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# A Hybrid Modulation Featuring Two-Phase Clamped Discontinuous PWM and Zero Voltage Switching for 99% Efficient DC-Type EV Charger

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**Abstract**—Two-stage AC-DC converters are considered as a prominent solution for DC-type electric vehicle (EV) chargers. However, this kind of architecture suffers from high switching losses with large heatsink and DC-link capacitor volume. To relieve this issue, this paper presents a new hybrid modulation for DC-type EV chargers, where a two-phase clamped discontinuous pulse-width-modulation (DPWM) in the front-end circuit is cooperated with the variable frequency triangular-current-mode (TCM) zero voltage switching (ZVS) or its simplified implementation, i.e., boundary-ZVS (B-ZVS) strategy, in the back-end circuit. The former can stop the switching actions in the front-end stage during two-thirds of the grid period, while the AC currents are at their highest values, which can yield to the best switching loss reduction and deliver high power factor operation. Besides, TCM-ZVS or B-ZVS modulations can achieve ZVS turn-on action for all semiconductors during all operating range in the DC-DC stage to further reduce the power losses on the semiconductors. With such characteristics, the proposed strategies can reduce the switching losses of the system to the best extent, and thus allow an enhancement of the system power density by improving the power conversion efficiency. The proposed strategy is described, analyzed, validated, and benchmarked in a 5 kW SMD SiC MOSFET-based two-stage AC-DC converter. A 99% power efficiency can be achieved with the solution implementing the TCM-ZVS strategy at an output voltage of 400 V and rated power.

**Index Terms**—Electric vehicle (EV), two-stage AC-DC converter, discontinuous pulse width modulation (DPWM), zero voltage switching (ZVS).

## I. INTRODUCTION

WITH the proliferation and development of electric vehicles (EVs) market, currently, most EVs can be charged

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at 50 kW and 400 V following the fast charging standards “CCS - up to 80 kW” and “CHAdeMO - approx. 50 kW” [1]–[5]. To meet these requirements, high power-level three-phase AC-DC converters for DC-type EV charging systems are in high demand, which in certain cases allow a bidirectional power flow and consequently improve the grid stability by feeding back power to the mains by using the EV batteries as a grid energy storage [6]–[8]. Therefore, the interest to the topology circuits and corresponding control scheme of the DC-type EV charger has gained many momenta in both industry and academia [9]–[14].

Since the variation of EV battery voltages for DC-type EV charger is particularly wide, e.g., for a Nissan Leaf the rated power has to be provided to a DC voltage ranging from 300 V to 400 V from an AC grid connection with peak line-to-line voltages ranging from 540 V to 560 V in the Chinese and European markets [6], a charger with Boost and Buck functionality [15]–[18] is needed. Consequently, the two-stage Buck + Boost or (Boost + Buck) converters are considered as prominent solutions [17]–[19]. In this paper, a suitable two-stage three-phase AC-DC converter with connection to the grid through a 50/60 Hz isolated transformer is studied, as shown in Fig. 1, where a three-phase Boost converter is followed by a DC-DC Buck converter. Herein, the front-end converter comprises a three-phase three-wire two-level six-switch voltage source rectifier (2L-VSR), which inherently features low complexity and low cost, and favors for the off-board EV charger [20], [21]. The back-end circuit works as a three-channel pulse-width-modulation (PWM) interleaved DC-DC Buck converter. This features enhanced loss distribution among the semiconductors or better current shared between the parallel circuits than the hard-paralleling of semiconductors [22]–[24]. Due to the large capacitor between the two converters, their control scheme are typically implemented to be decoupled, which means the front-end and the back-end stages are modulated independently.

Unfortunately, such a two-stage solution usually suffers from high switching losses with large heatsink and DC-link capacitor volume. To improve the power conversion efficiency, different discontinuous PWM (DPWM) strategies instead of traditional continuous PWM methods can be applied to optimize the switching losses in the front-end AC-DC circuit [25]–[30]. Conventional DPWM methods such as DPWM0, DPWM1,

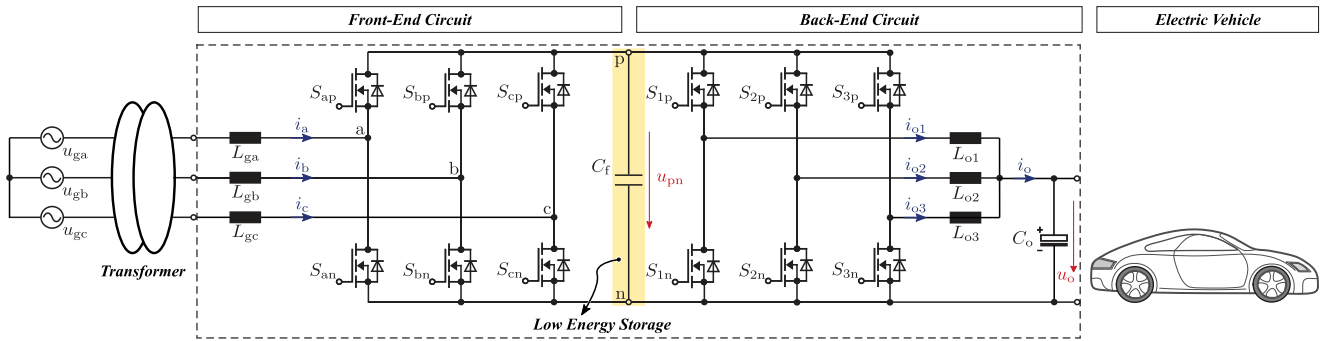


Fig. 1. Architecture of the DC-type EV charger.

DPWM2, DPWM3, DPWMMIN and DPWMMAX are summarized in [25], which can reduce the switching losses remarkably in comparison with the continuous PWM methods, i.e., sinusoidal PWM (SPWM), and space vector PWM (SVPWM). To further reduce the switching losses in a wide power factor range, a minimum-losses PWM method has been well studied in [26], [27], which distributes non-modulated segments variably according to the phase angle between reference voltage and input current. In [28], a direct digital technique-GDPWM (DDT-GDPWM) has been presented, which has the advantage of not requiring the load power factor information and low computation time. A scalar PWM method studied in [29], [30] has the capability to obtain the performance of minimum switching losses and to reduce common-mode voltage simultaneously. A synergetic control has been studied in two-level and three-level two-stage AC-DC converters, where only one-third of the grid period in the front-end stage is switched, i.e., 1/3 PWM [2], [3], [6], [7].

However, all of the aforementioned modulation strategies only focus on the switching losses reduction in the front-end stage and do not consider the losses optimization in the back-end stage or modulate the front- and back-end stages simultaneously. To fill this gap, a new hybrid modulation for DC-type EV charging systems to improve the converter overall efficiency is proposed in this paper, where the two-phase clamped DPWM in the front-end stage is cooperated with the variable frequency triangular-current-mode (TCM) zero-voltage-switching (ZVS) modulation and its simplified implementation called here the boundary-ZVS (B-ZVS) strategy in the back-end stage. Herein, the two-phase clamped DPWM method is implemented in the front-end stage, which yields to the best switching loss reduction in any known DPWM strategies especially at high power factor (HPF) operation. Moreover, ZVS turn-on feature can be achieved by variable frequency controlled TCM-ZVS or the B-ZVS in the back-end PWM interleaved DC-DC stage to further reduce the switching losses of the system. The ZVS turn-on strategies combined with symmetric PWM interleaved operation will also cancel out the high frequency harmonics proportional to the number of employed parallel circuits in both voltages and currents, lowering the root mean square (RMS) current across the DC capacitors  $C_f$  and  $C_o$ . Through the proposed coupled modulation, a larger voltage ripple can be allowed in the DC-link, and thus a DC-link employing capacitor with low energy storage

capability, e.g., an electrolytic capacitor-less DC-link, can be used as well. It is noted that to the best of authors' knowledge, so far no literature work has applied such a loss-optimization hybrid modulation in EV charging systems based on the presented circuit topology as shown in Fig. 1.

This paper contributes to the following points:

- A new hybrid modulation with two-phase clamped DPWM cooperated with the TCM-ZVS or B-ZVS strategy are proposed for the application of DC-type EV chargers.
- The detailed system operation and analytical semiconductor stresses modeling of the studied two-stage converter with different modulation strategies are presented.
- The benchmarking with the different hybrid modulations is performed in experiments.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section II, the explanation of the structural characteristics of the presented DC-type EV charger, modulation strategy featuring low switching losses and feedback control method are presented. In Section III, the analytical equations for semiconductor stresses are given. Finally, in Section IV, the studied hybrid modulation is evaluated and benchmarked against the conventional modulation in the simulation and a 5 kW SMD SiC MOSFET-based prototype.

## II. WORKING PRINCIPLE OF THE PROPOSED HYBRID MODULATION

This section describes the basic operation of the EV battery charger system depicted in Fig. 1. As previously discussed, the front- and back-end circuits are connected to each other through a DC-link with low energy storage capability, which makes the operation of both circuits highly coupled to each other. Herein, the front-end AC-DC stage is composed of six active switches ( $S_{xp}$  and  $S_{xn}$ ,  $x \in a, b, c$ ), and the back-end interleaved DC-DC stage is structured by another six active switches ( $S_{ip}$  and  $S_{in}$ ,  $i \in 1, 2, 3$ ), which are connected with the front-end stage via the DC-link capacitor  $C_f$ ;  $u_{pn}$  is the DC-link voltage;  $u_{gx}$  and  $i_x$  are the AC voltage and current, respectively;  $L_{gx}$  is the input inductor;  $u_o$  and  $i_o$  are the output voltage and current, and  $i_{oi}$  is the current passing through the output inductor  $L_{oi}$ ;  $C_o$  is the output capacitor.

In fact, the circuit operates similarly to a single stage three-phase Buck-type AC-DC converter [31]–[33], where the two

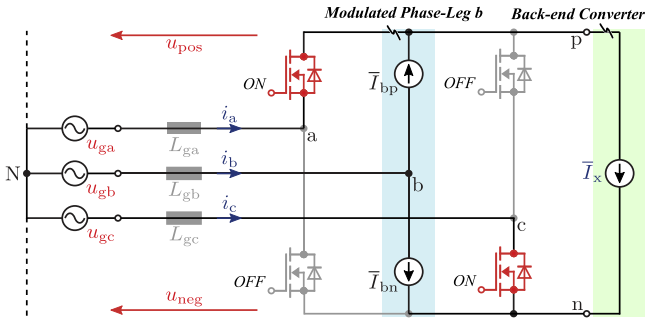


Fig. 2. Equivalent circuit of the front-end stage operation for the case:  $u_{ga} > u_{gb} > u_{gc}$ .

largest AC line-to-line voltages are deliberately switched to the output of the back-end semiconductor bridge and a cascading low-pass filtering ( $L_{oi}$  and  $C_o$ ) in order to regulate the output voltage  $u_o$ . Correspondingly, the output voltage can ideally be adjusted to values starting from zero to:

$$u_o \leq \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} u_{g,l-l,rms} \quad (1)$$

where,  $u_{g,l-l,rms}$  is the grid line-to-line RMS voltage.

#### A. System Operation of Two-Phase Clamped DPWM in Front-End AC-DC Stage

For the DPWM strategy studied in this work, two-phases are always clamped at each switching sequence, as a consequence, the DC-link voltage  $u_{pn}$  will be varied and be defined by two AC voltages with the largest magnitudes:

$$u_{pn} = u_{pos} - u_{neg}. \quad (2)$$

where,  $u_{pos} = \max\{u_{ga}, u_{gb}, u_{gc}\}$  is the maximum grid voltage and  $u_{neg} = \min\{u_{ga}, u_{gb}, u_{gc}\}$  is the minimum one.

The operation of the back-end circuit impresses constant power  $P_o$  which will result in the demand of a current,  $I_x$ , varying in the opposite phase to the six-pulse rectifier voltage at the output of the front-end circuit or  $u_{pn}$ :

$$\bar{I}_x = \frac{P_o}{u_{pn}} = k_x \frac{P_o}{u_o} = k_x I_o. \quad (3)$$

where  $k_x$  represents the relative on-time of the back-end Buck converter switch  $S_{ip}$  given by:

$$k_x = \frac{u_o}{u_{pos} - u_{neg}} = \frac{u_o}{u_{pn}}. \quad (4)$$

In the three-wire system, sinusoidal shape of all AC grid currents will be guaranteed by the overlaying of the circulating  $I_x$  with the current controlled by the switched phase-leg of the front-end circuit which has the lowest instant absolute voltage. Taking the condition that the grid voltage interval [ $u_{ga} > u_{gb} > u_{gc}$ ] as an example, the equivalent circuit of the studied system is depicted in Fig. 2, where the voltage drop across the grid inductors is omitted and  $S_{bp}$  and  $S_{bn}$  are controlled to generate the required instant average current, i.e.,  $\bar{I}_{bp}$  and  $\bar{I}_{bn}$ . Assuming that the EV charging system operates as a symmetric three-phase

load of phase conductance  $G$  to the grid, the value of the current to be controlled at phase  $b$  can be written as:

$$i_b = G u_{gb}. \quad (5)$$

If the voltage at the terminal  $b$  is formed according to the relative on-time of the switch  $S_{bp}$  as  $k_y$ , it will result in:

$$\begin{aligned} u_{bn} &= u_{bN} + u_{Nn} = -u_{aN} - u_{cN} - u_{cN} = -u_{pos} - 2u_{neg} \\ &= k_y (u_{pos} - u_{neg}) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

$$k_y = \frac{-u_{pos} - 2u_{neg}}{u_{pos} - u_{neg}} = \frac{u_{bN} - u_{cN}}{u_{pn}} = \frac{u_{bc}}{u_{ac}} \quad (7)$$

By controlling the on-state of  $S_{bp}$  with a relative time  $k_y$ , a sinusoidal current  $i_a$  will result of the overlay between  $I_x$  and the instant average current in  $S_{bp}$ ,  $\bar{I}_{bp}$ , as followings:

$$\bar{I}_{bp} = k_y i_b = G u_{gb} \frac{u_{bc}}{u_{ac}} \quad (8)$$

$$\bar{I}_x = \frac{P_o}{u_{ac}} = \frac{i_a u_{ac} + i_b u_{bc}}{u_{ac}} = G \frac{u_{ga} u_{ac} + u_{gb} u_{bc}}{u_{ac}} \quad (9)$$

$$i_a = \bar{I}_x - \bar{I}_{bp} = G \left( \frac{u_{ga} u_{ac} + u_{gb} u_{bc}}{u_{ac}} - \frac{u_{gb} u_{bc}}{u_{ac}} \right) = G u_{ga} \quad (10)$$

Additionally, a sinusoidal current  $i_c$  will result of the overlay between  $I_x$  and the instant average current in  $S_{bn}$ ,  $\bar{I}_{bn}$ :

$$\bar{I}_{bn} = (1 - k_y) i_b = G u_{gb} \left(1 - \frac{u_{bc}}{u_{ac}}\right) = G u_{gb} \frac{u_{ab}}{u_{ac}} \quad (11)$$

$$\begin{aligned} i_c &= -\bar{I}_x - \bar{I}_{bn} = G \left( -\frac{u_{ga} u_{ac} + u_{gb} u_{bc}}{u_{ac}} - \frac{u_{ab} u_{gb}}{u_{ac}} \right) \\ &= G \frac{(u_{gb} + u_{gc}) u_{ac} - u_{gb} u_{bc} - u_{gb} u_{ab}}{u_{ac}} = G u_{gc} \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Therefore, sinusoidal shape of all grid currents for the interval [ $u_{ga} > u_{gb} > u_{gc}$ ] has been proven.

Via this method, a sinusoidal current input and the controlled output voltage for all grid intervals can be achieved. Two phases with the maximum magnitude grid voltage are clamped, while only the one with the lowest instant absolute voltage is modulated with a relative on-time  $k_y$ , together with the back-end circuit constantly modulated with the on-time  $k_x$ . Assuming a high power factor operation, only the phase-leg with the lowest absolute value is switched at each time, leading to an optimum clamping strategy where the switching losses of the front-end converter can be the lowest compared to any other known DPWM strategies.

#### B. System Operation Variable Frequency ZVS Strategies in Back-End DC-DC Stage

The simplified topology of the back-end interleaved DC-DC circuit with one phase-leg, i.e., phase-leg 1, is given in Fig. 3(a). The typical current and voltage waveforms and of the ZVS operation are presented in Fig. 3(b), where  $t_{p,on}$  and  $t_{p,off}$  are the turn-on and turn-off time of the upper switch  $S_{1p}$ ;  $T_s$  is the switching period;  $\Delta i_{o1}$  and  $i_{o1,avg}$  are the current ripple and the average current value of  $i_{o1}$ , respectively;  $u_{ds,p}$  is the drain to

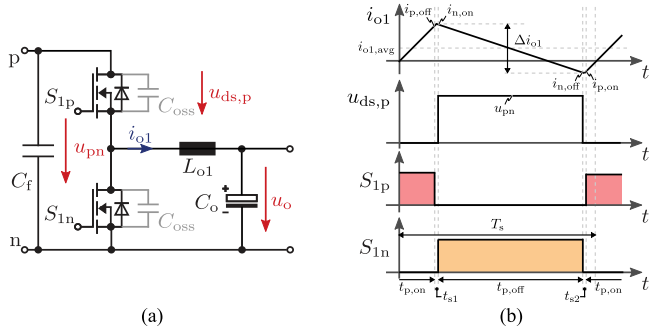


Fig. 3. Circuit cell of the PWM interleaved DC-DC circuit, (a) Circuit phase-leg 1, (b) current and voltage waveforms for TCM-ZVS or B-ZVS.

source voltage of  $S_{1pn}$ ,  $C_{oss}$  is the equivalent output capacitance of the switches. After the turn-off command the  $C_{oss}$  of the upper/lower switch is charged from 0 to  $u_{pn}$ , while the other device within the half-bridge which will be turned-on next is discharged from  $u_{pn}$  to 0 before the switching transition.

As shown in Fig. 3, when the inductor current  $i_{o1}$  reaches  $i_{p,off}$ ,  $S_{1p}$  is turned off. Then, the  $i_{o1}$  resonates from  $i_{p,off}$  to the  $S_{1n}$  turn-on current  $i_{n,on}$ , during the first dead-time  $t_{s1}$ . After  $S_{1n}$  is turned on, the  $i_{o1}$  linearly decreases from  $i_{n,on}$  to  $i_{n,off}$  during the  $t_{p,off}$ . After  $S_{1n}$  is turned off, the  $i_{o1}$  is resonant again from  $i_{n,off}$  to the  $S_{1p}$  turn-on current  $i_{p,on}$ , and the drain to source voltage  $u_{ds,p}$  is resonant from  $u_{pn}$  to 0 during the second dead-time  $t_{s2}$ . After the conduction of its body-diode,  $S_{1p}$  can be turned on with ZVS. To achieve ZVS turn-on, the  $S_{1n}$  turn-off current  $i_{n,off}$  should be adjusted as following [24]:

$$i_{n,off} \leq \begin{cases} -\sqrt{\frac{2C_{oss}u_{pn}}{L_{o1}}(2u_o - u_{pn})}, & \text{if } 2u_o \geq u_{pn} \\ 0, & \text{if } 2u_o < u_{pn} \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

where the equivalent capacitance  $C_{oss}$  is calculated by:

$$C_{oss} = \frac{1}{u_{pn}} \int_0^{u_{pn}} C_{ds}(u_{ds}) du_{ds}. \quad (14)$$

Thereafter, the current ripple  $\Delta i_{o1}$  can be expressed as:

$$\Delta i_{o1} = \frac{(1-d)u_o}{L_{o1}f_{sb}} \quad (15)$$

where,  $d = u_o/u_{pn}$  is the back-end circuit voltage conversion ratio.  $i_{n,off}$  can be written as the function of  $\Delta i_{o1}$ :

$$i_{n,off} = i_{o1,avg} - \frac{\Delta i_{o1}}{2} = i_{o1,avg} - \frac{(1-d)u_o}{2L_{o1}f_{sb}} \quad (16)$$

where  $f_{sb}$  is the switching frequency of the DC-DC converter. It can be seen that both  $\Delta i_{o1}$  and  $i_{n,off}$  are determined by  $f_{sb}$ . Therefore, due to the constant change in  $u_{pn}$ , ZVS operation can be realized with a variable switching frequency controller.

1) *TCM-ZVS*: The switching frequency  $f_{sb}$  for the back-end interleaved Buck DC-DC circuit in TCM-ZVS operation is calculated on the run based on the variable frequency control as:

$$f_{sb} = \frac{(1-d)u_o}{2L_o(i_{avg} + |i_{n,off}|)} \quad (17)$$

TABLE I  
MAIN MODULATION FUNCTIONS FOR THE STUDIED DC-TYPE EV CHARGER

Sector	$k_y$	$k_x$ or $m_{Buck}$	$m_a$	$m_b$	$m_c$
1	$u_{bc}^*/u_{ac}^*$	$u_o^*/u_{ac}^*$	1	$k_y$	0
2	$u_{ac}^*/u_{bc}^*$	$u_o^*/u_{bc}^*$	$k_y$	1	0
3	$u_{ca}^*/u_{ba}^*$	$u_o^*/u_{ba}^*$	0	1	$k_y$
4	$u_{ba}^*/u_{ca}^*$	$u_o^*/u_{ca}^*$	0	$k_y$	1
5	$u_{ab}^*/u_{cb}^*$	$u_o^*/u_{cb}^*$	$k_y$	0	1
6	$u_{cb}^*/u_{ab}^*$	$u_o^*/u_{ab}^*$	1	0	$k_y$

where  $i_{avg}$  can be obtained from the current measurement sensor for  $i_{o123}$ . The TCM-ZVS strategy implements the change in  $f_{sb}$  to keep  $i_{n,off}$  and  $\Delta i_{o123}$  constant for the whole range of  $u_{pn}$ .

2) *B-Zvs*: Since the DC-link voltage  $u_{pn}$  is variable with the two-phase clamped DPWM strategy in the front-end AC-DC converter, the  $f_{sb}$  for TCM-ZVS should be updated in every calculation cycle. To simplify the computation, B-ZVS is introduced also with the variable frequency control as:

$$d_{max} = \frac{u_o}{u_{pn,min}} = \frac{u_o}{\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}u_{g,l-l,rms}} \quad (18)$$

$$f_{sb,min} = \frac{(1-d_{max})u_o}{2L_o(i_{avg} + |i_{n,off}|)} \quad (19)$$

It can be found that the B-ZVS method sets a  $f_{sb}$  which guarantees that for the minimum  $u_{pn}$  the condition given in (13) is satisfied, and the ZVS operation can be achieved naturally with higher  $u_{pn}$  operating points. With B-ZVS strategy,  $f_{sb}$  do not need to change under a constant output power.

### C. Overall Coupled Control Strategy With the Proposed Hybrid Modulation

A possible implementation of a feedback control and PWM modulation strategy for the studied EV charging system is shown in Fig. 4. This control scheme includes an outer DC voltage loop for  $u_o$ , which together with the information of the AC voltages  $u_{gabc}$  generates the AC current references  $i_{abc}^*$ . This voltage control loop also set the reference for the inductor currents  $i_{o123}$  across the interleaved Buck-converters. Since a larger voltage ripple than other normal PWM strategies [25] in the DC-link is allowed via this coupled modulation, a DC-link capacitor with low energy storage capability can be used. The modulation functions for the two-phase clamped DPWM strategy in both front-and back-end stages ensuring high-power-factor operation,  $m_a$ ,  $m_b$ ,  $m_c$  and  $m_{Buck}$ , are synthesized from the six grid voltage sectors, as defined in Fig. 5, and the voltage reference,  $u_{ab}^*/u_{bc}^*/u_{ca}^*/u_{ba}^*/u_{cb}^*/u_{ac}^*/u_o^*$ , as described in Table I. The variables  $m_1$ ,  $m_2$ ,  $m_3$  are the modulation functions for the interleaved phase legs 1, 2 and 3 in the back-end DC-DC stage, which are the sum of  $m_{Buck}$  and the output of the DC current controllers  $G_{i_{o123}}$ . It can be found that in each sector two phase-legs are always clamped, either 1 or 0.

The switching frequency for the back-end interleaved DC-DC stage is calculated on the run based on the presented TCM-ZVS

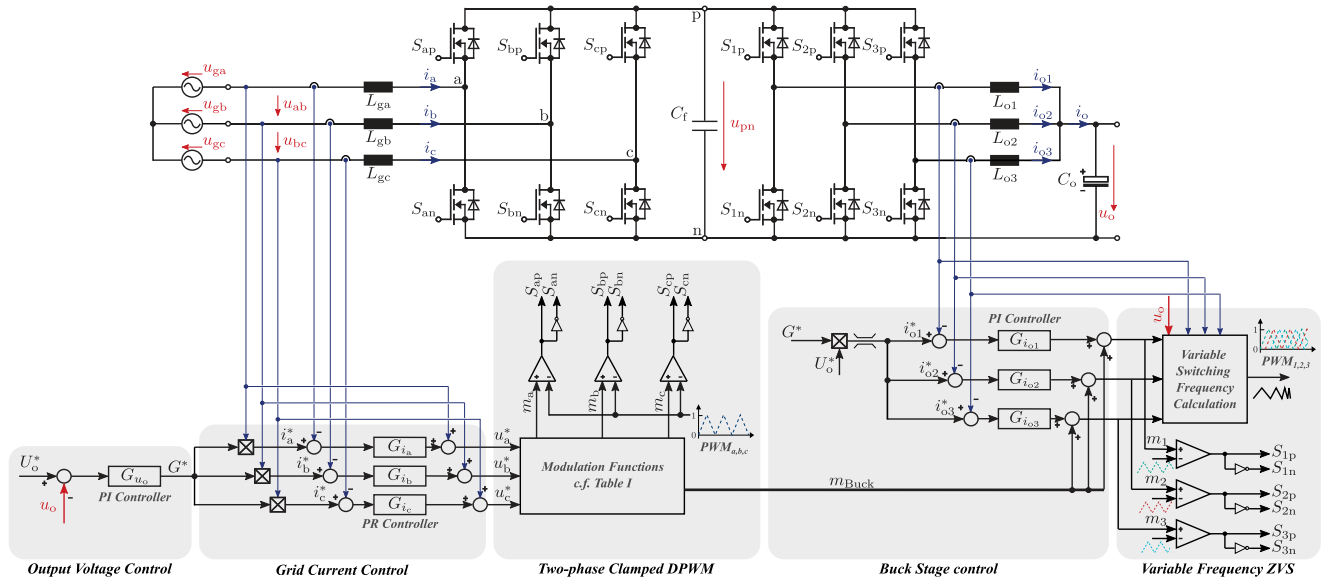


Fig. 4. Feedback control architecture of the DC-type EV charger.

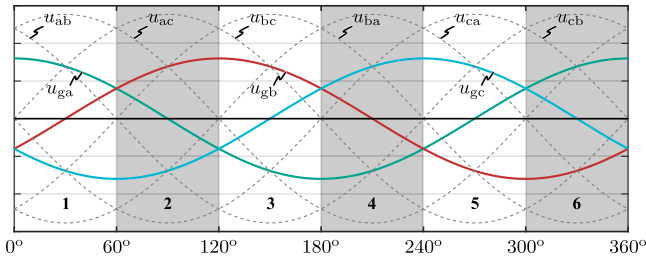


Fig. 5. Grid voltage sectors defined by different relations of the instantaneous values of the grid phase voltages.

in (17) and B-ZVS in (19), where  $d = m_1 = m_2 = m_3$  from the modulation function.

### III. SEMICONDUCTOR STRESSES

To provide a general guideline for the design of the studied DC-type EV charger depicted in Fig. 1, the stresses of the active switches of both the front- and back-end converters are calculated analytically, which is based on SMD Silicon Carbide (SiC) MOSFETs (900 V, 120 mΩ, C3M0120090 J from CREE [34]). It is assumed: a sinusoidal AC current shape; a constant DC current  $i_o$ ; hard-switching in the front-end stage; unity power factor; no low-frequency voltage drop across the input filter inductors; and a switching frequency  $f_s$  being much higher than the grid frequency  $f_g$ , i.e.,  $f_s \gg f_g$ . The specifications of the converter are given in Table II. It is noted that to make the temperatures on the case of the package and PCB board within safe operating range at full power, three units in parallel are used.

There are four different hybrid modulation solutions for the presented two-stage AC-DC converter benchmarked in this section, which are defined as follows:

1) **PWM1**: Traditional SVPWM method is applied in the front-end stage, and the fixed  $f_{sb}$  is used in the back-end stage.

- 2) **PWM2**: Two-phase clamped DPWM method is applied in the front-end stage, and the fixed  $f_{sb}$  is used in the back-end stage.
- 3) **PWM3**: Two-phase clamped DPWM method is applied in the front-end stage, and the B-ZVS strategy is used in the back-end stage.
- 4) **PWM4**: Two-phase clamped DPWM method is applied in the front-end stage, and the TCM-ZVS strategy is used in the back-end stage.

For a fair comparison, with the PWM1 case, the  $u_{pn}$  should be controlled to be  $\sqrt{2}u_{g,l-l,rms} \approx 539$  V to get a maximum modulation index, i.e., 1.15, in the AC-DC converter. For all modulation solutions, the switching frequency for the front-end stage is the same as the fixed  $f_{sb}$  used in the back-end stage as PWM1 and PWM2, which is defined by the average switching frequency  $f_{sb,avg}$  with TCM-ZVS at the full output power:

$$f_{sb,avg} = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{6}} \frac{(1 - d(\omega t)) u_o}{2L_o(i_{avg} + |i_{n,off}|)} d\omega t \approx 36 \text{ kHz} \quad (20)$$

TABLE II  
SPECIFICATIONS FOR THE PROTOTYPE

Variables	Parameters	Value
$P_o$	Rated output power	5 kW
$u_{g,rms}$	Grid voltage	220 V
$\omega$	Grid angular frequency	$2\pi \times 50$ rad/s
$u_{dc}$	DC voltage	400 V
$L_g$	Grid inductance	720 $\mu$ H
$L_o$	Storage filter inductance	240 $\mu$ H
$C_o$	Output capacitance	80 $\mu$ F
$C_f$	DC-link capacitance	5 $\mu$ F
$S_{abc,p/n}$	Active switch for front-end	C3M0120090J
$S_{123,p/n}$	Active switch for back-end	C3M0120090J

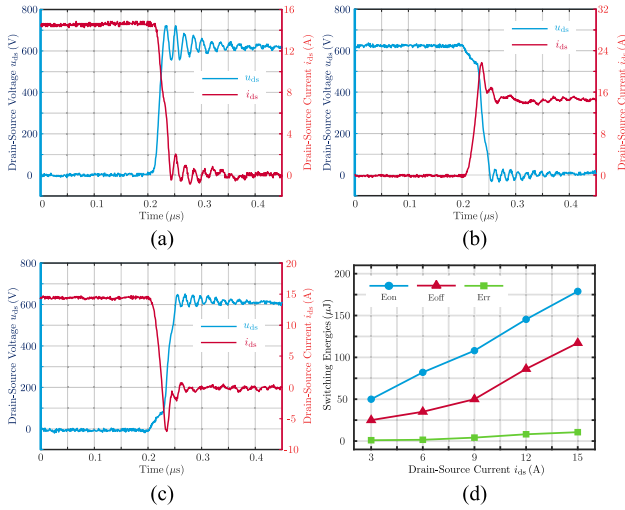


Fig. 6. Measured switching characteristics of one phase leg at  $u_{ds} = U_b = 600$  V and gate resistance  $R_g = 10 \Omega$  (a) turn-off transient (b) turn-on transient (c) anti-parallel diode reverse recovery transient (d) relationship between switching energy and load current.

TABLE III  
FITTED SWITCHING LOSS COEFFICIENTS FOR ONE SiC MOSFET  
(C3M0120090 J) OPERATED AT  $u_{pn} = 600$  V, VALID FOR  
 $E_{sw}(I_{sw}) = a + b|I_{sw}| + c|I_{sw}|^2$

Coefficient	Turn-on Energy ( $E_{on} + E_{rr}$ )	Turn-off Energy ( $E_{off}$ )
a in $\mu\text{J}$	23.71	23.58
b in $\mu\text{J}/\text{A}$	8.75	-1.17
c in $\mu\text{J}/\text{A}^2$	0.16	0.50

### A. Switching Losses

For the analytical calculation of switching losses, the following general equation can be used:

$$P_s = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f_{sb}(\omega t) E_{sw}(u_{pn,sw}, I(\omega t)) d\omega t. \quad (21)$$

where  $E_{sw}$  represents the device switching energy as function of the switched voltage  $u_{pn,sw}$  and current  $I_{sw}$ .  $E_{sw}(u_{pn,sw})$  can be considered linear, and the local switching losses of the semiconductor can be described with a quadratic loss function of  $E_{sw}(I_{sw}) = a + b|I_{sw}| + c|I_{sw}|^2$  [35]. With the selected switching device, the considered fittings coefficients are based on the experimental double pulse test results as shown in Fig. 6 and listed in Table III.

The analysis of the switching losses for the front-end stage can be found in [36]. Herein, if the back-end stage works under the TCM-ZVS operation, the ripple current flowing through  $L_{oi}$  should be constant and equal to:

$$\Delta i_{o,pp} = 2(i_{avg} + |i_{n,off}|) \quad (22)$$

Based on the specifications presented in Table II, the maximum equivalent  $C_{oss} \approx 266$  pF (C3M0120090 J, three in parallel), and thus the maximum value of  $|i_{n,off}|$  based on (13) is approximately 587 mA. To ensure enough margin,  $|i_{n,off}| = 1$  A is selected. Thereafter, the turn-off switching current can be

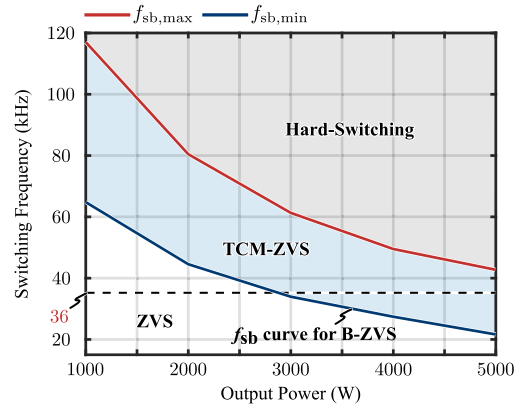


Fig. 7.  $f_{sb}$  operating ranges and limits at  $u_o = 400$  V.

expressed as:

$$I_{sw,off,zvs} = i_{avg} + (i_{avg} + |i_{n,off}|) \quad (23)$$

With TCM-ZVS turn-on the switching losses per device for the back-end DC-DC converter is:

$$P_s = \frac{1}{2\pi U_b} \int_0^{2\pi} f_{sb}(\omega t) u_{pn}(\omega t) E_{sw,off}(I_{sw,off,zvs}(\omega t)) d\omega t. \quad (24)$$

With B-ZVS operation the term  $f_{sb}(\omega t)$  in (24) is replaced by  $f_{sb,min}$  in (19) which is variable mainly as function of  $i_{avg}$  and  $u_o$ .

If the back-end stage is operated under hard-switching, the current flowing through  $L_{oi}$  is expressed as (15), and the turn-on and turn-off switching current are:

$$I_{sw,on,h} = i_{avg} - \frac{\Delta i_{o,pp}}{2} \quad (25)$$

$$I_{sw,off,h} = i_{avg} + \frac{\Delta i_{o,pp}}{2} \quad (26)$$

Both the turn-on and turn-off switching losses should be considered as:

$$P_s = \frac{f_{sb}}{2\pi U_b} \int_0^{2\pi} u_{pn}(\omega t) E_{sw,on}(I_{sw,on,h}(\omega t)) + u_{pn}(\omega t) E_{sw,off}(I_{sw,off,h}(\omega t)) d\omega t. \quad (27)$$

Fig. 7 shows the variation of switching frequency of the back-end stage  $f_{sb}$  with different output power at  $u_o = 400$  V.  $f_{sb}$  for TCM-ZVS varies between its upper and lower limits,  $f_{sb,max}$  and  $f_{sb,min}$ , according to the variation of  $u_{pn}$ . If the  $f_{sb}$  is lower than  $f_{sb,min}$  (cf. (19)), the back-end stage is always operating at ZVS turn on action due to the fact the turn-off current will always be lower than the required value, while, if the  $f_{sb}$  is higher than  $f_{sb,max}$ , then it is always operating at hard-switching. For the PWM1 case, the minimum  $f_{sb}$  to allow ZVS operation in the back-end stage under  $u_{pn} = 539$  V and full power 5 kW is  $41.2 \text{ kHz} > f_{sb,selected} = 36 \text{ kHz}$ . Therefore, ZVS characteristics in the back-end stage can be achieved with PWM1 as well. For the PWM2 case, due to the variable  $u_{pn}$ , ZVS operation for the back-end stage will be lost under some operating points with



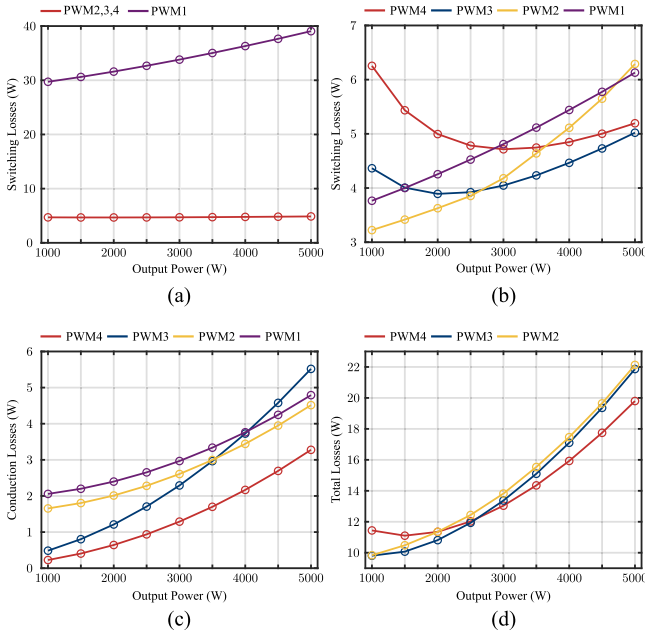


Fig. 8. Calculated semiconductor losses comparison at  $u_o = 400$  V, (a) switching losses in front-end stage, (b) switching losses in back-end stage, (c) conduction losses in back-end stage, (d) total losses of the two-stage converter.

low  $u_{pn}$ , e.g., as shown in Fig. 7 when  $P_o > 3$  kW. The comparison of switching losses in the front-end converter with different modulation solutions is shown in Fig. 8(a). It is clear that the switching losses can be reduced remarkably by the two-phase clamped DPWM compared to traditional SVPWM with constant DC-link voltage, i.e., nearly 87.5% switching losses reduction. The comparison of switching losses in the back-end converter with different modulation solutions is presented in Fig. 8(b). It can be found that at low output power level, the switching losses of the two ZVS strategies in PWM3 and PWM4 are higher than the fixed  $f_{sb}$  in PWM1 and PWM2 due to the considerable increment of  $f_{sb}$ , which can reach more than 100 kHz. However, with the output power increasing, the switching losses of the ZVS strategies will be reduced considerably. The B-ZVS in PWM3 has the best performance in the switching losses at high output power, and the difference between B-ZVS and TCM-ZVS reduces with the increment of power. At high output power, PWM2 may lose ZVS operation due to the variable DC-link voltage, and thus the switching losses achieved by PWM2 is slightly higher than that by PWM1.

### B. Conduction Losses

For unipolar power semiconductors, i.e. SiC MOSFET, assuming that the device channel is used also for reverse conduction, conduction losses depend on the RMS current flowing through the switches,  $I_{rms}$ , and the drain-source on-state resistance,  $R_{ds}$ :

$$P_c = R_{ds} I_{rms}^2. \quad (28)$$

Considering a pure sinusoidal phase current:

$$i_g(\omega t) = I_g \cos(\omega t), \quad (29)$$

where  $I_g = \sqrt{2P_o}/(3u_{g,rms})$  is the peak AC line current, and  $\omega$  is the grid angular frequency.

The RMS currents across  $S_{abc,p/n}$  and  $S_{123,p/n}$  can be calculated solving:

$$I_{S_{abc,p/n,rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} i_g^2(\omega t) k_y(\omega t) d\omega t} = \frac{I_g}{2} \quad (30)$$

$$I_{S_{123,p,rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{6}{\pi} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{6}} d(\omega t) (i_{oi,avg}^2 + \frac{\Delta i_{oi}^2(\omega t)}{12}) d\omega t} \quad (31)$$

$$I_{S_{123,n,rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{6}{\pi} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{6}} (1 - d(\omega t)) (i_{oi,avg}^2 + \frac{\Delta i_{oi}^2(\omega t)}{12}) d\omega t} \quad (32)$$

where,

$$\Delta i_{oi}(\omega t) = \begin{cases} (1 - d(\omega t)) \frac{u_o}{L_o f_{sb}}, & \text{PWM1-3} \\ 2(i_{oi,avg} + |i_{n,off}|), & \text{PWM4} \end{cases} \quad (33)$$

Since  $I_g$  for different modulation solutions are the same, there is no obvious difference of conduction losses observed in the front-end stage. The comparison of conduction losses in the back-end stage is given in Fig. 8(c). It can be seen that the TCM-ZVS in PWM4 has the lowest conduction losses performance because of the lower equivalent  $\Delta i_{oi}$ , and with the power increased, the conduction losses obtained by B-ZVS in PWM3 get worse because of the lower operating  $f_{sb}$  and consequent higher  $\Delta i_{oi}$ , especially at high power.

The total losses comparison among the different operating strategies is shown in Fig. 8(d). Due to the fact that there is a large loss difference between PWM1 and other PWM solutions, the total losses achieved by PWM1 is not included in Fig. 8(d). Although the performance of B-ZVS in the switching losses is the best for most operating range, its conduction losses is the worst for high output power. Thus, the total losses improved by the B-ZVS in PWM3 is limited relative to that by PWM2 with fixed switching frequency. It can be found that the studied TCM-ZVS could provide the optimal solution of losses reduction at high power/output current, which is the normal operating mode in DC-type EV chargers.

Note that according to Fig. 7 at  $P_o < 3$  kW all four operation cases have ZVS turn-on characteristic in the back-end stage. The switching losses reduction for all modulation solutions with two-phase clamped DPWM is much better than that with traditional SVPWM. Due to the non-optimum ZVS turn-on for the B-ZVS in PWM3 and the fixed  $f_{sb}$  in PWM2, which will yield to a higher  $\Delta i_{oi}$  than that for the TCM-ZVS method in PWM4, the conduction losses across the MOSFETs will be increased. Nevertheless, the complexity of the implementation of the TCM-ZVS in PWM4 is higher than that for the other methods, because the variable switching frequency must follow both  $i_{avg}$ ,  $u_o$ , and  $u_{pn}$  and should be ideally updated at every switching cycle, while B-ZVS in PWM3 mostly change with  $i_{avg}$  when the output voltage  $u_o$  is constant.

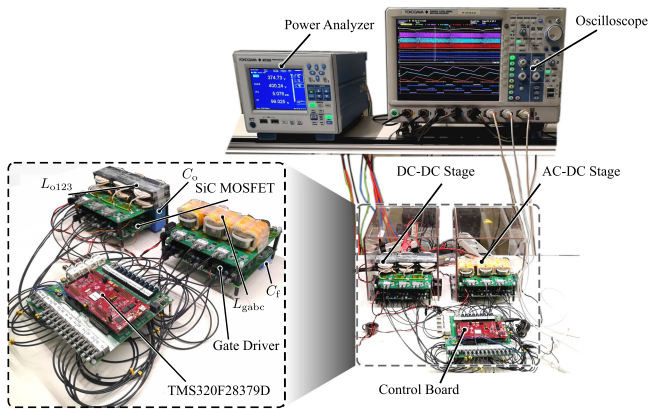


Fig. 9. Experimental setup.

#### IV. SIMULATION AND EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

To validate the effectiveness of the utilization of the proposed hybrid modulation, simulation and experimental tests are conducted and benchmarked with different modulation solutions, i.e., PWM1-4 as described in the previous section. A PLECS based simulation is carried out first to verify the effectiveness of the proposed method. Then, the studied strategies is operated on a digital-controlled hardware platform with digital signal processor (DSP) from the Texas Instruments, C2000 TMS320F28379D, as shown in Fig. 9. The specifications of the prototype are the same as listed in Table II. All of the experimental waveforms are recorded by the oscilloscope YOKOGAYA DLM4058, and the current total harmonic distortions (THD) and power conversion efficiency are tested by the power analyser YOKOGAYA WT500.

Fig. 10 shows the simulation results of the steady-state operation of the studied DC-type EV charger operating with the two-phase clamped DPWM strategy in the front-end stage and TCM-ZVS in the back-end stage at  $u_o = 400$  V,  $P_o = 5$  kW. It can be seen that two-thirds of the switching signal is clamped, while sinusoidal input AC currents are obtained in the front-end stage. The current ripples of  $i_{o1}$ ,  $i_{o2}$ , and  $i_{o3}$  keep constant when the duty cycle of the back-end stage is changing, and the switching signals are interleaved. The effectiveness of the proposed method can be verified through the simulation results.

The main experimental results of the studied circuit operating with TCM-ZVS in the back-end circuit, i.e., PWM4, at 400 V and 5 kW are shown in Fig. 11. The experimental results demonstrate that the front-end AC currents  $i_a$ ,  $i_b$ , and  $i_c$  can effectively follow the sinusoidal input AC voltages, while the current across the parallel back-end converter are well balanced, attesting the feasibility of the studied circuit and control method depicted in Fig. 4. It is clearly observed that in Fig. 11(a), at every moment, the switching signals for two phase-legs are always clamped, either at high (positive DC-rail) or low (negative DC-rail). Additionally, due to the high power factor operation only the phase-leg conducting the lowest current magnitude is switched which can reduce the switching losses of the front-end stage considerably. In Fig. 11(b), it can be seen that for the

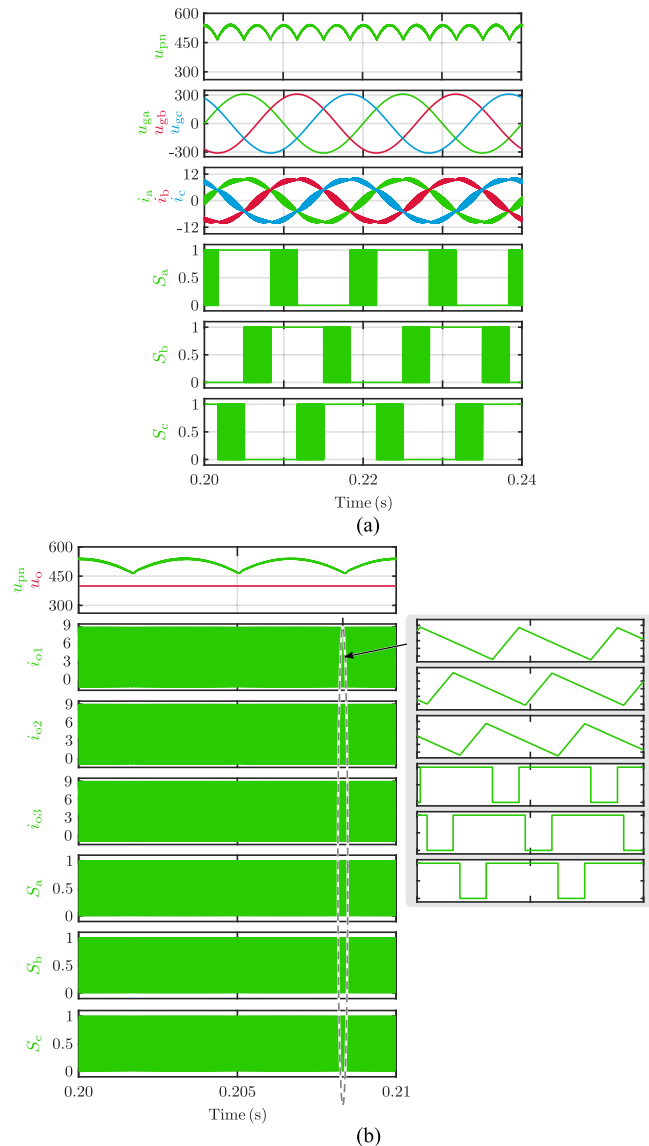


Fig. 10. Simulation results of the steady-state operation of the studied DC-type EV charger operating with the proposed hybrid modulation method, i.e., PWM4, at 400 V, 5 kW for (a) front-end and (b) back-end converter stages.

back-end circuit the current ripples of  $i_{o1}$ ,  $i_{o2}$ , and  $i_{o3}$  are constant because  $f_{sb}$  was dynamically adjusted according to (17), and note that there is a symmetric phase-shift between the three paralleled half-bridge legs, which verifies that the variable frequency TCM-ZVS strategy was effectively implemented. The experimental results match well with the simulation results presented in Fig. 10. The system operation result of the two-stage converter with conventional strategy, i.e., PWM1, is presented in Fig. 12. Different from the proposed hybrid solution, the switches of the front-end stage is switched every time and the DC-link voltage is constant.

Fig. 13 shows the experimental results of the switching transients of the back-end stage at 5 kW with both fixed  $f_{sb}$  in PWM2 and TCM-ZVS in PWM4. With the fixed  $f_{sb}$  in PWM2, the current ripple across the output inductors varies following the changes of  $u_{pn}$ . If  $u_{pn}$  takes the minimum value,  $\Delta i_{o,pp}$  will

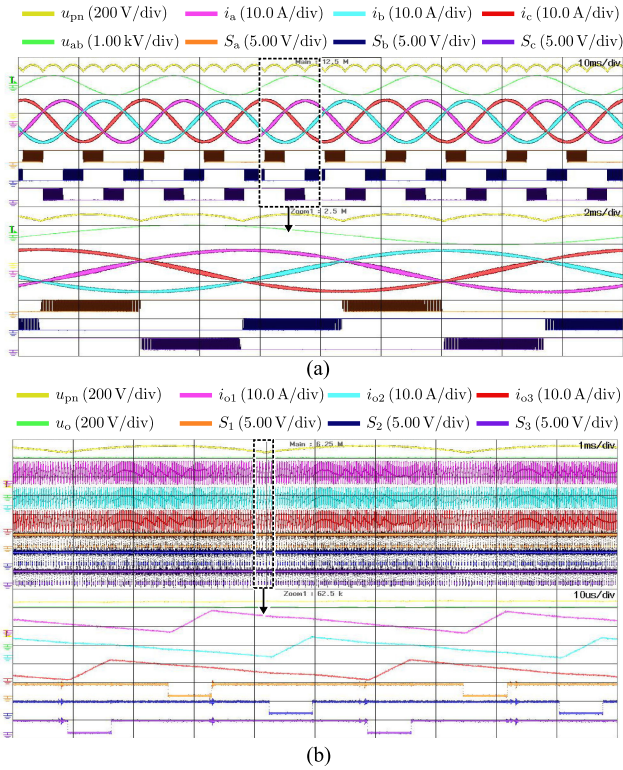


Fig. 11. Experimental results of the studied circuit with the proposed hybrid modulation method, i.e., PWM4, at 400 V, 5 kW for (a) front-end and (b) back-end converter stages.

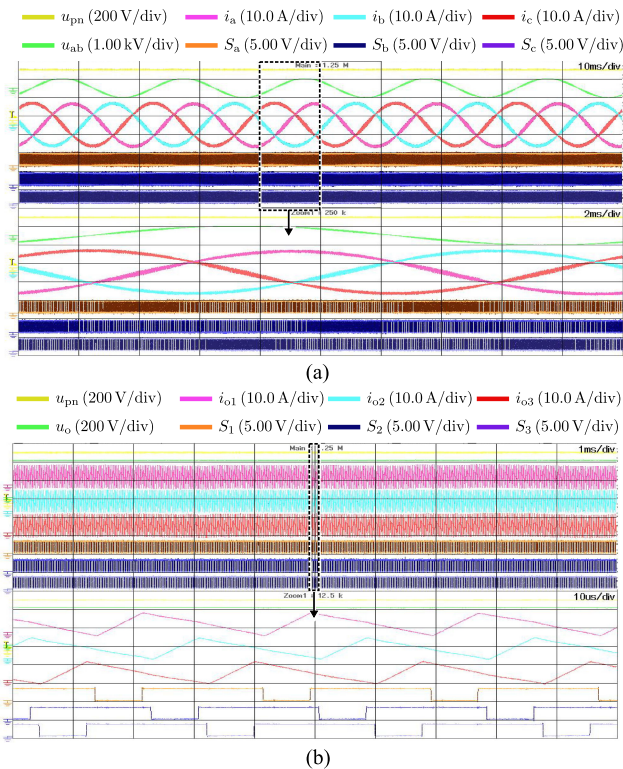


Fig. 12. Experimental results of the studied circuit with traditional modulation method, i.e., PWM1, at 400 V, 5 kW for (a) front-end and (b) back-end converter stages.

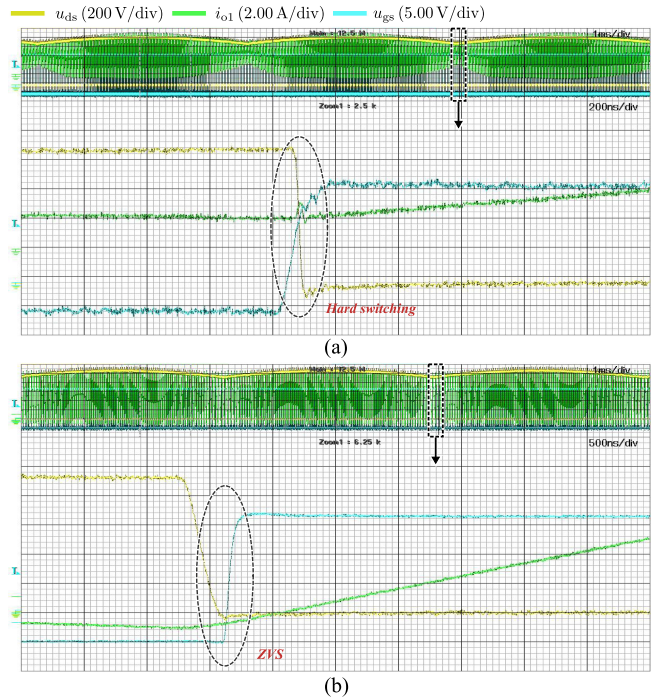


Fig. 13. Experimental results of the switching transients in the back-end stage at 5 kW for (a) fixed  $f_{sb}$  in PWM2, (b) TCM-ZVS in PWM4.

also reach its minimal value. The turn-on current is greater than 0, and thus the back-end stage is operating at hard-switching mode, which can be clearly observed in the zoom function of the highlighted section of Fig. 13(a). On the other hand, with the TCM-ZVS strategy in PWM4, the turn-on current is nearly constant at  $-1$  A, and ZVS turn-on operation can be achieved at the minimum  $u_{pn}$  point, as shown in the zoom function of the highlighted section of Fig. 13(b). The switching transients of the back-end stage with PWM1 and PWM3 is similar as that with PWM4.

Fig. 14 shows the measured total system power conversion efficiency among different modulation solutions implementing at the studied two-stage converter for different output power and DC output voltages. In Fig. 14(a), controlled by the implemented two-phase clamped DPWM (PWM2-4), a considerable improvement in the power efficiency of the converter can be achieved compared to the traditional SVPWM method (PWM1) as predicted by the theoretical analysis in Fig. 8(a). With the ZVS operation in the back-end stage, the power efficiency of the converter can be further improved by the proposed PWM3 and PWM4. The maximum efficiency obtained in the measurements is 99%, which is achieved at 400 V and 5 kW with the TCM-ZVS strategy in PWM4. Moreover, as discussed in the Section III, the efficiency improvement in the back-end stage achieved by B-ZVS is limited compared to the one achieved by the fixed  $f_{sb}$ . In Fig. 14(b), with a constant DC current, i.e., at  $i_o = 12.5$  A, the power converter efficiency of the PWM4 is still better than the other modulations.

Fig. 15 shows the AC current THD among different modulation solutions with different output power and DC voltage. The

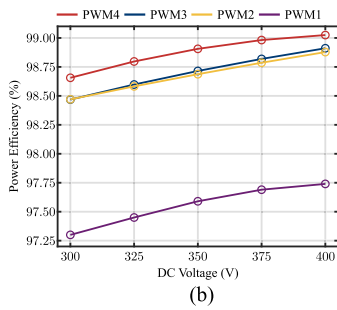
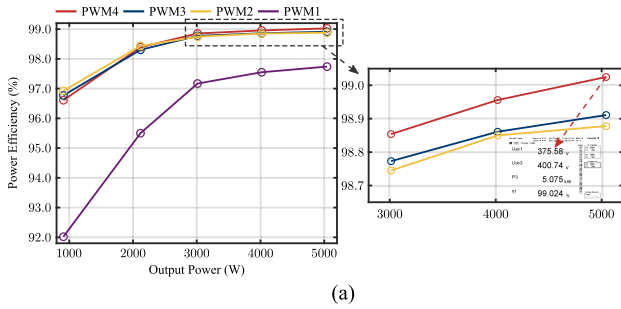


Fig. 14. Comparison between the measured power conversion efficiency for all analyzed PWM cases (a) output power at  $u_o = 400$  V (b) DC voltage at  $i_o = 12.5$  A.

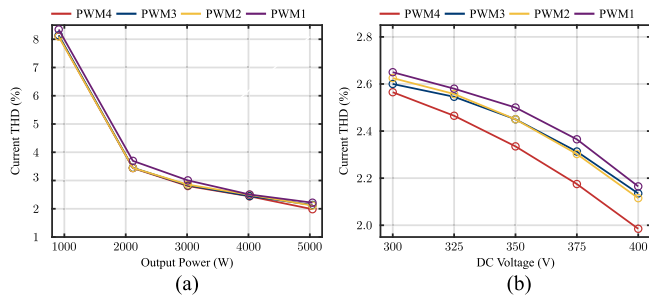


Fig. 15. Comparison between the AC Current THD for all analyzed PWM cases (a) output power at  $u_o = 400$  V, (b) DC voltage at  $i_o = 12.5$  A.

current THD in the front-end stage achieved by the two-phase clamped DPWM is better than that of the SVPWM. It is found that the variation of switching frequency in the back-end stage do not have a significant impact on the AC current THD. The current THD achieved with the TCM-ZVS in PWM4 is slightly lower, because the equivalent  $f_{sb}$  for TCM-ZVS is high and the harmonics coupled from the DC side to the AC side are relatively small, where the DC-link capacitance  $C_f$  and AC inductances  $L_{gabc}$  act as a low pass filter.

Fig. 16(a) shows the scaled down (50 kW to 5 kW) battery charging profile of a popular EV, i.e., the Nissan Leaf, from the state-of-charge (SoC) from 0% to 90%. Therein, the scaling down considers that the necessary 50 kW power is provided evenly by 10 parallel units of the designed prototype shown in Fig. 9. Fig. 16(b) presents the measured power efficiencies for the setup employing the four studied modulation strategies during the EV charging process. The proposed hybrid solution with TCM-ZVS provides the best efficiency performance as well over whole SoC range. Note that with the assumption that

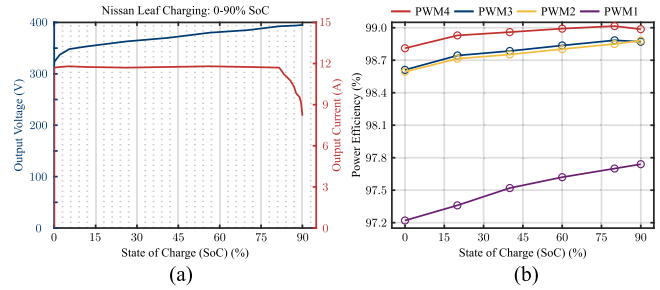


Fig. 16. (a) Equivalent Nissan Leaf charging profile for one 5 kW unit of ten paralleled converters and (b) measured power efficiency for all back-end converter studied modulation strategies. Note that all benchmarked strategies will feature ZVS turn-on for the whole charging profile.

TABLE IV  
PERFORMANCE COMPARISON OF VARIOUS PWM METHODS

	PWM1	PWM2	PWM3	PWM4
ZVS range	full	low	full	full
Efficiency	low	high	high	very high
Complexity	low	moderate	high	very high

an even distribution of power occurs each paralleled converter will process  $P_o > 3$  kW for the whole charging range shown in Fig. 16(a). This will yield to ZVS turn-on of the back-end converter for most of the studied modulation strategies.

The advantages and disadvantages of the proposed method, PWM3 and PWM4, and the previous method, PWM1 and PWM2, are compared in Table IV. It can be found that except for PWM2, every PWM method has the feature of ZVS turn-on operation. The proposed methods, i.e., TCM-ZVS and B-ZVS strategies, can lead to a higher efficiency, but they will increase the complexity of the system, which needs to consume more computation power to get the required switching frequency.

All in all, the presented simulation and experimental results have shown that a remarkable reduction on power losses with the proposed hybrid modulation has been achieved in the studied DC-type EV charger system. This confirms the superiority of the proposed method when compared to the other analyzed strategies. Therefore, the validity and advantages of the proposed strategy are verified.

## V. CONCLUSION

This work has evaluated a two-stage AC-DC power converter employing a new hybrid modulation strategy for DC-type EV chargers, where two-phase clamped DPWM strategy is implemented for the front-end AC-DC circuit and ZVS turn-on is safeguarded over a large operating range for the back-end DC-DC circuit. The high power factor operation of the system with two-phase clamped DPWM strategy is only possible when a low energy storage exists between the two cascaded converters, which makes the operation of both circuits highly coupled to each other. The principle of operation and implementation of the necessary synergetic control strategy for both converter stages have been explained in detail. The mathematical models of the semiconductor stresses have been described as well. It

was shown that the two-phase clamped DPWM method can achieve a remarkable switching losses reduction in the front-end stage compared to the traditional SVPWM method. Moreover, in an EV charging application the semiconductor losses of the TCM-ZVS in the back-end stage is superior to that achieved with B-ZVS and the fixed frequency operation. Simulation and experimental results have been used to verify the effectiveness and superiority of the proposed method. The 99% power conversion efficiency has been achieved at 400 V and 5 kW with the TCM-ZVS strategy in the back-end stage, which is 1.3% higher than the traditional solution.

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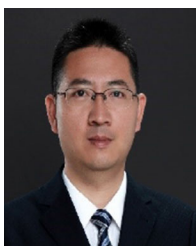
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