

Received March 8, 2021, accepted April 9, 2021, date of publication April 21, 2021, date of current version May 3, 2021.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/ACCESS.2021.3074696

Modelling and Nonlinear Control of a Magnetically Coupled Multiport DC-DC Converter for Automotive Applications

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This work was supported in part by the Government of Spain through the Agencia Estatal de Investigación under Project DPI2017-85404-P, and in part by the Generalitat de Catalunya through the Agència de Gestió d'Ajuts Universitaris i de Recerca (AGAUR) Project under Grant 2017 SGR 872.

ABSTRACT This work presents a nonlinear control strategy for a magnetically coupled multiport dc-dc converter aimed at automotive applications. First, a behavioural dynamic model, based on averaging the power flowing among the ports, is derived. Then, a control algorithm, based on feedback linearization techniques, is proposed. Essentially, the controller ensures decoupling and a linear dynamic behaviour thanks to a transformation of control and state variables, and a conventional PI action is devised to render asymptotic stability, as well as robustness to load uncertainties. The inversion of the control transformation, which involves nonlinear terms, is carried out using linear approximations with no significant performance decay. Hence, simplicity and efficiency are the main features of the control design. The proposed controller is validated via experimental results.

INDEX TERMS Isolated multiport dc-dc converter, bidirectional power flow, nonlinear control, feedback linearization, decoupling, phase-shifted pulse width modulation, automotive applications.

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last years two main challenges have araisen in the automotive sector: on the one hand we have CO₂ reduction, which implies a weight reduction and an efficiency increase of the vehicle components [1]; on the other hand we have the customer's requirements, mainly in terms of performance and security. Consequently, the use of electrified systems has emerged as an alternative to be taken into account by OEMs (Original Equipment Manufacturers). This new tendency does not only consider the electrification of the power train (i.e. electrical and hybrid vehicles), but it is also evident in many auxiliary devices that are increasingly being electrified [2]

However, a major electrification of vehicles entails issues related to on-board dc micro-grids. This implies the necessity of designing: (i) controllers ensuring grid stability in the face of the connection of constant power loads (CPLs), as well as good robustness and efficiency properties, and (ii) optimization algorithms for the dc micro-grid.

The associate editor coordinating the review of this manuscript and approving it for publication was Cheng Qian .

This paper considers a dc multi-bus architecture with the most used voltages in automotive applications, namely, 400 V for the power train [3], [4], and 48 V and 12 V, for auxiliary devices, composed by only one storage element (batteries), see Figure 1. The main advantage of using only one battery and one power converter is size and weight reduction.

The dc buses are connected by a magnetically coupled multiport dc-dc converter. Magnetically-based converters have been used not only for electrical vehicles [5], but also for connecting different dc networks in traction systems [6], electric aircrafts [7], [8], satellites [9], energy management systems [10], [11], dc grids [12], interfacing different solar photovoltaic modules [13], or MTDC transmission system [14]. The attractiveness of this topology is, among others, related to the use of less components (because switching devices and storage elements are shared) resulting in lower overall mass and compact packaging, power flow bidirectionality in each port, and galvanic isolation among different dc networks thanks to the magnetic core. Several topologies have been proposed for multiport converters: fully electrically isolated configurations, with a separate winding in each port, include single magnetic



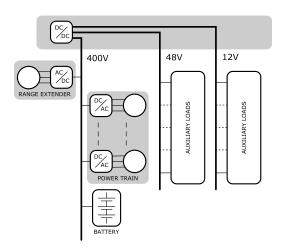


FIGURE 1. DC multi-bus system for automotive applications.

core [15], [16], a derived delta-type model for three-winding transformer [17], or dual-transformer topologies [18]. Other schemes reduce the number of windings (and, consequently, the size and weight), see [19]. In automotive applications, due to safety considerations, a fully isolated scheme is the preferred topology.

A. MODELLING APPROACHES

The multi-port dc-dc converter results in a non-linear dynamical system that mixes the dc stages at the dc buses with an ac stage in between due to the magnetic transformer. This prevents the adoption of the equivalent circuit model to design control strategies and requires the modification of the model. One alternative is the use of averaging methods such as the generalized state-space averaging (GSSA) technique. The GSSA methodology was proposed for a dual-active bridge (DAB) converter in [20], and later extended in [21]. See also [22] for a three-phase DAB converter. The main attractiveness of using such Fourier harmonic approach is that the resulting model provides a good physical insight.

Other alternatives can be found in the literature, such as the generalized input impedance model [23]. However, the behavioural model obtained from averaging the power flow among different ports is the most used approach. The exact derivation of this model has been reported in [24] assuming a periodic regime of voltages and currents in the high frequency transformer. The result is a nonlinear system with order equal to the number of dc buses.

B. CONTROL OF DC-DC MULTIPORT CONVERTERS

Usually, the control of magnetically coupled dc-dc converters is achieved by means of a high frequency square signal, where the control input is the phase-shift applied to each port. With this strategy and, under some conditions, soft-switching can be achieved [25]. Most of the papers propose classical PI controllers [7], [13], [18], [26], some of them with small variations for better transient behaviours, such as feed-forward terms [6], [27] or inner current loops [11].

Alternatively, other linear approaches can be found in the literature, including decoupling methods [19], [28], [29], compensators [30], [31], optimal Linear Quadratic Gaussian control [32], or H_{∞} control [33]. The aforementioned control strategies are based on linearized models and the analysis is based on small-gain approximations. Only few papers propose nonlinear strategies such as passivity-based controllers [34], [35] or adaptive algorithms [36].

C. CONTRIBUTION AND PAPER ORGANIZATION

The aim of this paper is to develop a feedback linearizationbased control strategy for a dc multi-bus and a multiport power converter that provides energy management among the dc buses, and ac-dc charging functionalities. Its main advantage with respect to linear techniques is that the control design includes the inherent nonlinearities of the model. Indeed, an appropriate control and state variables transformation is proposed that linearizes and decouples the system, and a PI controller rendering asymptotic stability and robustness to resistive load changes and presence of CPLs is devised. Then, the control transformation, which involves nonlinear terms, is inverted using linear approximations, and no major performance decay is observed. This paper combines the modelling approach presented in [24] with the feedback linearizating controller proposed in [37]. The main contribution is related to the experimental validation of the nonlinear control approach.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. The behavioural model of the multiport dc-dc converter is presented in Section II. The feedback linearizing control strategy and some issues related to the inversion of the control law are discussed in Section III. The description of the experimental setup and some experimental results are discussed in Section IV and, finally, conclusions and some suggestions for further research are drawn in Section V.

II. BEHAVIOURAL MODEL OF THE CONVERTER

Fig. 2 shows the schematic of the magnetically coupled multiport dc-dc converter. It consists of a n-port high frequency transformer with N_k , $k \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$, turns at each of its windings, and a full-bridge converter connected to each of the transformer ports. The converters have a capacitor C_k in their dc side.

To establish a model of the multiport converter based on the power flow between the transformer ports, the following assumptions are considered:

- A1 The magnetising inductances and the parasitic conduction losses are not considered.
- A2 The power transfer dynamics in the transformer is several orders of magnitude faster than the dynamics of the full converter (fixed by the values of the dc bus capacitors of the full-bridge converters). Thus, the power transfer in the high frequency transformer can be considered instantaneous and it can be modelled algebraically.



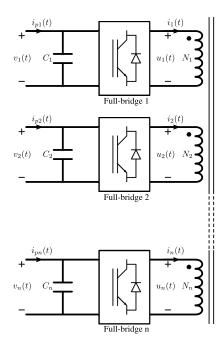


FIGURE 2. Multiport dc-dc converter.

A3 The modulation signals, $\beta_k(t)$, are zero-average periodic bipolar square wave signals with fundamental frequency ω_1 and phase shift θ_k , i.e. $\beta_k(t) = \text{sign}(\sin(\omega_1 t - \theta_k))$ $k \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$.

Under Assumptions A1 and A2, the dc bus voltages of the full-bridge converters can be assumed constant, i.e. $v_k(t) = V_k, k \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$, and the full-bridge converter operation generates periodic bipolar symmetric square-wave voltages¹ of constant amplitude, duty ratio equal to 0.5 and phase shift θ_k . That is,

$$u_k(t) = V_k \beta_k(t) = V_k \operatorname{sign}(\sin(\omega_1 t - \theta_k)),$$
 (1)

where $\omega_1 = \frac{2\pi}{T}$ is the fundamental frequency of the periodic voltages and currents in the transformer, and T the fundamental period of the signal.

Notice that the voltages $u_k(t)$ at the transformer windings are square signals with zero mean and the control variables of the converter are, then, the relative phases between the voltages. The currents at the windings $i_k(t)$ have also zero mean because the transformer is considered to be a linear system and the power transfer analysis is carried out in the steady state. It is worth remarking that the power transfer in the transformer is done at the fundamental frequency of the voltage signals and their harmonics.

A. POWER FLOW ANALYSIS AT A GIVEN PORT k

Fig. 3 represents the electrical equivalent circuit referred to any port k, when applying the port voltages (1) and, under Assumption A1, the magnetising inductances are disregarded. In figure 3, L_{dk} refers to leakage inductance at port

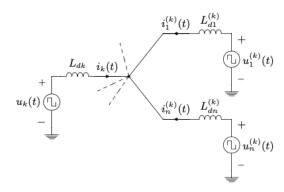


FIGURE 3. Electrical equivalent circuit for the multiport dc-dc converter, where the magnetising inductances are neglected.

k, and $L_{d1}^{(k)},\ldots,L_{dn}^{(k)}$ refer to the reflected leakages at port k from ports 1 to n (except k). See further details in [24]. Under periodic regime, the Fourier series development of the voltage at port k, and the voltage at port $l\neq k$ referred to port k are

$$u_k(t) = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} c_{k,h} e^{jh\omega_1 t}, \qquad (2)$$

$$u_l^{(k)}(t) = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} c_{l,h}^{(k)} e^{jh\omega_1 t},$$
 (3)

respectively, where $h \in \mathbb{Z}$, and

$$c_{k,h} = \begin{cases} -j \frac{2 V_k}{h\pi} e^{-jh\theta_k}, & h \mod 2 \neq 0\\ 0, & h \mod 2 = 0 \end{cases}$$
 (4)

$$c_{l,h}^{(k)} = \begin{cases} -j \frac{2(V_l/\alpha_{kl})}{h\pi} e^{-jh\theta_l}, & h \mod 2 \neq 0\\ 0, & h \mod 2 = 0 \end{cases}$$
 (5)

where $\alpha_{kl} = \frac{N_l}{N_k}$, $k, l \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$, $k \neq l$, is the transformer turn ratio of the k-th port with respect to the l-th port and $h \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Using Rosen's Theorem [38], the nodal network in Fig. 3 is transformed into a meshed one where the linking inductance between port k and any l-th port is given by

$$L_{kl}^{(k)} = L_{dk} L_{dl}^{(k)} \sum_{m=1}^{n} \frac{1}{L_{dm}^{(k)}},$$
 (6)

and the (virtual) current flowing between ports k and l is

$$i_{kl}(t) = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} d_{kl,h} e^{jh\omega_1 t}$$
 (7)

where

$$d_{kl,h} = \frac{c_{k,h} - c_{l,h}^{(k)}}{jh\omega_1 L_{kl}^{(k)}}.$$
 (8)

The total averaged (active) power injected from port k is

$$P_k = \sum_{l=1}^{n} P_{kl}, (9)$$

¹These signals verify $u_k(t) = -u_k(t + \frac{T}{2})$, $\forall t$. This property is equivalent to have, in their Fourier series developments, null harmonic content in the even harmonics including the zero one.



where²

$$P_{kl} = \frac{1}{T} \int_{t-T}^{t} u_k(\tau) \, \overline{i_{kl}}(\tau) \, d\tau. \tag{10}$$

Using (2) and (7)

$$P_{kl} = c_{k,0} d_{kl,0} + 2 \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \sum_{h=1}^{\infty} c_{k,h} \, \overline{d_{kl,h}} \right\}$$
 (11)

that can be written as

$$P_{kl} = -\frac{j2 V_k V_l}{\alpha_{kl} \pi^2 \omega_1 L_{kl}^{(k)}} \left(\text{Li}_3(e^{j\delta_{kl}}) - \text{Li}_3(-e^{j\delta_{kl}}) - \text{Li}_3(-e^{-j\delta_{kl}}) \right) - \text{Li}_3(e^{-j\delta_{kl}}) + \text{Li}_3(-e^{-j\delta_{kl}}) \right)$$
(12)

where $\delta_{kl} = \theta_l - \theta_k$ and $\text{Li}_a(z) = \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \frac{z^r}{r^a}$ is the polylogarithm function. Fig. 4 shows graphically, in red, the relation³ among P_{kl} and δ_{kl} for $\delta_{kl} \in [-\pi, \pi]$, which is equivalent to a temporal delay $[-\frac{T}{2}, \frac{T}{2}]$ between the voltages at the ports.

Expanding the transferred power P_{kl} in series around $\delta_{kl} = 0$ results in

$$P_{kl} = \frac{V_k V_l}{\alpha_{kl} \omega_1 L_{kl}^{(k)}} \left(\delta_{kl} - \frac{\operatorname{sign}(\delta_{kl}) \delta_{kl}^2}{\pi} \right) + O(\delta_{kl}^M). \quad (13)$$

It is worth remarking that the order M can be anyone, and that the agreement between

$$P_{kl}^{\text{approx}} = \frac{V_k V_l}{\alpha_{kl} \omega_1 L_{kl}^{(k)}} \left(\delta_{kl} - \frac{\operatorname{sign}(\delta_{kl}) \delta_{kl}^2}{\pi} \right)$$
$$= \frac{V_k V_l}{\alpha_{kl} \omega_1 L_{kl}^{(k)}} \delta_{kl} \left(1 - \frac{|\delta_{kl}|}{\pi} \right)$$
(14)

and P_{kl} in (12) is perfect in the interval $\delta_{kl} \in [-\pi, \pi]$, see Fig. 4. Equation (14) is the usually stated in the previous literature, e.g. [39]. Finally, the total power transferred to port k results in

$$P_{k} = \frac{V_{k}}{\omega_{1}} \sum_{l=1, l \neq k}^{n} \frac{V_{l}}{\alpha_{k l} L_{k l}^{(k)}} \, \delta_{k l} \left(1 - \frac{|\delta_{k l}|}{\pi} \right). \tag{15}$$

B. MULTIPORT DC-DC CONVERTER

Using the total power transferred at port k of (15), the voltage dynamics at each port is given by the Kirchhoff Current Law and the capacitor dynamics giving

$$C_k \dot{v}_k = i_{pk} - \frac{1}{v_k} P_k. \tag{16}$$

Therefore, the voltage dynamics at each port of the multiport converter is described by the nonlinear ordinary differential equations system

$$C_k \dot{v}_k = i_{pk} - \frac{1}{\omega_1} \sum_{l=1, l \neq k}^n \frac{v_l}{\alpha_{kl} L_{kl}^{(k)}} \, \delta_{kl} \left(1 - \frac{|\delta_{kl}|}{\pi} \right), \quad (17)$$

where $k, l \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$.

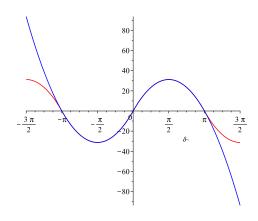


FIGURE 4. Power transferred from ports I to k, P_{kl} (W), with respect to δ_{kl} (rad). Exact relationship, eq. (12), in red, and approximation, eq. (14), in blue. The used parameters are $V_k = 100$ V, $V_l = 100$ V, $\omega_1 = 2\pi$ 40.0 \cdot 10³ rad/s, $L_{kl} = 1.0$ mH and $\alpha_{kl} = 1$.

In the following sections the particular case of a 3-port converter is used assuming that port number 1 is fed at constant voltage E_1 .

Besides, the load currents at ports 2 and 3 are assumed as composed by a resistive component and a constant power component, i.e. $i_{pk} = -\left(\frac{v_k}{R_k} + \frac{P_k}{v_k}\right)$. This assumption allows to consider the possible connection to the dc ports of the multiport converter of resistive and converter-interfaced dc loads.

III. CONTROLLER DESIGN

As mentioned at the end of last Section, let us to consider a three dc bus system: a high voltage dc bus (nominal voltage 400 V) and two low voltage buses (nominal voltages 48 V and 12 V). The voltage at the 365 V bus is assumed constant (mainly, due to the usual high capacity battery in these buses) and the two other buses have several loads connected to them. Setting the phase shift for port 1 as the reference, i.e., $\theta_1 = 0$, the system dynamics is given by:

$$C_{2}\dot{v}_{2} = -\frac{v_{2}}{R_{2}} - \frac{P_{2}}{v_{2}} + \frac{E_{1}}{\omega_{1}\alpha_{12}L'_{12}}\theta_{2}\left(1 - \frac{|\theta_{2}|}{\pi}\right) + -v_{3}\frac{1}{\omega_{1}\alpha_{23}L'_{23}}(\theta_{3} - \theta_{2})\left(1 - \frac{|\theta_{3} - \theta_{2}|}{\pi}\right)$$
(18a)

$$C_{3}\dot{v}_{3} = -\frac{v_{3}}{R_{3}} - \frac{P_{3}}{v_{3}} + \frac{E_{1}}{\omega_{1}\alpha_{13}L'_{13}}\theta_{3}\left(1 - \frac{|\theta_{3}|}{\pi}\right) + v_{2}\frac{1}{\omega_{1}\alpha_{32}L'_{32}}(\theta_{3} - \theta_{2})\left(1 - \frac{|\theta_{3} - \theta_{2}|}{\pi}\right), \quad (18b)$$

where v_2 is the voltage of the 48 V bus, v_3 is the voltage of the 12 V bus, and the phase shifts in ports 2 and 3, namely θ_2 , θ_3 , respectively, are the control variables, with $\theta_i \in \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$, $i \in \{2, 3\}$.

The control objectives are to regulate the voltages v_2 and v_3 to the reference values, $v_2^* = 48 \text{ V}$ and $v_3^* = 12 \text{ V}$, in spite of the load variations in the buses (described by R_i , P_i , respectively). For control design purposes it is assumed that the voltages at the buses are available for measure.

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² \overline{a} means the conjugate of the complex number a.

³It is worth noting that $P_{kl}(\delta_{kl})$ is 2π -periodic in δ_{kl} .



Let

$$f_i(\theta_i) = \frac{E_1}{\omega_1 \alpha_{1i} L'_{1i}} \theta_i \left(1 - \frac{|\theta_i|}{\pi} \right), \quad i = 2, 3$$

$$\lambda_i = \frac{1}{\omega_1 \alpha_{ij} L'_{ij}}, \quad i = 2, 3, \quad i \neq j,$$

$$g(\theta_2, \theta_3) = (\theta_3 - \theta_2) \left(1 - \frac{|\theta_3 - \theta_2|}{\pi} \right).$$

Then, (18) becomes

$$C_2 \dot{v}_2 = -\frac{v_2}{R_2} - \frac{P_2}{v_2} + f_2(\theta_2) - \lambda_2 v_3 g(\theta_2, \theta_3)$$
 (19a)

$$C_3\dot{v}_3 = -\frac{v_3}{R_3} - \frac{P_3}{v_3} + f_3(\theta_3) + \lambda_3 v_2 g(\theta_2, \theta_3)$$
. (19b)

The selected control law uses a feedback linearization approach. Let us consider the change of state variables

$$\xi_i = v_i^2, \tag{20}$$

with the subindex i taking the values i = 2, 3 unless otherwise stated below, and the change of control variables

$$u_2 = v_2 f_2(\theta_2) - \lambda_2 v_2 v_3 g(\theta_2, \theta_3)$$
 (21a)

$$u_3 = v_3 f_3(\theta_3) + \lambda_3 v_2 v_3 g(\theta_2, \theta_3)$$
. (21b)

Then, (19) boils down to the linear, decoupled system

$$\dot{\xi}_i = -\frac{2}{R_i C_i} \xi_i - \frac{2P_i}{C_i} + \frac{2}{C_i} u_i. \tag{22}$$

Let ξ_i^* denote the reference for the state variable ξ_i . Then, consider the following PI controller,

$$u_i = -k_{pi}\xi_i + k_{zi}z_i \tag{23a}$$

$$\dot{z}_i = \xi_i^* - \xi_i, \tag{23b}$$

with k_{pi} , k_{zi} verifying:

$$\frac{1}{R_i} + k_{pi} > 0, \quad k_{zi} > 0. \tag{24}$$

Proposition 1: The closed-loop system (22), (23), (24) shows a unique equilibrium point $(\xi_2^*, z_2^*, \xi_3^*, z_3^*)^{\mathsf{T}}$, with

$$z_i^* = \frac{1}{k_{zi}} \left[\left(\frac{1}{R_i} + k_{pi} \right) \xi_i^* + P_i \right], \tag{25}$$

which is globally asymptotically stable.

Proof: The closed-loop system (22), (23) is given by

$$\dot{\xi}_{i} = -\frac{2}{C_{i}} \left(\frac{1}{R_{i}} + k_{pi} \right) \xi_{i} - \frac{2P_{i}}{C_{i}} + \frac{2k_{zi}}{C_{i}} z_{i}, \quad (26a)$$

$$\dot{z}_i = \xi_i^* - \xi_i, \tag{26b}$$

and it is immediate to check that it shows a single equilibrium at $(\xi_2^*, z_2^*, \xi_3^*, z_3^*)^{\top}$, with z_i^* verifying (25). Now, defining $e_i = \xi_i - \xi_i^*$, $e_{zi} = z_i - z_i^*$, (26) becomes linear:

$$\dot{e}_i = -\frac{2}{C_i} \left(\frac{1}{R_i} + k_{pi} \right) e_i + \frac{2k_{zi}}{C_i} e_{zi} \tag{27}$$

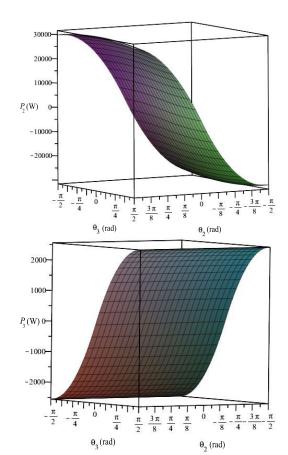


FIGURE 5. Top: $u_2 = u_2(\theta_2, \theta_3)$; bottom: $u_3 = u_3(\theta_2, \theta_3)$.

$$\dot{e}_{zi} = -e_i. \tag{28}$$

Finally, it follows straightforward that its characteristic polynomial is

$$p(\chi) = \prod_{i=2}^{3} \left[\chi^2 + \frac{2}{C_i} \left(\frac{1}{R_i} + k_{pi} \right) \chi + \frac{2k_{zi}}{C_i} \right],$$

which has all its roots in the left complex plane if and only if (24) is fulfilled. Then, the result follows.

Remark: It stems immediately from the previous result that k_{pi} , $k_{zi} > 0$ is sufficient to ensure that the control law (23) guarantees robustness to parametric uncertainty on R_i , P_i . The main issue with this control law is in the inversion of the change of variables (21), which is analyzed below.

The control law (21) is highly nonlinear, as it involves absolute value terms. In order to carry out the inversion, i.e. to obtain $\theta_i = \theta_i$ (u_2 , u_3), we may first notice from Figure 5 that the \mathbb{R}^3 surfaces defined in (21) have a large range within its domain, $\theta_i \in \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$. However, taking into account that u_i has power units, and that the range of admissible power is, approximately, $u_2 \in [0, 2400W]$, $u_3 \in [0, 600W]$, the zoom in Figure 6 discloses a linear behavior of the surfaces in such region.

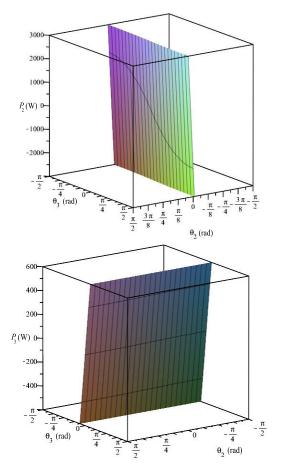


FIGURE 6. Zoom of Figure 5. Top: $u_2 = u_2(\theta_2, \theta_3)$; bottom: $u_3=u_3\left(\theta_2,\theta_3\right).$

This is consistent with the fact that, although

$$\theta \left(1 - \frac{|\theta|}{\pi}\right)$$

is nicely approximated by $\frac{\pi}{4}\sin\theta$ in $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2},\frac{\pi}{2}\right]$, the identity, θ , does better in a neighbourhood of $\theta=0$, as plotted in Figure 7. Hence, the inversion will be performed from the linear approximation of the change of variables (21), namely,

$$u_2 \approx v_2 (k_2 \theta_2 - \lambda_2 v_3 (\theta_3 - \theta_2))$$
 (29a)

$$u_3 \approx v_3 (k_3 \theta_3 + \lambda_3 v_2 (\theta_3 - \theta_2)),$$
 (29b)

with

$$k_i = \frac{E_1}{\omega_1 \alpha_{1i} L'_{1i}}.$$

Therefore:

$$\theta_{2} \approx \frac{\left(\lambda_{3} + \frac{k_{3}}{v_{2}}\right)u_{2} + \lambda_{2}u_{3}}{\lambda_{3}k_{2}v_{2} + \lambda_{2}k_{3}v_{3} + k_{2}k_{3}}$$
(30a)
$$\theta_{3} \approx \frac{\lambda_{3}u_{2} + \left(\lambda_{2} + \frac{k_{2}}{v_{3}}\right)u_{3}}{\lambda_{3}k_{2}v_{2} + \lambda_{2}k_{3}v_{3} + k_{2}k_{3}},$$
(30b)

$$\theta_3 \approx \frac{\lambda_3 u_2 + \left(\lambda_2 + \frac{k_2}{v_3}\right) u_3}{\lambda_3 k_2 v_2 + \lambda_2 k_3 v_3 + k_2 k_3},\tag{30b}$$

where the control actions u_i are defined in (23).

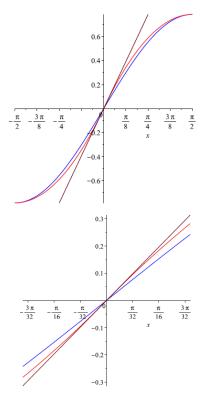


FIGURE 7. Red: $\theta\left(1-\frac{|\theta|}{\pi}\right)$; blue: $\frac{\pi}{4}\sin\theta$; brown: θ . Top: $\theta\in\left[-\frac{\pi}{2},\frac{\pi}{2}\right]$; bottom: $\theta \in \left[-\frac{3\pi}{32}, \frac{3\pi}{32} \right]$.

TABLE 1. Experimental multiport DC/DC converter details.

Parameter	Symbol	Value
Port number	-	3 (1 battery port, 2 ports regulated)
Battery voltage	v_1	365 V
Reference voltages Bus 2, 3	$v_2^* v_3^*$	48 / 12 V
Nominal currents Bus 2, 3	$i_{p2} i_{p3}$	50 / 12 A
Output capacitance Bus 2, 3	C_2, C_3	200 / $600~\mu C$
Transformer windings turns	N_1 / N_2 / N_3	24/3/0.8
Transformer magnetizing inductance	L_m	2 mH
Transformer leakage inductances	$L_{12}^{(2)}, L_{13}^{(3)}$	$0.4~\mu\mathrm{H},1~\mu\mathrm{H}$
Auxiliar leakage inductances	$L_{12_a}^{(2)}, L_{13_a}^{(3)}$	$2.6~\mu H, 1.5~\mu H$
Switching frequency	f_{sw}	40 kHz
	Controller gains	
48 V (v2) bus controller	k_{p2}, k_{z2}	$8 \cdot 10^3, 24 \cdot 10^6$
12 V (v ₃) bus controller	k_{p3}, k_{z3}	$15 \cdot 10^4, 240 \cdot 10^6$

The equivalent block diagram of the proposed controller is shown in Figure 8, where the specific equations of each functional block have been detailed.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP AND RESULTS

For the experimental evaluation of the proposed converter with the designed controller, a 2.5 kW experimental prototype has been built. The main parameters of the power stage are detailed in Table 1.

A. DESCRIPTION OF THE PLANT

The experimental prototype is shown in Figures 9, 10. The converter has been developed in a single board where the



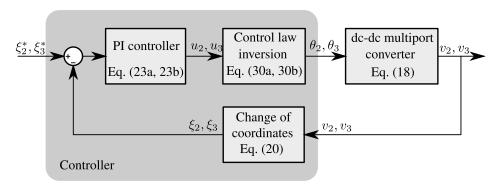


FIGURE 8. Block diagram of the proposed controller.

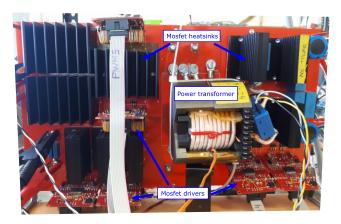


FIGURE 9. Experimental prototype. Front view highlighting the power transformer, the MOSFETs heat sinks and drivers.

power MOSFETs, the heat sinks and the power transformer have been assembled in a compact form. The power devices have been placed in one side of the board and the heat sinks at the other, minimizing the thermal path for the losses dissipation without active cooling. According to the nominal power of the buses, the MOSFETs have been grouped in parallel in order to manage the current of the converter with low losses. Specifically, two STB45N65M5 have been used in the primary side, five IRFS4310 have been used in the 48 V bus and two IPB120N04S4 for the 12 V bus. The gate drivers used for the power switches are based on the Infineon 2ED020I12FA chip, which provides isolated driving, protecting the control stage from undesirable noises of the power stage. In the experimental part, the high voltage bus has been set to 365 V instead of 400 to facilitate the transformer construction, which has been wound by hand. The power transformer has been assembled using a P87/70-N87 ferrite core, wounded with copper litz wire, thus minimizing the high frequency losses produced by the skin effect. In order to ensure a low core flux without saturation, 24 turns have been used for the high voltage side, 3 turns for the 48 V bus and 0.8 turns for the 12 V one.4 The effective leakage inductances of the

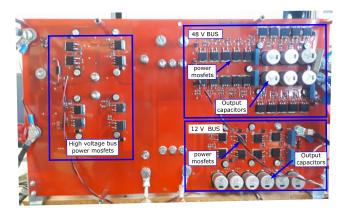


FIGURE 10. Experimental prototype. back view highlighting the power MOSFETs and output capacitors.

transformer have been increased by two auxiliary inductors placed in series at the secondary sides, adapting the system gain to the power level (See Table 1). Finally, the voltage sensing is implemented by voltage dividers through isolation barriers (HCPL-790B). In the acquisition chains to the ADCs (Analogue to Digital Converters), first order low pass filters with a cut off frequency of 10 kHz have been used. The transformer currents are measured for monitoring and fault detection purpose, not being required by the controllers.

The equipment used in the experimental evaluation were the voltage a TDK-Lambda GEN 600-17 voltage source, a Chroma 63804 AC/DC electronic load, several Fluke True RMS 175 multimeters and a Yogokawa DLM 2024 oscilloscope with 700924 voltage probes and 701931 current probes.

The controllers have been digitally implemented using a Texas Instruments F28379D DSP microcontroller. The code has been programmed using only one of the cores available in that device. The sampling frequency of the control routine is 40 kHz which is the same as the fundamental frequency of the square bipolar voltages in the converter full-bridges.

B. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In the experimental results the converter has been assessed in terms of steady-state performance, evaluating the load and line regulations and the converter's efficiency, and also in

⁴To obtain a fractional ratio, the turn was not completely closed [40] and the effective turn ratio was empirically confirmed.



TABLE 2. Line regulation of the experimental prototype.

				Mid Load 48V@16A, 12V@6A			Full Load	
v ₁ (V)	v ₂ (V)	v ₃ (V)	$v_1 ext{ (V)} v_2 ext{ (V)} v_3 ext{ (V)}$			v ₁ (V)	v ₂ (V)	v ₃ (V)
330	12.13	47.91	330	12.07	47.93	330	12.07	47.92
365	12.08	47.94	365	12.08	47.92	365	12.08	47.92
400	12.08	47.95	400	12.08	47.91	400	12.08	47.92

TABLE 3. Load regulation of the experimental prototype.

12 V Bus								
Output Power (W) Output Voltage (V)	0	36	72	108	144			
	12.08	12.08	12.07	12.07	12.07			

48 V Bus								
Output Power (kW)	0	0.5	1	1.5	2			
Output Voltage (V)	47.93	47.92	47.93	47.94	47.92			

TABLE 4. Converter efficiency.

Total output Power (kW)	0	0.15	0.84	2	2.4
Efficiency (%)	-	83.1	91.4	95.5	95.2
Losses (W)	23	30	79	94	121

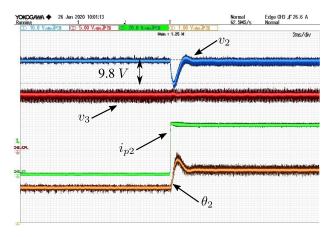


FIGURE 11. Transient under a 2 kW CPL connection at the 48 V bus, 12 V bus without load. v_2 (blue, 10 V/div), v_3 (red, 5 V/div), i_{p2} (green, 20 A/div), θ_2 (orange, 60 °/div).

terms of transient response, testing both resistive and constant power loads.

1) STEADY-STATE EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The line and load regulation, and the converter efficiency of the converter, are shown in Tables 2, 3 and 4, respectively. The results confirm the good behaviour of the converter with the designed controller. The converter has been evaluated in a range of ± 10 % of the nominal input voltage, guaranteeing

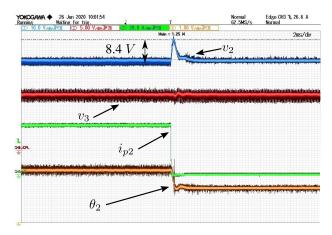


FIGURE 12. Transient under a 2 kW CPL disconnection at the 48 V bus, 12 V bus without load. v_2 (blue, 10 V/div), v_3 (red, 5 V/div), i_{p2} (green, 20 A/div), θ_2 (orange, 60 °/div).

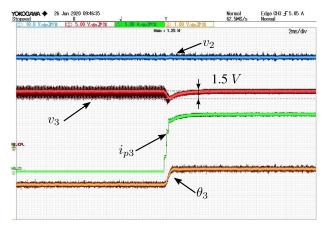


FIGURE 13. Transient under a resistive load connection at the 12 V bus, 48 V bus without load. v_2 (blue, 10 V/div), v_3 (red, 5 V/div), i_{p3} (green, 5 A/div), θ_3 (orange, 60 °/div).

regulated voltages at their outputs in that range with a very small deviation from the nominal values. Similarly, the output currents do not reduce the output voltage regulation, as Table 3 reveals, since the output voltages slightly vary as the output power increases. The converter efficiency was measured in the working points shown in Table 4. The measured values are adequate for a first experimental prototype.

2) TRANSIENT RESPONSE EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In order to evaluate the transient response of the converter in front of load variations different tests have been performed. The first test consists in applying a CPL transient in the 48 V bus from no load to 2 kW and from 2 kW to no load, while the 12 V bus is maintained in no load condition. The Figures 11 and 12 show the load transients due to the 2 kW CPL. The signals shown in the oscilloscope captures are: 48 V bus voltage, v_2 , in channel 1 (blue), 12 V bus voltage, v_3 , in channel 2 (red), 48 V bus load current, i_{p2} , in channel 3 (green) and 48 V bus control action, θ_2 , in channel 4 (orange). The control action is plotted using a digital-to-analog converter (DAC) of the micro controller, where 3 V corresponds



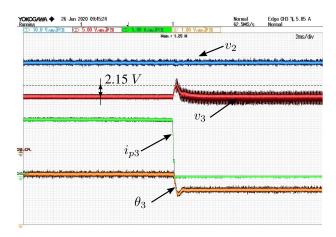


FIGURE 14. Transient under a resistive load disconnection at the 12 V bus, 48 V bus without load. v_2 (blue, 10 V/div), v_3 (red, 5 V/div), i_{p3} (green, 5 A/div), θ_3 (orange, 60 °/div).

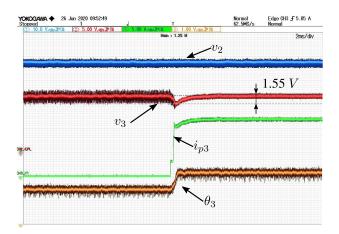


FIGURE 15. Transient under a resistive load connection at the 12 V bus, 48 V bus with 2 kW CPL. v_2 (blue, 10 V/div), v_3 (red, 5 V/div), i_{p3} (green, 5 A/div), θ_3 (orange, 60 °/div).

to 90° and 0~V to -90° . From the results, the good behaviour of the controller in front of CPL transients can be inferred, being the maximum error during the transient of 9.8~V representing the 20% of its nominal voltage and recovering the regulated value in 1~ms with a smooth transient. In both results, it can be seen how the transients in 48~V bus do not affect the 12~V bus, thus confirming the decoupled performance of the converter outputs. Notice from the current shape (green signal) the CPL load behaviour.

The transient response of the 12 V bus is evaluated in the next test. Figures 13 and 14 depict resistive load transients when a resistor of 1 Ω is connected and disconnected while the 48 V bus voltage is in no load condition. In this case, the signals shown in the oscilloscope captures are: 48 V bus voltage, v_2 , in channel 1 (blue), 12 V bus voltage, v_3 , in channel 2 (red), 12 V bus load current, i_{p3} , in channel 3 (green) and 48 V bus control action, θ_3 , in channel 4 (orange). The control action is plotted again using a DAC of the micro controller with the same scale as before. Now, the maximum voltage deviation at bus 3 is around 2 V in both transients, which represent a 16% of the desired value, recovering the

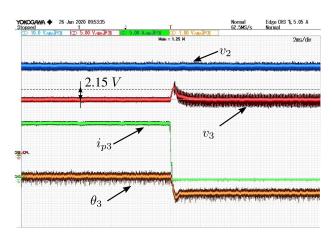


FIGURE 16. Transient under a resistive load disconnection at the 12 V bus, 48 V bus with 2 kW CPL. v_2 (blue, 10 V/div), v_3 (red, 5 V/div), i_{p3} (green, 5 A/div), θ_3 (orange, 60 °/div).

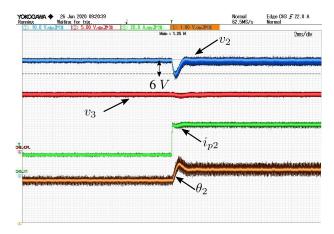


FIGURE 17. Transient under a 1.25 kW CPL connection at the 48 V bus with 3 Ω load, 12 V bus with 1 Ω load. v_2 (blue, 10 V/div), v_3 (red, 5 V/div), i_{02} (green, 20 A/div), θ_2 (orange, 60 °/div).

nominal value in 2 ms. Again, the voltage at bus 2 is not affected by bus 3 transients. The current profile in Figure 13 allows to identify the resistive behaviour of the load used in this test.

The same tests shown in Figures 13 and 14 are repeated with the main bus loaded with a 2 kW CPL, and their results are shown in Figures 15 and 16. The transient results are similar under the two load conditions, and the dynamic decoupling of the controllers is confirmed.

Finally, an experimental test combining resistive and CPL loads is presented. Figures 17 and 18 show a CPL transient of 1.25 kW at the 48 V bus while it is simultaneously loaded with 3 Ω (16 A) and the 12 V bus is loaded with 1 Ω (12 A). The signals shown in oscilloscope captures are: 48 V bus voltage, v_2 , in channel 1 (blue), 12 V bus voltage, v_3 , in channel 2 (red), 48 V bus load current, i_{p2} , in channel 3 (green) and 48 V bus control action, θ_2 , in channel 4 (orange). The control action is plotted, as previously, using a DAC of the micro controller.

The results corroborate again the good behaviour of the controller while manage both type of loads, resistive and



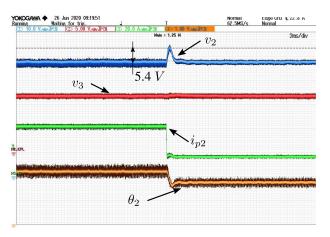


FIGURE 18. Transient under a 1.25 kW CPL disconnection at the 48 V bus with 3 Ω load, 12 V bus with 1 Ω load, v_2 (blue, 10 V/div), v_3 (red, 5 V/div), i_{p2} (green, 20 A/div), θ_2 (orange, 60 °/div).

CPL. The voltage of the 48 V bus suffers a maximum variation of 6 V, recovering the nominal value, which represents an error of 12 %, and the steady-state value is recovered in around 1 ms. Notice how, again, the voltage at bus 3 is almost unaffected, thus confirming that the decoupled behaviour of the controllers does not depend neither on the operation point nor on the load nature (resistive or CPL).

V. CONCLUSION

This article has shown a detailed obtaining of a dynamic model, based on the average power flow among the ports, for a magnetically-coupled multiport dc-dc converter. Using this model, a feedback linearization-based controller has been designed. The controller, through an appropriate change of control and state variables, linearizes and decouples the model thus allowing to design a simple, yet efficient, outer conventional PI controller. The inversion of the nonlinear control transformation has been carried out using linear approximations without observing a significant loss of performance.

In order to validate the proposed control law, a three-port experimental prototype has been built. The experiments that have been carried out with it show the good operation of the controlled system in front of different operational situations.

Further research is currently oriented to the development of new adaptive and robust control laws for the multiport converter.

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