th>Measured voltage (mV)</th>
<th>DC Resistance ((\Omega))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.37</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.33</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>0.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>9.38</td>
<td>0.308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.45</td>
<td>12.43</td>
<td>0.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.36</td>
<td>15.48</td>
<td>0.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100.67</td>
<td>31.03</td>
<td>0.308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200.66</td>
<td>62.09</td>
<td>0.309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>0.308</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**REFERENCES**


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